



UNIVERSITY OF
NAIROBI

DEPARTMENT OF DIPLOMACY AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

MA RESEARCH PROJECT

HUMANITARIAN AID AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN POST
WAR RECOVERY – A CASE STUDY OF SOMALIA 2010-2022


BY
NELLY KASINA
REG. NO.R50/63736/2010
SUPERVISOR: DR SHAZIA CHAUDHRY

A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN INTERNATIONAL
STUDIES TO THE INSTITUTE OF DIPLOMACY AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES
(IDIS), UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI.

July 24, 2023

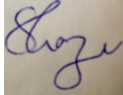
DECLARATION

I, Nelly Kasina, declare that this dissertation is my original work and has not been submitted for a degree in any other University.

Signed 
Nelly Kasina

Date 13 November 2023

This project has been submitted for examination with my approval as University Supervisor.

Signed 
Dr. Shazia Chaudry

Date 13 November 2023

DEDICATION

To my daughter Leora for giving me fresh motivation to scale greater heights and to my husband for his unwavering support to me.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to thank God for the renewed opportunity to complete this thesis. To my parents for pushing me to achieving this goal, my daughter and husband for the love and support as I embarked on this journey. Special thanks to my Director for his revolutionizing of the governance of the institute and my very able supervisor who made this a breeze.

To happier times ahead
Nelly Kasina, 2023

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents

DECLARATION.....	2
DEDICATION.....	3
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	4
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	5
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY.....	7
1.1 INTRODUCTION	7
1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	9
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM.....	11
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	14
1.5 STUDY OBJECTIVE.....	14
1.5.1 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES.....	14
1.6 Theoretical Literature Review.....	15
1.6.1 Economic Theory of Aid	15
1.6.2 Dependency Theory of Aid	16
1.6.3 Neoclassism and Aid.....	19
1.7 EMPIRICAL LITERATURE	20
1.7.1 Concept of Humanitarian Aid in achieving human development.....	20
1.7.2 Impact of humanitarian aid in post war recovery	21
1.8 PROBLEM STATEMENT.....	23
1.9 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY	25
1.10 HYPOTHESES.....	27
1.11 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	27
1.12 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	28
1.13 CHAPTER OUTLINE.....	30
CHAPTER 2: A CRITICAL LOOK AT HUMANITARIAN AID AND THE IMPACT ON HUMAN DEVELOPMENT	31
2.1 Introduction	31
2.2 Humanitarian aid in definition	31
2.3 Conceptual and Theoretical analysis of the impact of humanitarian aid on post-war countries	33
2.4 The foreign policy of aid	35
2.5 Human Development Index	37
2.5.1 Evolution of the Human Development Index.....	37
2.6 Effective aid implementation	40
2.7 Prevalent Issues in post war Countries in Africa.....	42
2.7.1 Humanitarian Aid in the context of post war countries.....	42
2.8 Chapter Summary.....	47
CHAPTER 3: AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF HUMANITARIAN AID ON HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDICES IN SOMALIA BETWEEN 2010 AND 2022	48
3.1 Introduction	48
3.2 Socio Political environment in Somalia	48
3.3 Trends in Aid financing to Somalia	48
3.4 Humanitarian Situation in Somalia.....	51
3.5 Millenium Development Goals	57

3.6	Human Development Index progress in Somalia	59
3.7	Chapter Summary.....	62
CHAPTER FOUR: KEY CHALLENGES IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HUMANITARIAN AID IN THE CONTEXT OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT		63
4.1	Key Challenges	63
4.1.1	Politicization of Aid	63
4.1.2	Aid Diversion and Corruption	66
4.1.3	Insecurity, Terror and Insurgents	69
4.1.4	Poor Infrastructure	72
4.1.5	Tied Aid.....	74
4.2	Chapter Summary.....	79
CHAPTER FIVE: RECOMMENDATIONS		80
5.1	Introduction	80
5.2	Key Recommendations on Humanitarian Aid for post war recovery	80
5.2.1	Localization of Humanitarian Aid Action and Capacity Building.....	80
5.2.2	Alignment with National Development Blueprints.....	82
5.2.3	Provision of Untied Aid.....	83
5.2.4	Inclusivity	85
5.2.5	Donor Harmonization	86
5.2.6	Evidence based and Risk informed aid programming.....	88
5.2.7	Mutual accountability.....	90
References.....		92

