

**COLLABORATIVE STRATEGIES APPLIED BY THE HUMANITARIAN
AGENCIES IN THE INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS (IDP) OPERATIONS
IN KENYA**

By:

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**A Management Research Project submitted to the School of Business in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Masters Degree of Business Administration**

University of Nairobi

October 2010

DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been submitted to any other college, institution or university other than the University of Nairobi for academic credit.

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ABSTRACT

This project aims at the evaluation of the collaborative strategies applied by the humanitarian agencies in the IDP operations in Kenya. A number of organizations were involved in delivery of services to the IDPs in the camps. Post election violence erupted in December 2007 following the disputed results of presidential elections. The violence left 1,300 dead and displaced over 600,000 persons, whom move into various camps within Kenya. It was the responsibility of humanitarian agencies to provide protection, care and maintenance to the displaced individuals through individual agency's mandate. Each organization had core activities, individual budgets which were being funded by different donors. This was to enhance timely response to emergency situation, specialization in competencies, prioritization of services and equitable distribution of resources based on the needs of the beneficiaries.

The key services which were being delivered to the IDPs were food, health, education, water, sanitation, protection, non food items and shelter. Kenya Red Cross Society was in charge of the camps and there were inter-agency meetings held to review performances in the various factors. However, all organizations were working independently within the obtained funding without established plans. This resulted into gaps, duplication in the delivery of services, lack of coordination, responsibility and accountability and lack of trust among the agencies.

The challenges facing the implementation of collaborative strategies included corruption, lack of government support, lack of access to funding, lack of cooperation between agencies working in the IDP operations. In addition, due to insecurity and uncertainty in the country during the peak of the IDP operations it was not conducive for agency employees move freely to all locations to deliver services.

DEDICATION

To my beloved father the late Mr. Wellington Eliab Omoto (Mwalimu) and mother Mrs. Truphena Omoto, for their inspiration and encouragement, that nurtured my interest and pursuit for education. I am indebted to them, for their noble, selfless sacrifice that provided me with a solid launch pad for my education.

To the Almighty God, who has given me good health, resources and the wisdom to undertake this course.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I give special thanks to my supervisor, Dr Ogutu, Lecturer and Chairman of The Business Management Department, University of Nairobi, without his guidance and advice, this work would not be complete. I especially thank him for his patience, concern and availability which enabled me to complete my long overdue project. Special thanks to Mr. Jackson Maalu, my research project moderator for his constructive criticisms.

Special thanks to my children Henry & Marion, Collette, Phyllis, Silas and Barry for their understanding, support, encouragement and perseverance through the strain occasioned by the hectic programme. I acknowledge and appreciate my brothers, nephews, nieces and my close friends for their patience, understanding and representation in social functions. Special thanks to my nephew Silas for his support in the consolidation of data. Special thanks to my beloved sister Mrs Margaret Doreen Adongo, for her kind words of encouragement and prayers. I also wish to acknowledge the support of MBA office for their guidance on the research project procedures.

Special thanks to my employer for financial support, to Ms Dotse, who is my colleague and immediate supervisor in the office for her understanding, mentorship and invaluable support during the entire period of the course, to Ms Ahua and Mr Okoth-Obbo for their continuous follow up on the progress of my studies.

Special thanks to all the respondents, to Kefa, the National Chairman of the IDP Network, the management of Kenya Red Cross Society, Ministry of Special Programmes, Internally Displaced Persons Unit at UNHCR, World Food Programme, Office of the Humanitarian Coordinator, Save the Children UK, National Commission on Gender and Development and Umande Trust, who spent their invaluable time to provide materials used in the literature review and contacts of the respondents who participated in the survey.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA	Consolidated Appeal
CHAP	Common Humanitarian Action Appeal
CERF	Central Emergency Response Fund
CPFR	Collaborative Planning, Forecasting and Replenishment
ERC	Emergency Relief Coordinator
GHP	Global Humanitarian Platform
HC	Humanitarian Coordinator
ICRC	International Red Cross Committee
IFRC	International Federation of Red Cross
IDD	International Displacement Division
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons
IOM	International Migration Organization
IASC	Inter Agency Standing Committee
KCRS	Kenya Red Cross Society
NGO	Non Governmental Organization
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
RC	Resident Coordinator
RD	Research and Development
UN	United Nations
UNCT	United Nations Country Team
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children Education Fund
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The study focused on collaborative strategies employed by humanitarian agencies that worked in the Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) operations in Kenya. These agencies included United Nations Agencies, Kenya Red Cross Society and international Non Governmental Organizations.

1.1.1 Collaborative Strategies

Collaboration is the ability of two or more parties to share complex information over time and space on an ongoing basis for a common goal. According to Agranoff & McQuire, collaboration is working together to define and resolve strategic problems. Although a great deal of collaboration is cooperative, meaning, working jointly with others, collaborative management entails engaging one or more organizations in a purposeful and official partnership or contractual arrangement, and it sometimes amounts to assisting others in a particular effort. Collaboration is not intuitive. It can be formal or informal and is usually an unnatural act (Coleman David, 2000). The principle that managers must always operate across organizations as well as within hierarchies is becoming an accepted component of contemporary management theory. This includes the work of governments connecting with other governments, United Nations agencies and with non governmental sectors. Through partnerships, networks, contractual relationships, alliances, committees, coalitions, consortia, and councils, managers in public and private agencies jointly develop strategies and effectively deliver services on behalf of their organizations.

For the greater part of the twentieth century, the processes of hierarchical management occupied practical and academic attention. But such a focus captures too few of the challenges faced by today's managers. In the twenty-first century, interdependence and the salience of information has resulted in an environment where organization and sectoral boundaries are more conceptual than actual and collaborative managerial responses are

required to complement, and in some cases, displace bureaucratic processes. According to DeFillipi and Reed (1991), collaboration between organizations can be motivated unilaterally, which comes about when one organization perceives a resources-deficiency need that can be satisfied by another organization. Efforts have been made to incorporate such linkages in humanitarian programmes. Collaboration does not just happen. Like operating within an organization's hierarchy, collaboration has to be managed, albeit in different ways. Some collaboration of organizations is voluntary and others are mandated by the government through tripartite or bipartite agreements. Processes for collaboration in humanitarian activities include, critical policy making, finances, information, labour, knowledge, legal authority and expertise among others.

The framework for collaborative strategies involves four components. Firstly, collaborative mechanisms available to humanitarian agencies for achieving strategic objectives are multifarious and abundant. Each organization specializes in different sectors or clusters. Secondly, the extent and purpose of the leading agency's collaborative management varies across humanitarian agencies. Thirdly, the choices of whether, why, and how to collaborate are based on structural or administrative considerations along with economic and political imperatives. There is variation in activity levels and purpose. And finally, given distinct number of mechanism levels, and purpose of linking activities, numerous types or patterns of collaborative activity exist in practice.

Collaborative arrangements are a unique institutional form consisting of processes different from the spontaneous co-ordination of markets, or the conscious management of hierarchy (Powell, 1990). Just as the bureaucratic organizations was the signature of organization form during the industrial age, the emerging information or knowledge age gives rise to less rigid, more permeable structures, where persons are able to link across internal functions, organization boundaries and even geographic boundaries. The world is characterized by extreme complexity and diversity (Dunsire, 1993; Kooiman, 1993), where power is dispersed, not centralized; where tasks are becoming differentiated, rather than sub-divided and specialized; where society worldwide demands greater freedom and individualization rather than integration.

Collaborative strategy was applied in response to the problem of Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) in Kenya. For example, at the onset of the IDPs crisis in Kenya, the Government of Kenya advised the humanitarian organizations of the number of camps, location of the camps and population figures. Kenya Red Cross Society (KRCS) coordinated the emergency assistance activities and remained the national agency for response due to its good network and also took the lead in the delivery of emergency assistance.

According to Report of the United Nations Secretary General's High Level Panel of 9 November 2006, The United Nations as well as other humanitarian agencies needs to overcome fragmentation and deliver as one through stronger commitment to working together on the implementation of one strategy, in the pursuit of one set of goals. However, it is recognized that implementing these reforms will involve significant challenges and sometimes sacrifice individual interests for UN Agencies, Funds and Programmes. Donors will also be challenged to deliver as one thus changing the way agencies are funded in line with principles of multilateralism and national ownership at different levels.

1.1.2 Humanitarian Agencies in the IDP Programme

Humanitarian agencies are organizations charged with the task of working in emergency operations to help people in need. These include UN Agencies, International NGOs and Local NGOs, International organizations, governments and donors. These agencies are managed by the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), who have launched several initiatives designed to strengthen global humanitarian response in the following three principal categories: more predictable funding, as well as new and broader funding sources and funding mechanisms; better sectoral coordination to improve coherence and minimize gaps and duplication; and ensuring better qualified and trained coordinators. In order to support the collaborative initiative, the Emergency Relief Coordinator (ERC) function was created at the country level to coordinate the inter-agency protection and assistance to IDPs among humanitarian agencies.

The ERC's responsibility includes global advocacy on protection and assistance, resource mobilization, global information on IDPs, and ensuring that field arrangements are adequately supported. When necessary and appropriate, the ERC brings issues concerning IDPs to the attention of the UN Secretary-General and the UN Security Council. The International Displacement Division (IDD) was established to support the ERC in promoting a predictable and concerted response to internal displacement. The IDD provides assistance to international organizations at field level in developing and refining IDP strategies and ensuring their effective implementation, including appropriate division of labour (Bagshaw and Paul, 2004).

The scope and complexity of internal displacement calls for a multifaceted response and the active involvement of organizations both within and outside the UN system which possess special expertise and resources, including displaced and host communities and civil society. Among other measures, the United Nations emergency relief coordinator launched the concept of "clusters" in mid-2005 to improve the predictability, accountability, timeliness and effectiveness of the humanitarian response for "all the people and communities affected by crisis." (IASC Principals meeting 12 September 2005). The cluster approach, which assigns the responsibility for key sectors to different agencies, is also aimed at strengthening the collaborative approach to IDP crises. However, the primary responsibility for protection and assistance to civilians in the internal displacement crises lies with the national authorities of the affected countries. The capacity and/or willingness of the authorities to fulfill their responsibilities is often insufficient or lacking. In such circumstances, the humanitarian agencies need to support and supplement the efforts of the government and local authorities (Norwegian Institute of Human Rights, 2007).

The Global IDP Project of the Norwegian Refugee Council supports the work of the Representative on the Human Rights of IDPs and the Inter-Agency IDD by collecting information on all IDP situations worldwide and conducting training workshops to strengthen the capacity of humanitarian actors in the field, based on a tripartite memorandum of understanding signed with these two institutions. The Humanitarian Coordinator (HC) and/or Resident Coordinator (RC), (one or two persons, depending on

the country) is responsible for the strategic coordination of protection and assistance of IDPs. This includes advocating for assistance to and protection of IDPs and also ensuring that humanitarian requirements are adequately addressed before, during and after an emergency phase. To support the HC and/or RC and the country team, an OCHA field presence is usually deployed. OCHA's support functions with regard to IDPs include providing support for humanitarian diplomacy or other negotiations such as gaining access to IDPs and other vulnerable groups; the collection, analysis and dissemination of IDP relevant information; supporting the development of coordination tools, such as the Common Humanitarian Action Plan (CHAP) and the Consolidated Appeal (CA); ensuring the inclusion of IDP concerns, organizing and participating in inter-agency need assessments, and convening coordination forums (Norwegian Institute of Human Rights, 2007).

The country team brings together a broad range of UN and non-UN humanitarian partners including UN humanitarian agencies like, the International Organization for Migration (IOM), relevant international NGOs, and many others. The Country Team also consults with Red Cross movement represented by International Federation of Red Cross (IFRC) and International Red Cross (ICRC), which is a neutral, impartial and an independent organization that has a specific mandate to provide protection and assistance to persons affected by armed conflicts, internal disturbances and tensions, including IDPs. In general, ICRC's mandate is discharged in close cooperation with National Societies of the Red Cross/Red Crescent supported by their International Federation. The National Societies are mandated to assist the most vulnerable within their own countries, including IDPs, and are often the first and only organization present at the inception of a disaster (OCHA, 2005).

The Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) respond to the protection and assistance needs of IDPs and other vulnerable people, based on their mandate and expertise (IRIN, 2005). The NGOs play a valuable role in supporting the implementation of the collaborative response. The support includes collecting and providing information on protection and assistance needs of IDPs in areas where NGOs operate. Donors, relevant humanitarian agencies in the Country Team participate in consultations on IDP issues under the leadership of the UN HC/RC and contribute to the development of a national

IDP strategic plan, if possible through an inclusive coordination forum. The NGOs support the implementation of a national IDP strategic plan when in line with humanitarian principles and codes of conduct, as well as the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement. Further, they monitor the implementation of the collaborative response by the UN HC/RC and the Country Team, including the commitment of country team agencies and the effectiveness of planned activities. NGOs will also advocate for the participation of IDPs at all stages of the emergency response, including planning, implementation and assessment.

1.1.3 IDPs Programme in Kenya

The definition of internally displaced persons commonly used within the international community is the one provided by the representative of the United Nations secretary-general on internally displaced persons for the UN's Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement. This definition, which is broad, includes "...persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border."(International Review of the Red Cross, No. 324, September 1998).

Intrastate conflict and resultant internal population displacement is one of the greatest challenges facing Africa today. The magnitude of the humanitarian problem facing IDPs led to the issuance of the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement by the United Nations Secretary General's Special Representative on IDPs. Based on the existing humanitarian law and human rights instruments, the Guiding Principles are meant to guide governments, international and local humanitarian agencies, and individuals in providing assistance and protection to IDPs. The IDPs are deprived of their ordinary living environment in terms of security, community support, the ability to earn a livelihood and access to food, water and shelter. They often are brutally killed or go missing. This directly threatens their ability to meet their most basic needs, all the more so, when families are split apart from other family members. As all vulnerable people, IDPs are entitled to

assistance and protection as required. It is of paramount importance to take account of all their needs at every stage of the displacement, particularly in the area of protection, health and shelter.

Internal displacement in Kenya is often traced to the onset of multi-party politics in the 1990s, though in some quarters, it is linked to the effects of land alienation during colonial times (Human Rights Watch, 1997). According to Gullet (2008), the dawn of 2008 witnessed the post election violence that erupted in December 2007 following the disputed results of the Presidential election. The violence left at 1,300 people dead and displaced over 600,000, with 350,000 IDPs living in temporary camps across the country (KRCS Annual Report (2008). According to statistics obtained from Ministry of Special Programmes, Rift Valley province had the highest number of displaced persons totaling to some 167,639, about 100,000 of them being in Eldoret and the rest in Nakuru, Naivasha, Western Kenya and other areas in Kenya. The violence, the worst in Kenya's history, also polarized communities. It resulted in a loss of lives, loss of trust amongst different tribes and communities and ignited hatred.

The situation was characterized by the continual movement of the displaced people. The magnitude of the humanitarian problem facing Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) globally, led to the issuance by the United Nations Secretary General's Special Representative on IDPs of the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement. Based on existing humanitarian law and human rights instruments, the Guiding Principles are meant to guide governments, international and local humanitarian agencies, and individuals in providing assistance and protection to IDPs.

A number of IDPs were resettled while a large number are still being hosted in the transitional camps awaiting purchase of suitable land and payment of repatriation grants. To date, the Provincial Administration, who were charged with the responsibility of providing security to the residual caseload of IDPs, forcefully evicted them from the transitional camps without the provision of alternative land for settlement. This resulted in a state of quagmire which was condemned by the Minister of Special Programmes. The victims were faced with other life threatening natural disasters like exposure to harsh

weather conditions and insecurity. This resulted in the dire need for application of collaborative strategies by the Humanitarian Agencies to pool resources, deliver as one and provide durable solutions.

The response to internal displacement in Africa is minimal, delayed or non-existent. The response of governments to the protection needs of IDPs is generally poor. In Kenya, it was considered in the interest of state security to deny journalists, researchers and members of the humanitarian community access to information on IDPs as well as access to clash zones at the height of displacement. This was due to on-going security risks, but sometimes it was as a result of a deliberate obstruction by the government or its agents.

In Kenya, the problem of forced displacement fell under the Ministry of Special Programmes. Unlike refugees, the government was quick to deny or withhold information about the suffering of its own nationals. Furthermore, the Refugee Act which came into force in 2007, did not address the problem of IDPs at all, nor did the refugee desk at the Ministry of Immigration and Foreign Affairs Departments. Instead, the IDP problem has been shifted to the Ministry of Special Programmes. An interview at Special Programmes revealed that no-one was specifically charged with addressing the problem of those displaced during or around election time. However, relief supplies, including food, medicine and other basic necessities, were provided for victims of cattle rustling, drought and natural disasters only.

Some families were given material assistance by the government to resettle on alternative land at Elburgon, Turbo Forest and Baraget Forest. The government then declared that there were no more internally displaced persons in Kenya except those fleeing from natural disasters like floods and drought. However, pending court cases and continued assistance programmes by the church indicated that not all displaced persons were able to return to their farms. In September 2009, Kenya's Head of State urged the Ministry of Special Programmes to pay grants to displaced persons in Eldoret Show ground to buy alternative land and build homes or return to their farms, assuring the IDPs that the provincial administration would guarantee security to all IDPs wishing to return. To date, very little has been done by the administration to facilitate this directive.

1.2 The Problem Statement

Collaborative management is a concept that describes the process of facilitating and operating in multi-organizational arrangements to solve problems that cannot be solved, or solved easily, by a single organization. Collaboration is a purposive relationship designed to solve a problem by creating or discovering a solution within a given set of constraints (e.g. knowledge, time, money, competition, conventional wisdom; Schrage, 1995). There is an emerging recognition of the importance of collaborative strategies in response to humanitarian crises. In countries where humanitarian crises are beyond the scope of any one agency's mandate and needs are of sufficient scale and complexity, engagement of a multi-sectoral response with a wide range of humanitarian actors is justified if there is a Humanitarian Co-coordinator (Inter-Agency Standing Committee, 2006). Collaborative strategies within the humanitarian agencies are therefore aimed at strengthening humanitarian response by demanding high standards of predictability, accountability and partnership in all sectors or areas of activity. This strategy enhances interaction, harmonization and complementarity in assisting victims of humanitarian crisis such as the IDPs.

The Humanitarian Agencies in Kenya are numerous but the ones that were involved in the IDP operations include; international and local NGOs, UN Agencies and Kenya Red Cross/Red Crescent Society, all of whom, have individual mandates for existence. Example, UNHCR mandated as lead agency for Refugees, UNICEF mandated as lead agency for Education, WFP mandated as lead agency for food, WHO mandated as lead agency for Health, FAO mandated as lead agency for Agriculture, while others have not. This had led to ad hoc, unpredictable and ineffective humanitarian responses, with inevitable capacity and response gaps in some areas not assigned to any agency. In light of the above, the Global Humanitarian Platform (GHP) was created by UN and IOM agencies, the Red Cross/Red Crescent Movement and NGOs, in July 2007, in which the Principles of Partnership, designed to put humanitarian actors on more equal footing, was adopted. This was with a view to improve humanitarian assistance by strengthening

partnerships at both global and national levels. Previously, NGOs operated in uncertain climates with different, sometimes, overlapping mandates.

The Global Humanitarian Platform, brought together UN and non-UN humanitarian organizations on an equal footing with a view of striving together to enhance the effectiveness of humanitarian action, based on an ethical obligation and accountability to the population being served; acknowledging diversity as an asset of the humanitarian community and recognizing the interdependence amount humanitarian organizations and finally; committed to building and nurturing an effective collaboration based on five principles namely, equality - which is the mutual respect between members irrespective of size and power; transparency - meaning dialogue and communication (consultations and information sharing including financial information); result-oriented approach - referring to reality based and action oriented coordination based on effective capabilities and operational capacities; responsibility - which means completion of tasks responsibly, with integrity and in a relevant an appropriate way and, complementarities - which means to build on comparative advantages and complement each other, strive to form an integral part of emergency response.