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Humanitarian aid has been defined as the delivery of material and logistical assistance to those in need. Usually short term, this is a response mechanism aimed to save human life, reduce human suffering, as well as the impact of force majeure. According to the European Consensus of Humanitarian Aid 2007, the core aim of humanitarian aid is to provide critical emergency response based on needs with an aim to preserve life, maintain human dignity and alleviate suffering, when governments are unable or unwilling to act.¹ The basic principle of this aid is to make people more resilient to disasters, and rapidly speed up their recovery from emergencies. For a country to benefit from security and stability, it is imperative that its population is healthy. Healthy in this case not only referring to ‘of the human body’ but also in terms of being food secure, literate, economically empowered and able to access sustainable basic services.

The evolution of humanitarian aid can be traced back to the early 19th century. In 1842, Ireland experienced a failed potato crop season that was the major source of the country’s nutrition. Subsequently, in the latter years of 1842-52, the country experienced what is now referred to as the Great Famine. It is estimated that approximately one million Irish people died because of this famine, with another large number escaping the country, significantly reducing the population².

¹ Joint Statement by the Council and the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States meeting within the Council, the European Parliament and the European Commission, ‘THE EUROPEAN CONSENSUS ON HUMANITARIAN AID’, Official Journal of the European Union, C 25/01, 30.01.2008, p.1.

² Kinealy, Christine (2013). *Charity and the Great Hunger in Ireland: The Kindness of Strangers*. London: Bloomsbury.

In the early 1800s, there was a series of wars between France and other alliances of the European powers that sought to assert France's domination over most of Europe. This was a period of 23 years of recurrent conflict and the result of this was a lot of countries were left distressed. As such, the UK Aid is one of the first organizations known to deliver aid to respond to the humanitarian crisis brought about by the war.³

The impact of aid on post war recovery cannot be underscored. Conflict usually creates human catastrophes and destroys institutions and infrastructure. The aim of this aid in such circumstances thereby comes two-fold; one is the humanitarian objective that involves providing food, water, shelter, and the other is the reconstruction objective that aims to rebuild infrastructure that has been broken down as well as to restore the access to basic services like security and public health that were destroyed by the conflict.

Humanitarian aid therefore mitigates the immediate effects of conflict by providing a chance to repair, reorganize and re integrate economies in their recovery process.⁴The United Nations Development Programme has defined human development as the 'the process of enlarging people's choices', said choices allowing them to "lead a long and healthy life, to be educated, to enjoy a decent standard of living", as well as "political freedom, other guaranteed human rights and various ingredients of self-respect".⁵

The first recorded Human Development report was launched in 1990 by a group of

³ Götz, Norbert (2014). "Rationales of Humanitarianism: The Case of British Relief to Germany, 1805–1815". *Journal of Modern European History*. 12 (2): 186–199. doi:10.17104/1611-8944_2014_2_186. S2CID 143227029.

⁴ Meharg, Sarah Jane. "Post-war reconstruction: Humanitarian Aid or Profit driven activity? *Peace Research* 35, no. 1 (2003): 65–74.

⁵ United Nations Development Programme (1997). *Human Development Report 1997*. Human Development Report. p. 15. ISBN 978-0-19-511996-1.

scholars led by Pakistani economist Mahbub ul Haq and Indian Nobel laureate Amartya Sen launched. This was an annual report that ranked countries performance based on a set of indices including life expectancy, education, and per capita income indicators. This Human Development Index was therefore birthed as a composite statistic, with dimensions and indicators for measuring growth.⁶