However, it was noted that not many studies had been done on the effectiveness of collaborative strategies applied by Humanitarian Agencies in Kenya and this therefore created the impetus for my research on the perception of the IDPs on the achievements and the challenges that had emerged with the United Nations “Delivering as One” initiative at the country level. The initiative was primarily focused on development activities, the Humanitarian Reform process, and the deployment of integrated UN missions, which incorporate peacekeeping, political, humanitarian and development components, and the subsequent increased acceptance of common programme, operational plan, budgetary framework and country based funding mechanism to cover financial gaps. Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF), which was introduced as a result of humanitarian reforms, reinforced the inequalities in power and access to funding between UN agencies and NGOs, despite the fact that the latter delivered the majority of humanitarian aid and often mobilized faster. According to Save the Children’s Director, contracts and other financial aspects of the collaboration between UN agencies and NGOs continue to be

marred by misunderstanding and lack of transparency. This study therefore sought to determine the effectiveness of the collaborative strategies applied in addressing the situation of the IDPs in Kenya.

The research question that was addressed in the study was how effective were the collaborative strategies used by the humanitarian agencies in dealing with the IDP situation in Kenya?

1.3 The Research Objectives

The study sought to address the following objectives:

To determine how beneficiaries perceived the effectiveness of collaborative strategies employed by the humanitarian agencies to the IDP operations in Kenya;

To determine how beneficiaries perceived the impact of collaborative strategies in the provision of key services like shelter, protection, health, water and sanitation, food, non-food items and education, to the IDPs in Kenya;

To determine the perception of beneficiaries on the challenges that faced humanitarian agencies in implementing of collaborative strategies.

1.4 Importance of the Study

The findings of this study will be useful by the Humanitarian Agencies in re-examining the conditions necessary for developing and implementing effective collaborative strategies in future emergency situations.

The findings will also be essential to the government in verifying gaps and achievements, rating of the overall performance of Humanitarian Agencies and develop policies for collaborative strategies to sustain the remnant caseloads and also for future emergencies.

These findings will be useful to the donor community in finding out the effectiveness of the utilization of funds donated for the IDP operations in Kenya or elsewhere. There was negative media publicity on the abuse of the funds intended for IDP settlement leaving a number of IDPs still living in the camps to date.

The study findings will assist future scholars and researchers who may draw on them for reference and as a basis for further research.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The study focused on IDPs who live in various temporary camps in Kenya and benefited from the assistance provided by the Humanitarian Agencies. The study was limited to humanitarian assistance provided by UN Agencies, Kenya Red Cross Society and International Non-Governmental Organizations in the temporary IDP camps in North \Rift Valley and western Kenya.

1.6 Definition of Terms

Internally Displaced Persons refers to persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.

Humanitarian agencies refer to organizations charged with the task of working in emergency operations to help people with special needs.

Cluster approach refers to a system formulated by a committee of United Nations agencies, which assigns the responsibility for key sectors to different agencies, is also aimed at strengthening the collaborative approach to IDP crises. It aims to improve the

predictability, timeliness and effectiveness of humanitarian response and pave the way to recovery.

Collaboration strategy is an intra organizational strategy that is driven by a policy that stimulates working together to achieve a common goal.

1.7 Chapter Summary

The evaluation of collaborative strategies within humanitarian agencies in the IDP programme is worth researching for implementation in future emergencies for funding and quality assistance. This is with a view to woe as many humanitarian agencies into collaboration in order to pool resources and efficiently deliver services to the beneficiaries.

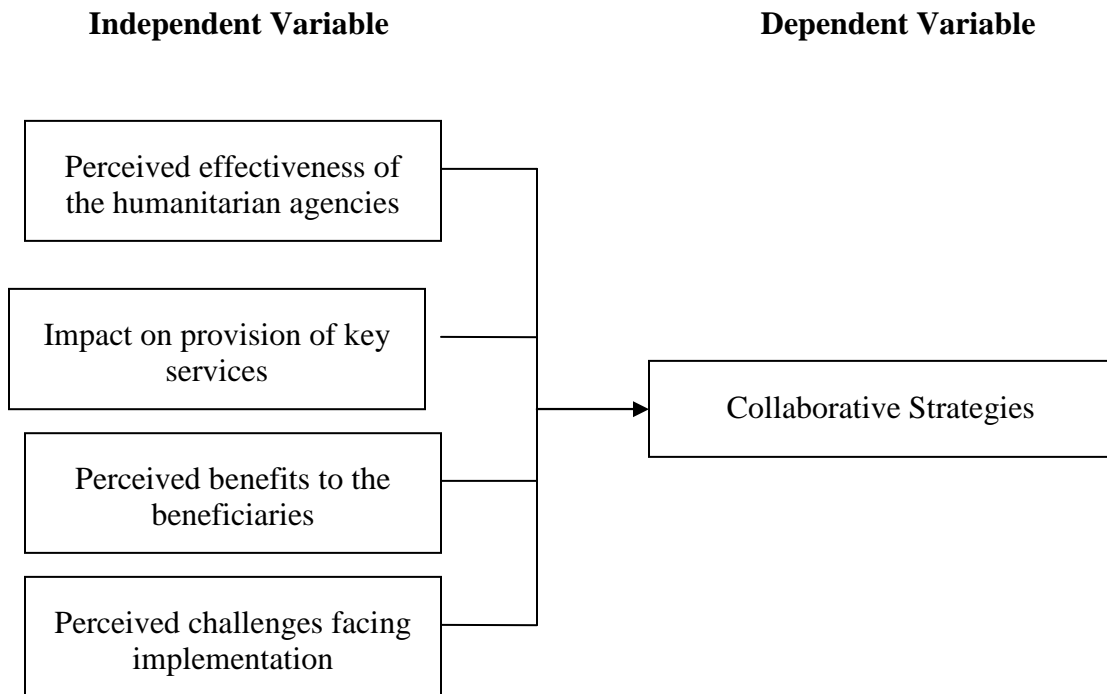
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the information from other researchers who have carried out their research in the same field of study. The specific areas covered here are concept of collaboration, models of collaboration, benefits of collaboration, collaborative strategies and action theory, government’s roles for collaborative ventures, role of the UNHCR in the internally displaced persons programs and other collaborating partners and humanitarian assistance to the IDPs.

2.2 Concept of Collaboration

Conceptual Framework



Source: Author (2010)

Collaboration is defined as occurring when “two or more independent companies/organs work jointly to plan and execute their operations with greater success than when acting in isolation” (Simatupang and Sridharan, 2003). Recent research studies have shown that collaboration offers promise for improved performance in several core areas, including more accurate and timely information, improved planning, reduced costs and improved quality of services (Daugherty et al., 1999; Waller et al., 1999; Barratt and Oliveira, 2001; Angulo et al., 2004). Organizations and individuals can come together through partnership, cooperation, coordination and collaboration, all differentiable in terms of purpose, structure and process (Hogue, 1993). Collaboration – of particular interest in this paper – is seen as enduring and stable, its purpose defined in terms of shared vision, collective goals and benchmarks. Narus and Anderson (1996) used the term of collaboration to describe the cooperation among independent, but related firms to share resources and capabilities to meet their clients' most extraordinary needs. Although previous researchers have used different terms for collaboration, it is important to note that collaboration is an evolving process rather than a static process that lies between adversarial relationships and joint ventures (Lambert et al., 1999).

Collaboration allows for synergy to develop among partners and encourages joint planning, complementarity, responsibility, equality, transparency and real-time information exchange. Each form of collaboration varies in its focus and objectives. Regardless of the collaborative approach taken, however, Simatupang and Sridharan (2003) suggest that the requirements for effective collaboration are mutual objectives, integrated policies, appropriate performance measures, a decision domain, information sharing, and incentive alignment. These requirements demonstrate a need for significant planning and communication to occur between partners, and can require significant resource commitment. Additional studies (Derocher and Kilpatrick, 2000; Mentzer et al., 2000) have affirmed that strong relationships increase the likelihood that firms will exchange critical information as required to collaboratively plan and implement emergency assistance strategies. In order for this sharing of critical information to occur, a high degree of trust must exist among the collaborating partners (Frankel et al., 2002).

By collaborating, organizations are able to exchange both explicit and tacit knowledge in order to combine different knowledge streams across contrasting partner capabilities such that new knowledge can be created for mutual benefit (Lang, 2004). This higher level of interaction, referred to by Lang (2004) as embeddedness, among collaborators encourages the exchange of tacit knowledge which coincides with the high degree of trust that accompanies collaborative relationships.

As organizations expand their operations, the ability to create and maintain collaborative relationships is seen as essential to gain a competitive edge. The most productive relationships achieve five types of integration (Kanter, 1994) namely; Strategic integration which involves continuing contact among top leaders to discuss broad goals or changes in each organization, tactical integration which brings middle managers/professionals together to develop plans for specific projects, operational integration which provides ways for carrying out the day-to-day work, interpersonal integration which builds a necessary foundation for building and sustaining the future of the relationship and cultural integration that requires people involved in the relationship to have the communication skills and cultural awareness to bridge inter-organizational and interpersonal differences.

2.3 Benefits of collaboration

The benefits of collaboration derive from the opportunity to pool resources, access to one common budget, access common donors, access to expertise and skills, to reduce gaps in service delivery and enhance humanitarian agencies performance (Eisenhardt and Schoonhoven, 1996; Hagedoorn, 1993; Kogut, 1989).

Everyone wants to collaborate. Even those who do not want to work together want to be seen to be willing, at least in principle if not in practice. Talk of partnerships, alliances, coalitions, and networks fill the media. Wars have become club affairs, whether against terrorism, drugs, or poverty. The language of competition has become intertwined with that of cooperation, as even the most aggressive acquisition strategy is made to appear like courtship and marriage. “Open source,” the ultimate expression of “come as you are and contribute what you can,” symbolizes a political challenge to the old order of control

through delineation and ownership, and yet also represents the latest organizational model for planning and delivery of services and financial enrichment.

Collaboration is this era's source of hope. The language of dialogue, participation, and consensus increasingly underpins today's utopian visions of social organization, from South Africa's post-Apartheid Truth and Reconciliation Commission through to engagement with Iran over the development of nuclear capabilities (Zadek, 1993). It is through collaboration, often involving the oddest bedfellows, that we vest this generation's hope for effectively addressing the challenges of poverty, inequality, and environmental insecurity. Partnerships involving public institutions, and private commercial and civil society organizations, underpin a growing number of initiatives addressing issues as diverse as HIV/AIDS, humanitarian assistance, labor standards, obesity, and corruption, and the delivery of public services.