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Somalia gained its independence in 1960 after being a confederation of former British and Italian colonies. For nine years after independence, the country was run by a parliamentary democracy up until 1969 when a military coup led by Siad Barre overthrew the government and established a socialist dictatorship. This was to come to an end in 1991 however when Barre's regime was overthrown, and the country collapsed leading to a civil war. With the Somali population being largely clan based, the discourse was further fueled and thus leading to a total breakdown of the socio economic and political system in the country. Since the beginning of the civil war and well into the 21st century, the country has been unable to exercise complete control over the population and thus leading to a failed state.⁷

In 1991, Somaliland was declared as an independent state by a group of Somali Sultans together with the Somali National Movement. Further in 1998, a home grown constitutional conference was held in the Capital Garoowe and was attended by the political elite, technocrats and other VIPs who formed Puntland, a breakaway Federal Member

⁶ "Human Development Index". Economic Times. Archived from the original on 1 December 2017. Retrieved June 2023.

⁷ Menkhaus Ken. "State Failure, State-Building, and Prospects for a 'Functional Failed State' in Somalia." *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* 656 (2014): 154–72.

State in northeastern Somalia. In 2004 however, a Transitional Federal Government (TFG) was formed with the aim of formation of a representative government. The TFG function for two terms, after which in September 2012 indirect presidential elections were held and Hassan Sheikh Mohamud was declared winner with the promise of hope for a better country.⁸ This transition nonetheless was not without fault. Critical tasks that should have been completed to ensure a smooth handover were not done. The southern region of Somalia was largely controlled by the Al-Shabab (AS), the main Anti-Government-Element (AGE) group, further deepening the gross desecration of human rights in the country.

With the collapse of a government comes gross inadequacies of social services required for human development. Somalia remains in a state of perpetual calamity as characterized by an unstable political setting, high poverty, massive food insecurity, conflict, and instability. An estimated 27 per cent of the population (2 million people), half of whom are children, remains in humanitarian crisis with over 1.4 million people displaced, mainly by conflict⁹. The most disadvantaged groups are children, the girl child, affected vulnerable populations and minority group, the urban poor and the displaced. UNICEF is one of the largest providers of humanitarian assistance in the sectors of education, health, nutrition, water sanitation and hygiene (WASH) and protection services. UNICEF partners with over 100 organizations including government, UN agencies, NGOs and communities to alleviate suffering, improve livelihood and provide lifesaving assistance to these most affected population.

⁸Al Jazeera English October 2011 'Somali Parliament to elect new president'

⁹ B. Byely, Y. Dzyuba, September 2002, Marxism-Leninism on War and Army: A soviet View pg 146

The Human Development Index is a numerical composite that uses social and economic indicators to measure the degree of human development in a country.¹⁰ The originates from the mid-1960s where different organizations began charting the path to conducting analytical studies toward drawing these conclusions to assess the quality of human life. According to the Global Data Lab, Somalia has continually performed poorly in these evaluations due to challenges of recurrent conflict, prolonged periods of climatic shocks and increased insecurity hindering access to infrastructure. In 2019, Somalia's human development index was ranked the lowest in the world with a paltry score of 0.361.¹¹ Whereas different schools of thought have attributed the low scores to lack of adequate qualitative data, the trend has barely changed to date despite the availability of numerous degrees of information.

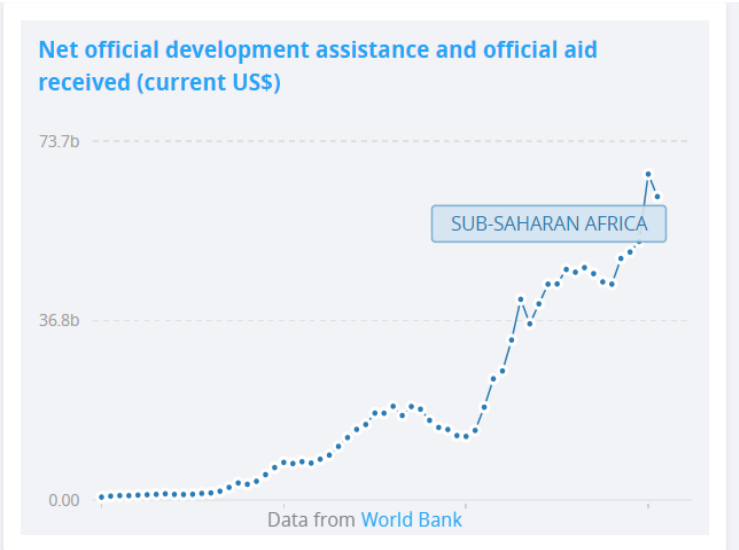
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The issue of aid funding has been an issue of contention over the years with many claims of mis appropriation and funding favoring the few. The number of non-state humanitarian actors has increased over the years, with Natcom Committees of various governments dedicating a percentage of their annual Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to developmental assistance. The more conventional donors for example World Bank, United Nations and other First world governments (US, UK, China and Japan) have increased their appropriation of aid to the region over time.

¹⁰ Elizabeth A. Stanton, February 2007, The Human Development Index, A history.

¹¹ Subnational Human Development Index (SHDI) Area database – Somalia Global Data Lab 8 Sept 2022

According to the World Bank, Sub Saharan Africa received net development assistance and official aid of USD 597M in 1960, with the figure slowly increasing each year to approximately US\$ 62 billion in 2021.¹² See fig 1 below.



Humanitarian and development aid to Somalia has increased considerably since the Ethiopian invasion in 2006. As this has continued to be the case, claims of aid diversion have plagued the country with nuances of other profiteers influencing the country’s agenda to divert funding preserved for the most in need. In the past, the funding environment for Somalia has been sustained by traditional western members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development’s Development Assistance Committee (DAC). In more recent years however, we are witnessing increased interest from non-traditional donors like the members of the Islamic Cooperation (Qatar, Kuwait, Turkey) expressing

¹² World Bank; Data Bank 2023 Net Official development assistance and official aid received (current US\$) – Sub Saharan Africa

interest in providing earmarked assistance to specific appeal sectors in the country. According to the Financing Tracking System administered by UNOCHA,¹³ the top 4 donors for Somalia in 2013 were the United States of America, the European Commission, Japan and the United Kingdom. The emergence of new players in the funding environment also brings with it an injection of new ways of doing business all driving towards the unmet need of facilitating lifesaving assistance to the most in need.

The United Nations classified Somalia as a least developed country. Due to the country's susceptibility to shocks of conflict and political instability, climate change and particularly low rainfall resulting in chronic drought, diminished income and high poverty, it is not possible to have a population with a thriving development index. With nearly 70 per cent Somalis living below the poverty line and 90 per cent in multi-dimensional poverty, Somalia remains in constant need of humanitarian aid. As of 2020, the country had three million newly internally displaced people. A further seven million was facing crisis level food insecurity as a result of the 2021/2022 drought, locust invasion and war in Ukraine driving up the import bill. The growth in GDP between 2013 and 2022 average a paltry 2 per cent. The major dip was witnessed in 2020 with the onset of COVID19 to complement the already existing crises. There was some measure of increase in 2021 by 2.9 per cent but that has since been eroded as it stands at 1.7 per cent in 2022¹⁴.

It is critical to understand the direct linkage between aid and post conflict recovery in countries ravished by war. There still needs to be greater advocacy to deepen the

¹³ UNOCHA 2023, Financial Tracking System (FTS) Humanitarian aid contributions

¹⁴ World Bank 2021 6th edition of the Somalia Economic Update: Investing in Health to Anchor Growth

understanding of the need for state and non-state actors to support such economies by enacting policies that support re construction and preservation of human dignity. This research paper will seek to draw the linkage between these variables and propose the way forward in this new age context of political systems.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Does humanitarian aid have a significant impact on a country's post war recovery process?
2. What is the impact of humanitarian funding on human development in Somalia between 2010 and 2022?
3. What are key challenges in the implementation of humanitarian aid in the context of human development in Africa in general and particularly Somalia?

1.5 STUDY OBJECTIVE

The main objective of this study is to examine how humanitarian aid acts as a catalyst for achievement of human development indices in post war countries with key focus on Somalia from 2010-2022.

1.5.1 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1. To critically examine if humanitarian aid has any impact on a country's post war recovery process.
2. To analyse the impact of humanitarian aid on human development indices in Somalia between 2010 and 2022.
3. To assess key challenges in the implementation of humanitarian aid in the context of human development in Africa generally and Somalia particularly.