There are literally millions of such partnerships in the world today, of every possible shape and color, many localized and focused on specific issues, and a growing number operating at a national or international level. The potential of such is now well-documented, combining institutional competencies, cultures, and access to resources (Donahue and Zeckhauser, 2005; Nelson, 2002; Nelson and Zadek, 2000; Reinicke, 1998). Their span is immense, not just in application, but also in who participates, what drives them to engage, and to what effect (Slaughter, 2004). This diversity is particularly apparent when it concerns the drivers for organizational involvement. At one end of the spectrum are those created on the very edge of the market, essentially “philanthropy plus” partnerships, delivering public goods in ways that offer sufficient business as well as social gains to attract sustained corporate involvement. At the other end are the burgeoning numbers of classical public-private partnerships. These embed commercial contracts at the core, providing specific profit-making opportunities in return for well-defined public good outcomes (Kennedy School, International Business Leaders Forum and World Economic Forum, 2005). In between these polarities is an almost infinite range of intermediary variants, blending rationales, competencies, and outcomes.

A growing number of such multi-stakeholder partnerships are, crucially, gaining influence beyond well-defined, localized, and operational benefits (Rochlin et al., 2008). Increasing numbers are establishing and indeed enforcing wide-ranging norms of behavior, often well beyond the activities and impacts of direct participants. These governance roles are sometimes preconceived, as in the case of the Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative, the Forest and Marine Stewardship Councils, the Equator Principles, the International Council on Mining and Metals, the Global Reporting Initiative, and the World Commission on Dams (Litovsky et al., 2008). In such instances, the declared intention of the partnership was to create rules for a well-defined domain of activities intended for application to those involved in such activities, whether private commercial actors or public governmental or intergovernmental bodies.

In most cases, however, multi-stakeholder partnerships are not formed with the strategic intent to establish new modes of governance (beyond that is, some notion of the preferred approach to governing the partnership itself). The UK-based Ethical Trading Initiative (ETI) and the US-based Fair Labor Association (FLA) are both multi-sector partnerships established to encourage code compliance and good practice in how organizations handles labor standards in global service industry. The FLA was conceived as a standards initiative, with a code and an agreed mechanism for monitoring compliance. The ETI, on the other hand, was conceived of as a collaborative learning platform, albeit also involving a code similar to that adopted by the FLA. While very different in their conceptions, the FLA focused on rules and compliance and the ETI on learning and development. Both have had the effect of establishing de facto rules of the game in how a growing number of service delivery organizations and service providers deal with labor standards. Both the ETI and FLA have, with other initiatives, created a new governance environment for labor standards linked to, but operating independently from, existing bodies of agreed international labor standards, or indeed national labor law and the statutory means by which these standards are, or should be, enforced. Both have, in practice, mutated into “governance micro-climates”-organic, evolving subsystems of rules covering such diverse topics as animal rights, human rights, child labor, humanitarian assistance, environmental

impacts, and obesity-separate but also inextricably linked to broader, contextual institutional norms and dynamics.

The broader political potential of collaboration has not gone unnoticed. Recent years have witnessed the emergence of a vibrant political discourse rooted in such collaborative governance models (Donahue and Zeckhauser, 2005; Rochlin et al., 2008). Governments and international agencies have begun to explore the new opportunities for delivering public goods through collaboration. The business community, strengthened by the legitimacy of the rhetoric of “corporate responsibility,” has become more visible in advocating its preferred public policy solutions, and actively engaging in both their development and enactment, particularly where private delivery options exist. Labor and civil society organizations have, rhetorically at least, been more resistant to joining the collaborative party, highlighting both general and specific potential downside implications.

Organized labor, for example, has demonstrated the dangers of corporate responsibility, legitimized by multi-stakeholder partnerships, eroding the place of collective bargaining grounded in trade union organization. Civil society organizations, more generally, continue to be suspicious of the effectiveness of “soft regulation,” arguing that non-statutory rules are not adequately enforced and effectively block more traditional statutory approaches to enforcing social and environmental standards of behavior. In practice, many of these more reluctant partygoers have edged toward greater involvement in aspects of collaborative governance, perhaps afraid to miss the boat, and seeking to set their terms of engagement in the currency of the accountability of these collective endeavors. Despite such misgivings, for example, labor and civil society organizations have continued to support the UN Global Compact and specific initiatives such as the Ethical Trading Initiative and Social Accountability International's SA8000 standard.

2.4 Collaborative Strategies and Action Theory

Collaborative action theory presumes a situation of group participation, in which members of groups or organizations face two choices: being free riders or being participators. As individual could receive the dividend produced by collective action without participation and contribution, he may well have the motivation to defect from participation obligation. Indeed, unless the number of individuals in a group is quite small, or unless there is either coercion or other special device – including negative or positive incentives – to make individual acts for common interests, rational, and self-interested individuals will not act to achieve their common or group interests (Olson, 1965). Moreover free-riding problems could be aggravated by characteristics of collectively utilized goods or public products that reveal the non-excludability and non-rivalry.

Under the other situations like the prison defect, two people play under already-made payoff matrix without information about other's move and choice. If both trust each other, they come to equilibrium maximizing the welfare of both whereas if the actors play according to distrust and selfishness, they face the least payoff to each player.

Although these approaches seem to be quite different, they have also several points in common. First of all, all the theories basically assumed that the incompatibility between individual rationality and collective choice impeded achieving the best welfare of community or all collaborators. If all players restrain the selfish opportunistic behaviors, trust each other, deliberate other's share, and participate in collective action, they will get the optimal payoff profitable to all the participators. For the equilibrium maximizing payoff and welfare for collective action, the cooperation among participators is inevitable.

2.5 Collaboration Strategy and Government as Critical Third Party

To overcome the dilemma imposed by self-interest seekers and then achieve the cooperation satisfying all the constituents, the alternatives for resolving the disputes come from various disciplines. First, viewing from game theoretical model, for inducing mutual cooperation, Axelrod (1984) suggests three categories including: making the shadow of future more important relative to the present (durability and reciprocity); changing the

payoffs to the players from possible outcome of a move; and teaching the players values, facts, and skills that will promote cooperation (learning by doing).

Repeated interactions within the same groups develop reciprocity, trust, and reputation. Kim (1993) suggested the following as factors to influence the results of the game: the coercion; payoff structure and its resetting; the number of repeated games and the possibility of future interaction; (in) direct communication; and information about the opposite party in the game.

Other perspectives from CA, Olson (1965), let alone economic incentives, the social ones motivated by a desire to win prestige, respect, friendship, and other social and psychological objective were stressed to mobilize the latent groups. The only organizations that have the selective incentives available for inducing the cooperation are those: having the authority and capacity; or having a source of positive inducements that they can offer the individuals in a latent group.

These approaches have several limits. First of all, as all the theories give more stress on voluntary order organized between actors, collaborative parties could voluntarily make any consensus and contraction without intervention from the third parties. But in reality the economic actors who seek for their own interests have the possibility to face the deadlock situation, i.e. irreconcilable situation by themselves. Under those settings, the legitimacy of government intervention into the game is deserved.

It doesn't, however, mean that the third party always solves all the problems. The considerate and impartial authority would take jobs such as facilitating the communication between actors, setting the whole plans and goals, forming the organized order for goal achievements, and resolving the emerging conflicts. According to Chiang (1995), when collaborative Research and Development (R&D) faces a very difficult task because of conflicting interests and great technological uncertainties: governments should concentrate their managerial support on facilitating the negotiation process by providing the protocols and third-party consultations; and governments should also, if they have credibility and

competence, propose collective goals and lead firms to work together under a government-designed framework.

Poyago-Theotoky (1998) shows that when imitation to innovation is easy there will be generally underinvestment due to the free-rider problems. In this case, public enterprises or governments get the opposite role against private firms by taking policy measures aiming at correcting those problems of collective actions. Also, Tripsasa et al. (1995) proves that government can discourage the opportunistic behavior in collaborative R&D.

To apply the assumptions derived from two models to collaborate, we must explicate the parallels between them. In collaborative projects, private enterprises bear the goals to maximize their profits and also they face the temptation to seek opportunistic behaviors for their own benefits because the benefit from collaboration naturally appears nonexclusive and inappropriate; without any contribution, free-riding imitators and opportunistic actors could get more returns than those of stick-to-cooperation actors.

2.6 Government's Roles for Collaborative Ventures

Government's role for cooperation should focus on two factors since they give rise to aversion motivation to collaborations. While the uncertainty has a relation with subjective conditions, the payoff structure has it with objective.

First, multiple definitions of uncertainty have been offered in the literature, including lack of knowledge for decision making (Thompson, 1967); choice (Child, 1972); complexity (Galbraith, 1973); unpredictability (Cyert and March, 1963); and turbulence (Emery and Trist, 1965). Thompson (1967), in his classic book, *Organizations in Action*, notes that uncertainty is a fundamental problem in complex organizations and that coping with uncertainty is the essence of administrative process. Under uncertainty, two factors may influence the direction of players' action, and produce more free riders. First, in terms of time perspective, if actors put the stress on short-sighted and uncertain vision for quality results, not long-term effects, they are, within the short term, much more likely to seek their own interests than collective ones.

As a result, the greater the uncertainty about outcomes, the lower the likelihood of cooperation (Chen et al., 1996). Concerned with the subjective side of players, the low probability is related with lack of information on objective facts about future or collaborators facilitates the opportunistic behaviors and winds up with undesirable results. Research consortia may aid in the formation of an industry-wide vision of future directions for innovations, but such consensus views are not always reliable, especially when innovations are relatively immature and the directions of their future development are highly uncertain. Such visions can be overtaken by unexpected scientific developments (Mowery, 1998).

Corresponding to research goals, we presume that government is the crucial variable to determine the project success by holding down the uncertainty stemming from not only objective conditions, like the lack of data on IDP information, but also subjective ones, like too low probability about future internal displacements. Against uncertainty, two policy alternatives are recommended: assuring the long-term and certain vision against uncertainty and providing sufficient information.

These solutions closely connect with expectation of actors who request self-interests. McCabe et al. (1998) finds strong support for cooperation under complete information, even in single-play treatments and in games of trust, not reinforced by the prospect of punishment for defection from reciprocity.

Second, concerned with unacceptable effects, it comes down to matters of benefit and cost attributed to participators. No rational actors will carry the imposed cost for collective goals unless two conditions are met: the anticipated benefits from participation exceed the benefits achieved through free riding; and the benefits exceed the participation costs. Moreover, as public goods are, in nature, nonexclusive and noncompetitive, the marginal benefits of some actors from the collective good would not usually compensate for their full cost of taking part. When emerging n-person prisoners' dilemma happens, actors have their own individual incentives not to cooperate in collective action, even if it would be collectively profitable. Olson's selective incentive is also related with the benefit and cost

structure. If there are unwarranted and low payoff, low defection cost, and high burden cost, the collaborators want to remain free riders.

Chong (1991) argues that the cooperation is motivated not only by selective material incentives but by various positive and negative social sanctions which include moral concerns, let alone expressive or intrinsic benefits from participation itself. Taylor and Singleton (1993) argue that transaction costs – including searching costs, bargaining costs, monitoring costs and enforcement costs – impeding collective actions would be lowered by the presence of community which is characterized by shared beliefs, stable relations, and multiple relationships. While large programs are likely to generate the economies of scope and scale that comes from the number of participators, the larger participators need a great cost in monitoring the programs.

Viewing from government's role, public participation can reduce the monitoring cost for the programs (Leyden and Link, 1999). All matters come down to governments leverage balancing cost and benefit from collaborative action, and moreover maximizing benefits and minimizing costs through adjusting payoff matrix. Chiang (1995) suggests that there are at least two nonexclusive generic strategies that can be used to deal with prisoners' dilemma in programs which involve competitors: one is to alter the payoffs table, and the other is to repeat the game to learn about usefulness of cooperation.

Based on those propositions, one can analyze the Humanitarian Agency projects as collaborative enterprises in which government takes responsibility to eliminate the unwanted outcomes from selfish collaborators and furthermore extend the merit of collaborative activities. We could identify the cooperation conditions and policy tools provided by governments in existing tripartite agreements.

2.7 Role of the United Nations in the Internally Displaced Persons Programmes

The UNHCR is the UN agency best suited and equipped to deal with internally displaced persons because of its mandate to protect those forcibly uprooted. It has an operational, established structure and a track record in assisting refugees, stateless persons, IDPs. In the past, the Refugee Agency's mandate did not cover intervention in IDP operations like

the case of former Yugoslavia. To day, the Secretary General has mandated the Refugee Agency to extend its assistance to IDPs, as in Sierra Leone, Angola, Indonesia and Guatemala (Nowrojee, B., Human Rights Protection, op. cit.)

Protection and assistance of IDPs is addressed by the Emergency Relief Coordinator (ERC), who coordinates the UN's response and humanitarian agencies to humanitarian emergencies. But unlike the UNHCR, the office of the ERC has not established an operational institutional structure, nor experience with situations of forced displacement (Nowrojee, B., Human Rights Protection, op. cit.)

In most countries, including Kenya, UNHCR has taken part in assisting IDPs in line with its internationally recognized legal mandate. Assisting IDPs by anybody is limited by the tolerance of the host government. UNHCR is the only agency mandated to deal with IDPs, however, due to the growing number of caseload and funding constraints, the organization can hardly meet the requirements of refugees and IDPs. In light of the above, there is need for collaboration approach to enhance support, pool resources and improve on assistance to IDPs in Kenya. Unfortunately, other organizations have no funds and are likely to encounter difficulties in providing support to the needy persons or persons of concern and meet obstruction from governments.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter outlines the research methodology that was used in the study. It includes the research design, population of study, sampling procedure, data collection methods and data analysis procedures and presentation.

3.2 Research Design

The research design used in this study was the survey method. This aimed at capturing perceptions from a large number of beneficiaries. The method was preferred for comparison purposes based on the demographic characteristics and also allowed for much needed flexibility required to obtain useful data for analysis and interpretation. Emory (1995) has cited surveys and observations as the two major techniques of primary data collection. The researcher used exploratory research to obtain perception of the IDPs on the effectiveness of collaborative strategies applied by humanitarian agencies in the IDP operations in Kenya.

3.3 Population of study

The population of interest in this study comprised of the IDP population who live in the established 300 temporary camps and benefited from relief aid. These persons were in a position to give their perceptions on the effectiveness of collaborative strategies applied by the 11 humanitarian agencies working in the IDP operations country wide as listed in Appendix 2.

The humanitarian agencies have their own policies for implementation of humanitarian activities, which would be interesting to look at. However, the study did not limit itself to only International-based NGOs but also focused on the United Nation Agencies like the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), World Food Programme

(WFP), United Nations Children Education (UNICEF) and Kenya Red Cross Society (KRCS) and the government of Kenya.

3.4 Sample Design

A sample of 60 respondents was proposed from temporary camps in North Rift Valley and western Kenya. The camps had the highest numbers of IDPs and this enabled the researcher to capture demographically diverse and well spread respondents who were a representative of the total number of IDPs in Kenya. The target population conformed to the widely held rule of thumb that, to be representative, a sample should have thirty (30) or more test units. According to Saharan (1992), sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most business research. The researcher used stratified sampling method for the study. Stratified sampling method provides a way of obtaining a representative sample; therefore, it ensured different groups of population were adequately represented in the sample so as to increase the level of accuracy.

The population of the sample is shown in Table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1: Stratification of sample population based in major camps

S/No	Location	No of IDPs	Percentage of population	No of IDPs in Target sample
1	Eldoret camps	65,121	22%	13
2	Naivasha camps	42,204	14%	8
4	Nakuru camps	45,112	15%	9
5	Western Kenya camps	59,466	20%	12
6	Kitale camps	15,202	5%	3
7	Narok camps	12,358	4%	2
8	Nairobi camps	60,537	20%	12
	TOTAL	300,000	100%	60

Source: KRCS Annual Report for August 2008

3.5 Data Collection

Primary data was collected for this study from respondents through structured questionnaires comprising of closed and open ended questions. This method was chosen in preference to others due to the nature of information that was required for determination of respondent perceptions. In order to get respondents to respond to questions their perceptions on humanitarian assistance and relief aid, a questionnaire was used. Section A sought bio-data of the respondents while Section B addressed the beneficiary perception on the effectiveness of collaborative strategies applied by humanitarian agencies in the IDP operations in Kenya.

The questionnaire was administered with the help of Research Assistants who were based in the field. The questionnaires were dispatched via e-mail and the duly filled ones sent back to my attention for analysis through mail courier services.

3.6 Data Analysis

Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), which is an analytical computer software programme was used to analyze the data collected. This enabled a wide range of analysis and statistical tests to be conducted faster and accurately. The duly filled questionnaires were coded and analyzed and the findings presented using frequency tables, graphs and charts which were used in interpreting of the results findings and draw conclusion regarding as per research objectives. Mean, Standard Deviation and percentages were used to establish the status proportion of the respondent with respect to the perception of IDPs on the effectiveness of humanitarian assistance using collaborative strategies in IDP programme in Kenya.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

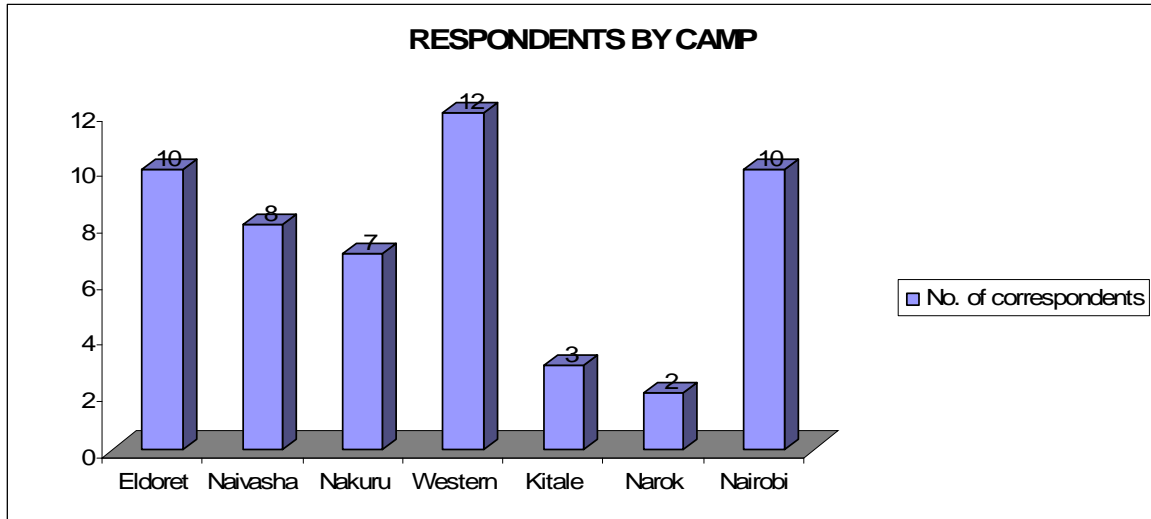
This chapter gives the analysis and findings of the questionnaire administered. Generally, each question thereon has been analyzed through the use of a Social Science Software SPSS and the findings presented in frequency tables computed to show the mean, standard deviation, the percentage of each response, the cumulative mean. The analysis was presented in the form of pie charts, bar charts and tables. Cross tabulation of variables where considered apt and value adding were computed and presented in tabular format.

Out of the sample consisting of 60 questionnaires, 2 were considered spoilt due to inconsistencies and another 6 questionnaires were not brought back and 80% of the questionnaires intended for the analysis were therefore processed. The high percentage of valid responses was attributed to the simplicity of the questions and questionnaire design, use of the e-mail system in dispatching the forms and the appointment of Research Assistants in the field to help collect data and provide guidance to respondents.

4.2 Demographics of the sample

It is appropriate that demographic factors of those who completed the questionnaires be analyzed in order to provide insight into the general characteristics of the sample studies. The relevant key demographic factors identified by the researcher were location of correspondent, profile of IDP, gender, age, length of stay in the camp and services offered.