1.6 Theoretical Literature Review

1.6.1 Economic Theory of Aid

To better understand the complexity of the notion of aid, it is critical to look at the existing theories around major drivers of economic growth. According to Harrod Domar theory, it is suggested that economic growth is directly relatable to a country's ability to save and invest.¹⁵ According to these authors, a country's economic growth can be accelerated only by capital accumulation where a certain percentage of national income goes to savings. This assumes that these countries are able to sustain themselves to these two outputs to ensure they have generated enough capital. This translates to the implication that less developed countries will be better placed to journey into development if a larger proportion of their income could go into investment. This simplistic view does not represent the facts on ground, that less developed countries have perennially low levels of income, high poverty indices, rapid population growth, depleted food security, little to no access to basic services and high populations of displaced persons. These factors work against the development agenda and thereby resulting in poor domestic saving and consequently lower levels of investment, thus resulting in a saving gap that directly impacts the rate of economic growth.

Further to this, Chenery and Strout outline the issue of foreign exchange gap as another key factor to under development. This gap implies that export of goods is the major source of a country's foreign exchange but are in turn unable to pay for import of goods for

¹⁵ Chala Amante Abate (2022) The relationship between aid and economic growth of developing countries: Does institutional quality and economic freedom matter, Cogent Economics & Finance, pg 101

investment because of the inadequacy of what they received. The role of foreign aid then is seen here as a buffer for these countries to cover foreign exchange shortfalls to then pay for imports. In essence, this purports that foreign aid is a massive contributor to less developed economies.

1.6.2 Dependency Theory of Aid

This theory largely draws conclusions on the use of aid assistance and the negative patterns that come out of this reliance. The authors Easterly (2014) and Moyo (2010), have noted that official aid creates dependency and does not allow countries to take full advantage of the opportunities presented by the global economy. They further note that this aid encourages corruption and the overvaluation of a country's currency thus further deepening the roots of dependency. Developing countries are witnessing more donors offering aid assistance but on fulfilment of certain conditionalities. In the long run, these conditions somewhat negate the purpose for which aid is given, which is to meet the needs of the recipient country and fulfils the obligations of the contributing country¹⁶. One of the major underlying factors of this aid is the donor countries contribute money on condition that the recipient countries purchase goods from them. Traditionally, the Gulf State donors for example have always had preference for donating to countries that are predominantly Muslim or those that share in their religious and cultural beliefs.¹⁷ Similarly, the United States is keen to only provide donations to countries with strong political and governance structures backed by strategic ways of doing business. It has also been witnessed that they

¹⁶ Kwakye, J. K. 2010 *Overcoming Africa's addiction to foreign aid: A look at some financial engineering to mobilise other resources*. The Institute of Economic Affairs pg 220

¹⁷ Villanger, E. 2007 Arab foreign aid: Disbursement patterns, aid policies and motives, 34(2), pg 223–256.

would offer humanitarian assistance to countries where their interest lies in the desire to influence their politics for example in the Middle East, and specifically Egypt and Israel. Countries like France prefers to direct aid to their former colonies, whilst the Bretton Woods Institutions like the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) always demand financial reforms in the recipient country. The element of self-interest behavior from donors providing aid to recipient countries is evident, and this goes to support the probability of economic interest of the recipient countries. That notwithstanding, aid is an important means of finance for governments of developing countries.

The issue of foreign aid being an instrument of foreign policy has been an area of controversy over time. On one hand, it is debated that foreign aid is justified as an end on its own, with no affiliation to foreign policy and on the other scholars imply that it is a tool used by states to achieve its goals, underscoring that administration of this aid is the fulfilment of obligations of the developed nations towards the majority of those that are not.¹⁸ This sort of corroborates the dependency theory of aid that basically states that poor countries are continually exploited by the rich countries by their way of integration into the world system. As a reaction to the modernization theory that states that all states move along the continuum of development at the same pace, and that poor states only reflect a state that the rich countries were once in, this theory is built on the fact that resources flow from poor countries called the ‘periphery’ to the rich countries otherwise known as the ‘core’ thus enriching the core at the expense of the periphery. The dependency theory vehemently refuted the modernization theory, stating that poor countries have a set of