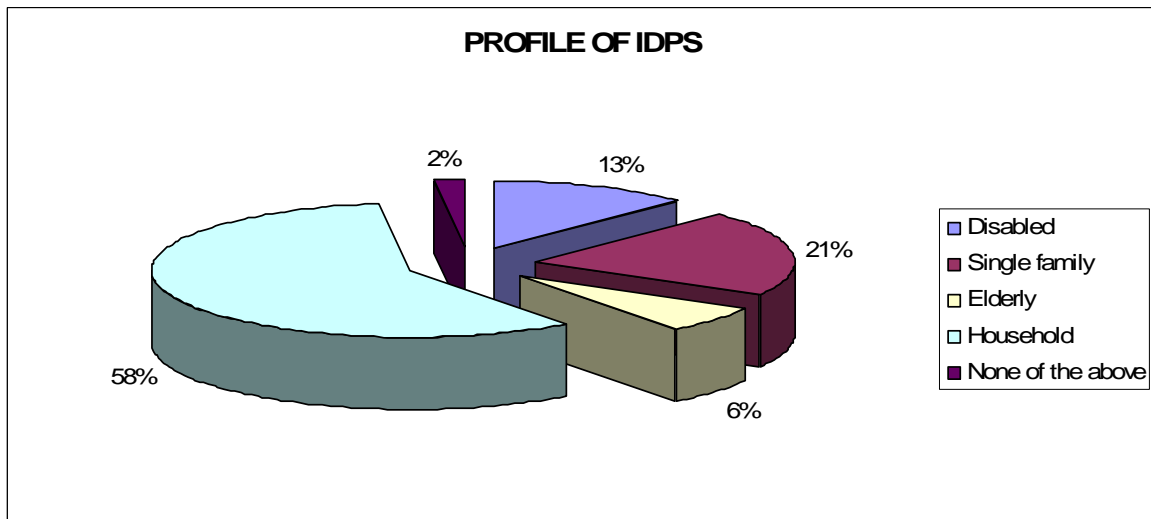
Graph 4.2.1: Location of the respondents



Source: Research Data

From the above findings it emerged that a total of 52 out of the targeted 60 respondents participated in the study, out of which 12 were from Western Kenya IDP camps, 10 from Nairobi and Eldoret IDP camps, 8 from Naivasha, 7 from Nakuru, 3 from Kitale and 2 from Narok IDP camp.

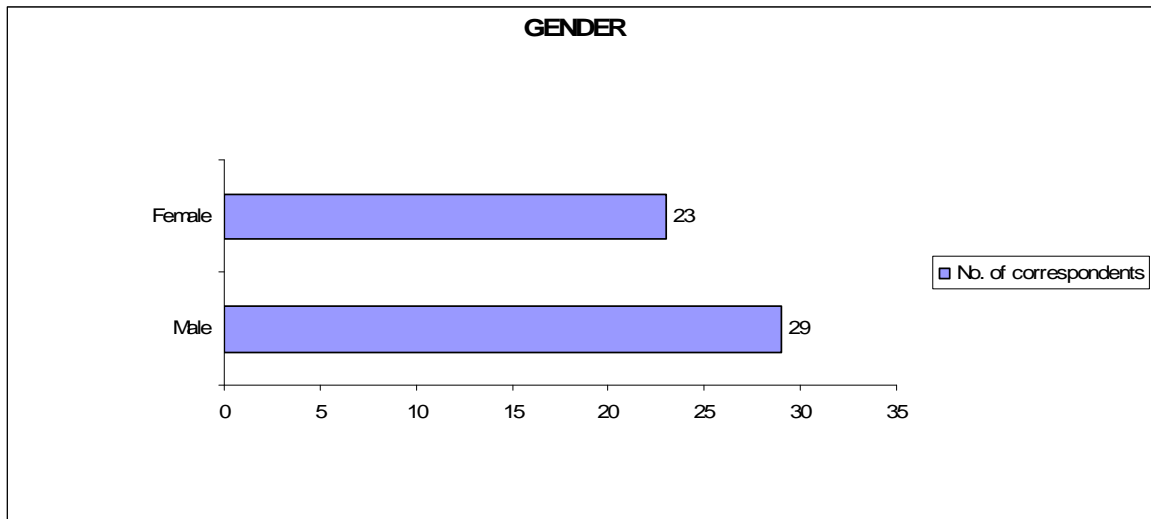
Graph 4.2.2: Profile of IDPs



Source: Research Data

From the above findings, it did emerge that in the study, 58% of the respondents who participated in the study were household, 21% single family, 13% disabled, 6% elderly and 2% none of the above.

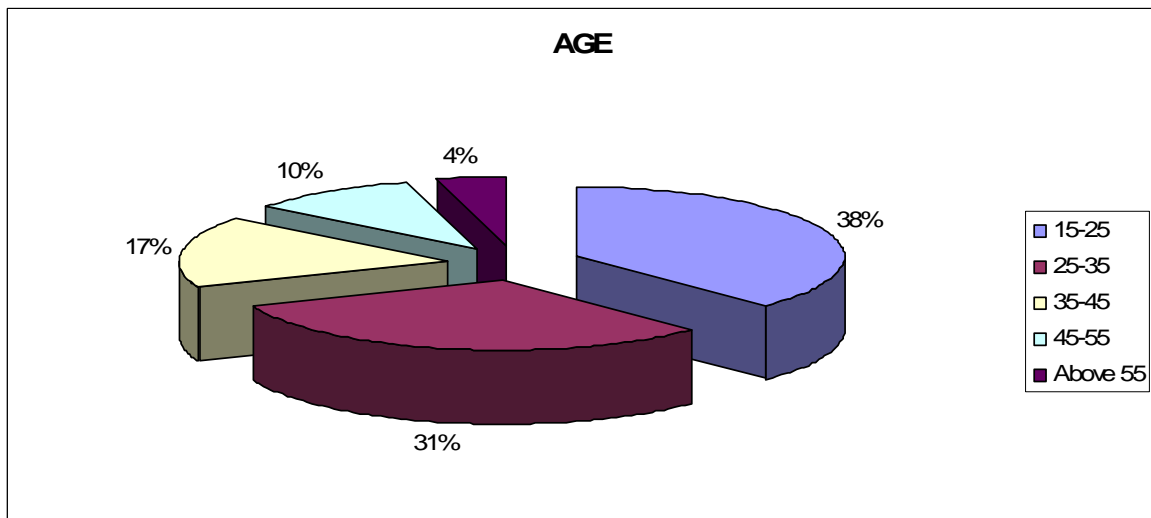
Graph 4.2.3: Gender



Source: Research Data

From the above findings, it did emerge that in the study, 29 respondents who participated in the study were male while 23 of the respondents were female.

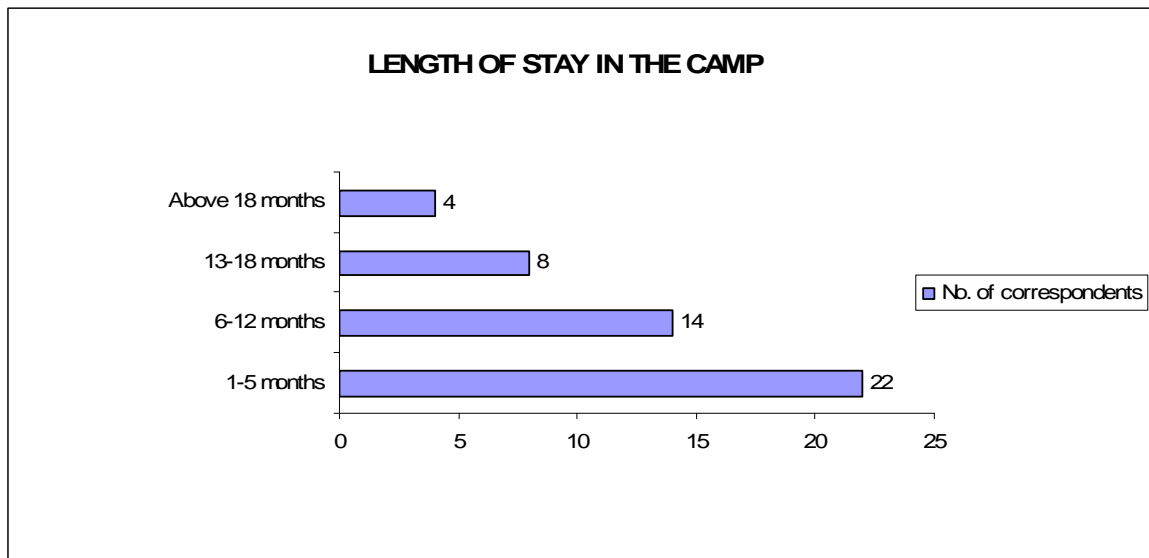
Graph 4.2.4: Ages of the respondents



Source: Research Data

From the findings above, it did emerge that 38% of the respondents were in the age bracket of between 15-25 years old, 31% were in the age bracket of 25-35 years old, 17% were in the age bracket of 35-45 years old, 10% were in the age bracket of between 45-55 years old, 4% were in the age bracket of above 55 years of age.

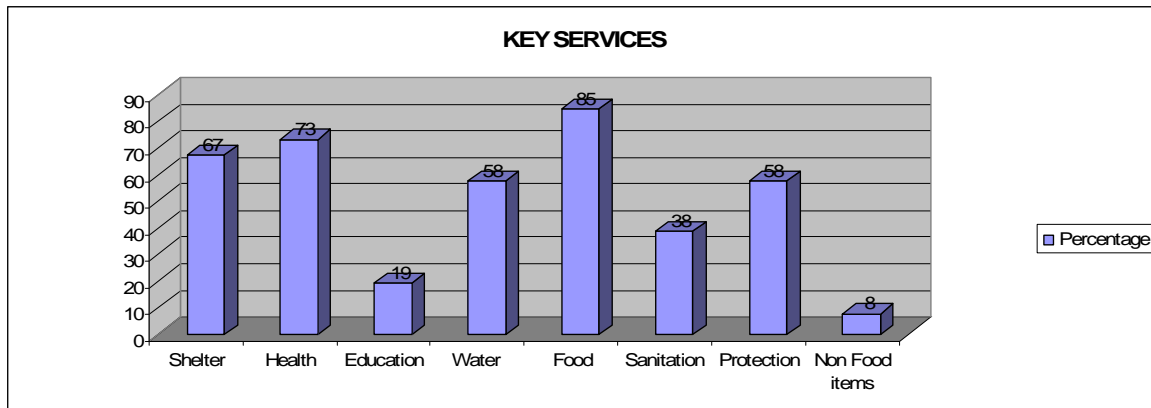
Graph 4.2.5: Length of stay in the camp



Source: Research Data

From the findings above, it did emerge that, 22 respondents interviewed in the study lived in the camps for 1-5 months, 14 respondents lived in the camp for 6-12 months, 8 respondents lived in the camp for 13-18 months and 4 respondents lived in the camp for over 18 months. This indicates that majority of the respondents were relocated or returned to their homes just after formation of the coalition government.

Graph 4.2.6: Services offered in the camps



Source: Research Data

From the findings above, it did emerge that 85% of the respondents received food, 73% received health services, 67% received shelter, 58% of the respondents received water and protection services, 38% of the respondents received sanitation services, 19% received educational services and 8% of the respondents received non food items.

4.3 Effectiveness of collaborative strategies

This section sought to determine the performance of the humanitarian agencies in the IDP operations in Kenya and the perception of the beneficiaries towards the effectiveness of collaborative strategies. It therefore examined the quality of services under the eight main sectors namely shelter, food, health, non food, water, sanitation, education and protection.

4.3.1: Impact of collaborative strategies on provision of key services

In evaluating the effectiveness of the collaborative strategies applied in the IDP operations in Kenya, descriptive statistics was used to come up with mean, standard deviation is 1 – 5 with strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree and strongly agree respectively. A number of factors were measured in evaluating the effectiveness of the collaborative strategies in the delivery of key services.

Table 4.3.1: Impact of collaborative strategies on delivery of key services

Impact of Collaborative Strategies in service delivery	Mean	Std Dev.
Supply of food	3.90	0.75
Supply of proper shelter	4.00	0.30
Supply of clean water	3.25	0.73
Supply of health facilities	3.44	0.51
Supply of education	2.46	0.62
Supply of non food items	2.96	0.86
Supply of sanitation	2.71	0.67
Supply of protection services	2.08	0.60
Grand mean	3.10	

Source: Research Data

All respondents reported that the impact of collaborative strategies were effective in the delivery of key services in the IDP camps with an overall mean of 3.1. Supply of shelter, food and health facilities being the most highly considered. The low standard deviation of .30 and .51 for shelter and health services respectively showed that respondents disagreed that collaborative strategies were not effective in the IDP operations.

Table 4.3.2: Perceived effectiveness of collaborative strategies applied by Humanitarian Agencies in the IDP programme

Perceived effectiveness of Collaborative Strategies	Mean	Std Dev.
Timely response to emergency situations	3.40	0.99
Prioritization of services	3.37	0.68
Trust among agencies	2.54	0.51
Co-operation	2.46	0.66
Responsibility and accountability	2.50	0.83
Specialization in competencies	3.21	0.60
Improved funding	3.21	0.56
Accurate and timely information	2.62	0.34
Improved planning	2.92	0.43
Grand mean	2.91	

Source: Research Data

All respondents reported that the impact of collaborative strategies was effectively applied in the IDP operations in Kenya with an overall mean of 2.91. Timely response to emergency situations was the most highly considered. The least considered during the response was cooperation between the humanitarian agencies. This implies that although cooperation was the least considered by most beneficiaries, it is crucial in the delivery of humanitarian assistance.

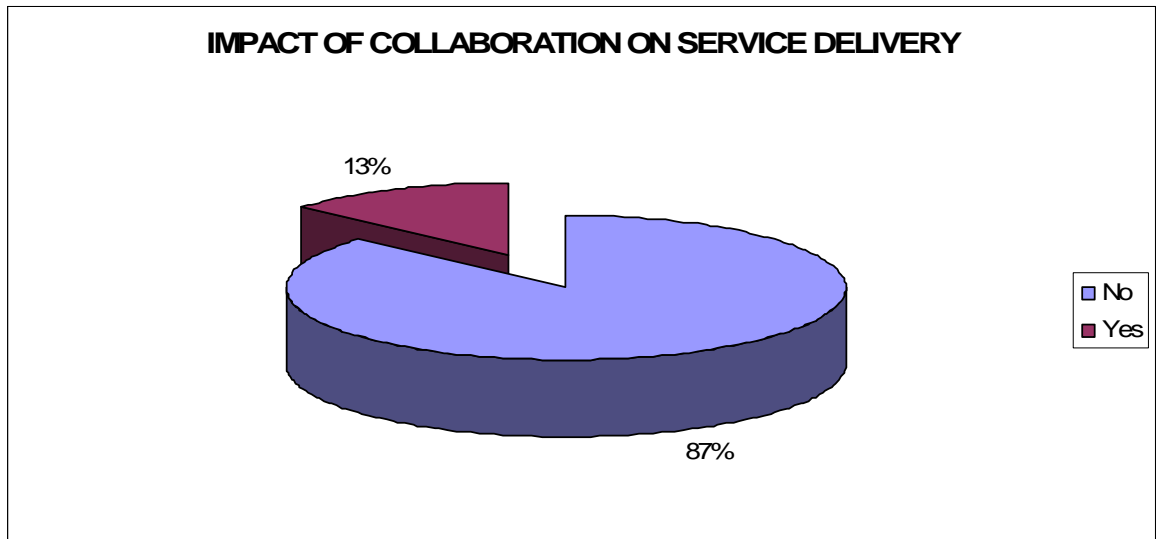
Table 4.3.3: Challenges facing humanitarian agencies in the implementation of collaborative strategies

Challenges facing Collaborative Strategies	Mean	Std Dev.
Lack of access to funds	3.83	0.66
Lack of government support	4.27	0.56
Lack of co-operation between agencies	3.00	0.60
Political climate in the country	4.17	0.56
Corruption	4.40	0.45
Duplication of services	4.08	0.99
Unequal distribution of resources	3.87	0.10
Insecurity and uncertainty	3.92	0.91
Lack of transparency	2.31	0.12
Lock of co-ordination	2.88	0.54
Grand mean	3.67	

Source: Research Data

On the overall, there were major challenges that affected the implementation of collaborating strategies with a grand mean of 3.67. The respondents rated corruption and lack of government support as the greatest challenges that faced the humanitarian agencies operating in the IDP camps. The most critical areas to be addressed in order to enhance effectiveness of collaborative strategies were lack of transparency and lack of coordination, which were far below grand mean.

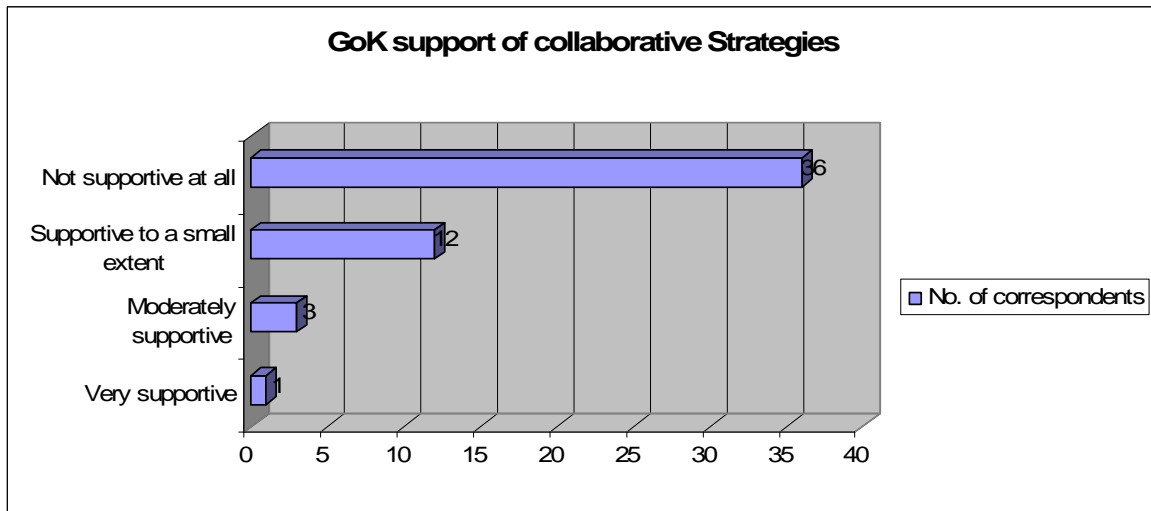
Graph 4.3.4: Did the humanitarian agencies address challenges encountered?



Source: Research Data

From the findings above it emerged that 87% of the respondents agreed that the humanitarian agencies had not addressed the challenges identified in their respective camps, while 13% did agree.

Graph 4.3.5: How did the GoK facilitate the adoption of collaborative strategies?