¹⁸ Louis A. Picard, Robert Groelsema, Terry F. Buss 2008 Foreign Aid and Foreign Policy: Lessons for the next half century (Transformational Trends in Governance and Democracy

unique characteristics that perpetuate them being in that state, and thus the linear trajectory of development does not apply. Proponents of this theory have claimed that dependency on aid is one of the reasons that Africa has chronically remained underdeveloped. As this theory is not singular, rather a consolidation of different theorist schools of thought, it is important to note that it has a deep-rooted historical process, rooted in the rise of capitalism. One of the ideas of this theory is that rich countries have been able to sustain themselves using the resources of the poorer nations. It is argued that colonization was not just about exploitation of countries, but also repatriation of exploits back to their homelands. As such, the first world countries have a continuous need to lead over the poorer ones. Any threat of dislodging this status quo is usually met with undue resistance, whether subtle or otherwise through paraphernalia of the media, military and withholding foreign aid. In his book “Ending Aid Dependence”, Yash Tondon describes how organizations like the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (WB) are the causal factors of dependency in Africa.¹⁹ During the economic crisis in the 80s and well into the 90s, many Sub-Saharan countries received an influx of aid that further deepened their dependency into the next decades. The dependency of these countries became so deeply entrenched that the President of Tanzania, Benjamin W. Mkapa, stated that “Development aid has taken deep root to the psyche of the people, especially in the poorer countries of the South. It is similar to drug addiction.”²⁰

The first legal statute on official aid was passed by the UK parliament in 1929. Prior to this, the Colonial Development Act was put in place to improve the social conditions in the

¹⁹ Yash Tandon, Benjamin W Mkapa (foreword) 2008 Ending Aid Dependence 2nd Revised ed. Edition 1

²⁰ Ibid

British colonies. This smoke screen was to be quickly overtaken as the actual intention of this act was exposed to be to promote British exports in a bid to salvage the pound that has been grossly overvalued. As a result, the Colonial Development Fund was created, averaging resources of approximately one million pounds sterling per year. The colonies, until the legislation was passed were supposed to finance themselves as aid assistance was only reserved for emergency response.

1.6.3 Neoclassicism and Aid

After World War two, the global conversation began on whether aid should be directed towards development projects aiming to accelerate the growth of economies or towards humanitarian programs aimed at reducing the huge scale of poverty and improving social conditions. The neoclassical model of growth was developed in the 1960s that placed a larger emphasis on human capital and projects facilitating growth. There was a shift witnessed from focusing on large capital-intensive projects majorly due to the lack of countries to absorb this aid to implement programs to the soft component of training and skills transfer for professionals as a step toward making aid effective.²¹ One of this theory's major strengths is the focus on the individual needs for maximal development. This form of participatory approach takes away the negative effects of robotic aid administration that looks at face value of immediate needs. In the early 1970s, the World Bank began the shift towards a basic needs approach, and as such the improvement of social conditions became the major aim of aid financing. To complement this, the United Nations agreed on a 0.7 per

²¹ Veblen, Thorstein. "The Preconceptions of Economic Science." *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, vol. 14, no. 2, 1900, pp. 240-269

cent ceiling of Gross National Income (GNI) per country for dedication to international aid²². In 2005, over 100 countries, both developed and underdeveloped met in Paris to deliberate on aid effectiveness and new ways of doing business. As a result, a declaration was signed, containing 56 partnership commitments and five principles to make aid more effective (Ownership, where developing countries committed to establishing their own development strategies and tackling corruption, Alignment, where donor countries tailor their support in line with these strategies, Harmonization, where donors simplify procedures and deliver as one to avoid duplication, Managing for results where both donors and recipient countries lay out clear ways of measuring performance and mutual accountability where both parties commit to fulfill all they have promised to each other.) In 2008, a monitoring survey of the Paris Declaration was conducted, and the results showed overall achievement in several areas. Nonetheless a lot more still remains to be done.