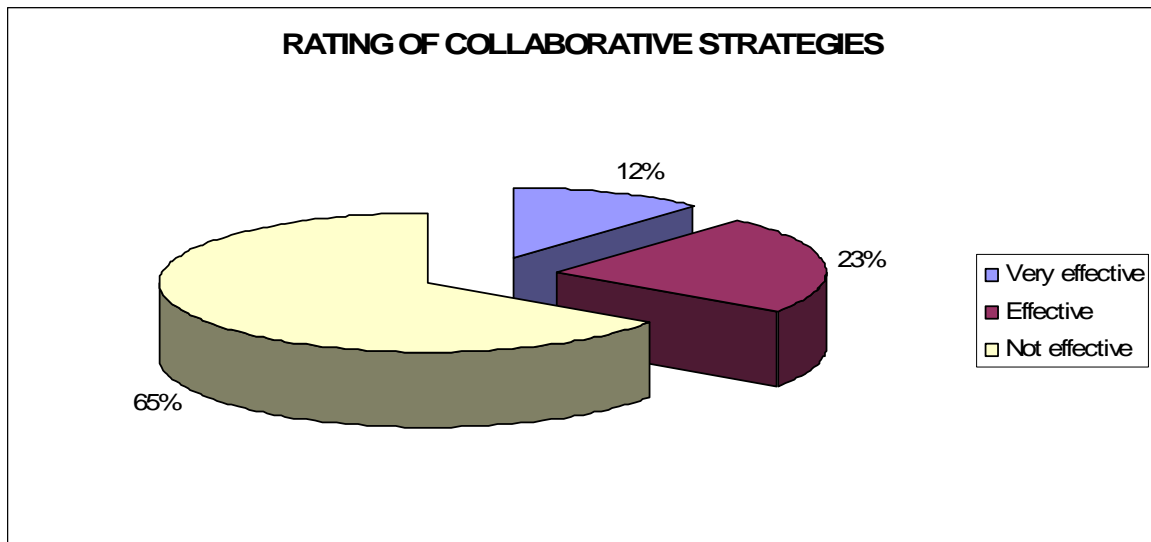


Source: Research Data

From the above findings, it emerged that 36 of the respondents cited that the government of Kenya did not support at all the adoption of collaborative strategies, 12 of the respondents acknowledged that they were supportive to a small extent, 8 cited that they were supported moderately, whereas, 1 person cited that the government was very supportive.

Graph 4.3.6: Rating performance of collaborative strategies

Three opinion variables were pre-identified by the researcher as being key indicators of the perception of the strategy under study. The perception on each of them was sought by requiring respondents to state whether collaborative strategy was very effective, effective or not effective.



Source: Research Data

From the findings above it emerged that 66% of the respondents rated the collaborative strategies as not effective, 23% rated it to be effective while only 12% of the respondents rated it to be very effective.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This is the final chapter which represents the summary of the findings of this study, the conclusion, limitations, recommendations for further study and recommendations for policy and practice.

5.2 Summary

According to Dauherty et al 1999, collaboration improves the performance of the organizations in the provision of core services. There is accuracy and timely information sharing. It also improves planning and improves quality of services. Due to inequitable distribution of resources, a lack of transparency and lacklustre coordination, improvement in quality of services was not noted in the delivery of key services. The humanitarian agencies were independent but aimed to contribute towards one humanitarian course by coming together to share resources and capabilities to meet the needs of the IDPs according to Narus and Anderson 1996. According to the research, the agencies seemed to operate independent budgets hence duplication of roles and competition was observed.

Simatupang and Sridharam 2003 noted that effective collaboration requires significant planning and communication, mutual objectives, integrated policies, appropriate performance measures, decision domain, information sharing. These elements were noted to be lacking between the agencies due to competition, lack of cooperation, and a lack of co-ordination and trust among the collaborating partners. Benefits of collaboration includes access to one common budget, pooling of resources, access to common donors, access to expertise and skills to reduce delivery gaps and enhance performance Eisenhardt and Schoonhoven 1996. The resources were decentralized and there was lack of transparency in the utilization of funds, lack of pooling of resources under one budget hence some agencies failed to deliver the core services due to lack of access to funds.

Chen, Au, and Komorita 1996, noted that due to uncertainty and short term plans, collaborating partners tend to focus on own interest rather than collective interest. The anticipated quick settlement of IDPs prompted many agencies to utilize resources for own gains like visibility, establishment of offices, purchase of vehicles and equipments instead of investing on the IDP activities in the camps. According to Chiang 1995, the government should concentrate in managerial support, propose collective goals and lead agencies to work together under a government designed framework. The collaboration in the IDP programme lacked government support hence its failure.

5.3 Conclusions

From the results of the research, it can be concluded that collaborative strategies were not effective. This is because the activities were marred with corruption, lack of government support, lack of access to funds, lack of coordination and lack of cooperation. The players need to pool resources, assign roles and responsibilities by agency, eliminate corruption and exercise transparency in the delivery of key services.

5.4 Limitations of the study

The study was limited by insufficient resources i.e. time and money. The researcher was not able to cover the entire scope of all the issues relating to expected needs or benefits of the IDPs. In addition to the above, the topic of the study suffers from scarcity of empirical literature and furthermore, some of the literatures available were beyond five years. This forced the researcher to rely on newspapers, magazines, websites, policy documents, newsletters, and annual reports for information on the activities of the humanitarian agencies.

5.5 Recommendations for further research

Avenues which were beyond the scope of this study or hindered by limitation of time and funds but could be considered for further investigations include, perceptions of the humanitarian agencies on collaborative strategies, effects of collaboration on core mandates of the individual agencies and Government's role on the functioning of collaborative strategies among humanitarian agencies in Kenya. A study should also include the effect of different policies of the humanitarian agencies namely United Nation bodies, International NGOs, National NGOs and other organizations on collaborative strategies.

5.6 Recommendations for policy and practice

The study revealed that collaborative strategies were not applied effectively in the IDP operations in Kenya due to corruption, lack of cooperation, lack of government support among other factors. Humanitarian agencies should ensure organizations have an environment with a zero tolerance to corruption.

The Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) should push the agenda of global humanitarian response with more predictable funding, better sectoral coordination to improve coherence, while minimizing gaps and duplication of functions and ensure the availability of qualified and trained coordinators. This is to ensure that the roles and responsibilities are clearly defined according to competencies within each organization. Currently, individual agencies raise funds for core activities and financial information is not shared among all agencies. This should be harmonized under Delivering as One with One UN and one budget for transparency, division of roles and ensuring accountability.

The study also showed that there were no written policies and statutes detailing how key services should be delivered in the IDP operations. The United Nations Secretary General together with the Government of Kenya should develop a policy defining roles, responsibilities and accountability framework.

The study showed that the performance of the humanitarian agencies was not effective. Quality of support and delivery of services largely depends on the Implementing Partners (IPs), who were involved in the planning, implementation, evaluation and reporting process. It is recommended that IPs should participate in the entire process for the development of trust between the humanitarian agencies and the donors.

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APPENDIX 1:

COVER LETTER TO QUESTIONNAIRE

**RE: RESEARCH ON COLLABORATIVE STRATEGIES APPLIED BY THE
HUMANITARIAN AGENCIES IN THE INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS
(IDP) OPERATIONS IN KENYA**

I am a Masters student at The University of Nairobi and as part of the requirement to complete my Masters of Business Administration Degree, I am conducting above mentioned research.

You have been selected to be a part of this study on the basis of the fact that you currently live in the identified IDP camps. The questionnaire is brief and should only take you a few minutes to answer.

The information you provide will be treated in confidence and will solely be used for the purpose of this research. I will be more than willing to avail the findings of my research upon request.

Thank you for taking time to fill this questionnaire.

Yours faithfully,

Pamella A.O. Nyaidho

APPENDIX 2:

The agencies that were present in the IDP operations in Kenya

1. GOAL Ireland
2. Danish Refugee Council
3. World Food Programme
4. United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
5. United Nations International Child Education Fund
6. United Nations Population Fund
7. National commission on Gender and Development
8. Save the Children (UK)
9. United Nation Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
10. MERLIN
11. Action against Hunger

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR IDPs ASSISTED BY HUMANITARIAN AGENCIES
UNDER IDP PROGRAMMES IN KENYA**

Instruction: Please tick appropriately or fill in the spaces provided.

Part I: Bio-data

1. Name of the IDP (Optional).....Camp

Gender: Male Female

Status: Disabled Unaccompanied Minor Elderly Household

Single family None of the above

2. Age

15 - 25 years 25 - 35 years 35 - 45 years

45 - 55 years Above 55 years

3. Marital Status

Single Married Widow

4. Occupation

Employed Self-employed Unemployed Student

5. For how long have you lived in the camp?

1-5 months 6 - 12 months

13- 18 months Above 18 months

6. How many humanitarian agencies worked in your camp during the period?

1-3 agencies 4 - 6 agencies

7 – 10 agencies Over 10 agencies

7. What types of services did you receive from the agencies?

Shelter Health Education

Non Food items Food Sanitation

Protection Water

Other (please specify).....

PART II: COLLABORATION

1. How would you rate the quality of collaborative strategies applied in the IDP operations in Kenya? (5 is very good, 1 very poor).

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
(a) Timeliness response to emergency situations	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(b) Prioritization of services	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(c) Trust among agencies	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(d) Co-operation	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(e) Responsibility and Accountability	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(f) Specialization in competencies	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(g) Improved funding	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(h) Accurate and timely information	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(i) Improved planning	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Any other (Please State)	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

2. How would you rate the overall impact of the collaborative on the delivery of key services to the internally displaced persons in Kenya?

Very effective	[]
Effective	[]
Not effective	[]

3. How would you rate the performance of the humanitarian agencies in the delivery of the following key services? (5 is very good, 1 very poor).

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
(a) Supply of food	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(b) Supply of proper shelter	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(c) Supply of clean water	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(d) Supply of health facilities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(e) Supply of education	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(f) Supply of non food items	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(g) Supply of sanitation	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
(h) Supply of protection services	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
Any other (Please State)	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

4. Kindly rate the impact of collaborative strategies in the delivery of services to IDPs. (5 is the highest, 1 lowest). 1 Very great extent and 5 no extent

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
a. Trust among agencies	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
b. Reduction of gaps in service delivery	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
c. equality in delivery of services	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
d. avoidance of competition and duplication of services	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
e. accurate and timely information	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
f. collective goals and bench marks	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
g. access to expertise	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
h. Pooling of resources	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
i. shared vision	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
j. other (specify.....)	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

5. Was the government of Kenya involved in the adoption of collaborative strategies within the humanitarian agencies in offering support to the IDPs?

- Very supportive []
- Moderately supportive []
- Supports to a small extent []
- Not supportive at all []

6. What are the factors that hindered the success of the collaborative strategies adopted by Humanitarian Agencies?

- a. lack of funds [] [] [] [] []
- b. lack of government support [] [] [] [] []
- c. lack of cooperation between agencies [] [] [] [] []
- e. political climate in the country [] [] [] [] []
- f. corruption [] [] [] [] []
- g. duplication of services [] [] [] [] []
- h. insecurity [] [] [] [] []
- i. lack of transparency [] [] [] [] []
- j. lack of co-ordination [] [] [] [] []
- k. other(specify.....) [] [] [] [] []

Thank you for your valuable time