1.7 EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

1.7.1 Concept of Humanitarian Aid in achieving human development

Foreign aid being a critical aspect of government economics has been widely researched in contemporary economics. Even though there is sufficient empirical data on this, the outcomes of the various research have remained controversial with different schools of thought. Traditionally, the literature available has always focused on foreign aid and its effect on the economies of recipient countries and so far, there are mixed reactions as to

²² Williams, David; "The History of International Development Aid". pg 2.

the aid nexus and aid growth relationship²³. Most studies however adopted the econometric models though still with very varied estimation techniques. The scholars Hussen and Lee noted that the role of aid in economic growth is dependent on institutional quality as well as macroeconomic policies²⁴. Thus, foreign aid was rendered inadequate in efforts to influence growth as other factors like absorption capacity of recipient governments playing a major role. In 2008, Malik Girijasakar a renowned scholar took a study on six poor highly indebted African countries (Niger, Sierra Leone, Togo, Central African Republic, Mali and Malawi) to understand the link between aid administration and economic growth and subsequent human development. In his publication on the cointegration analysis, he found that short term there was no significant relationship between aid implementation and economic development. However, in five out of the six countries studied, there was an evident negative relation of these two variables in the long run.²⁵

1.7.2 Impact of humanitarian aid in post war recovery

Many studies in contrast deduced positive effects of aid on economic growth and human development. A comparative study was conducted on 39 African countries to establish the effects of aid on a country's economic growth and human development. In total, 19 out of the 39 countries were classified as low income. Overall, the results of the study provided sufficient evidence to underscore the positive effects on aid on economic growth and human

²³ Clemens, M. A., Radelet, S., Bhavnani, R. R., & Bazzi, S. (2012). Counting chickens when they hatch: Timing and the effects of aid on growth. *The Economic Journal*, 122(561) pg 590–617.

²⁴ Hussen, M. S., & Lee, K. W. (2012). The Impact of Foreign Aid on Economic Growth in Ethiopia. *Asian International Studies Review*, 13(2), pg 87–112.

²⁵ Mallik, G. (2008). Foreign aid and economic growth: A cointegration analysis of the six poorest African countries. *Economic Analysis and Policy*, 38(2), pg 251–260.

development.²⁶ The scholar Karras in his publication on foreign aid and the implication on growth analyzed data collected from 71 countries between 1960 and 1997 and found evidence of positive effects of aid on recipient governments.²⁷ Further, a study was conducted on eight countries (Guinea-Bissau, Senegal, Togo, Niger, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cote D'Ivoire and Mali) of the West African Economic and Monetary Union (WAEMU) for the period 2002-2013 and conclusions from the evidence generated from this research strengthened the ideology of aid being effective for the ultimate growth and development of recipient countries.²⁸

The mixed results from all previous studies conducted have all had one core rationalization. After almost 35 years of Africa receiving aid, why has the continent not been able to elevate itself from the poverty trap. Sub Saharan Africa continues to score dismally in terms of human development index, value of Gross National income per capita and remains one of the poorest regions globally despite being the largest recipients of aid. The deprivation indicators are still grossly high, access to basic services is still at unacceptably low levels, the degree of human rights violations remains concerning and the overall quality of life does not encourage high scoring of human development indices. A study was done on 10 countries in this region (Ethiopia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Kenya, Cote Ivoire, Mozambique, Nigeria, Ghana, Uganda and Malawi) for the period 1990-2012 revealed that aid in itself does not have significant impact on growth and development if it

²⁶ Lee, J., & Alemu, A. M. (2015). Foreign aid on economic growth in Africa: A comparison of low and middle-income countries. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, 3(4), pg 449–462.

²⁷ Karras, G. (2006). Foreign aid and long-run economic growth: Empirical evidence for a panel of developing countries. *Journal of International Development*, 18(1), pg 15–28.

²⁸ Aboubacar, B., Xu, D., & Ousseini, A. M. (2015). Foreign Aid 's effect on economic growth, new results from WAEMU' s countries. *Theoretical Economics Letters*, 5(3), pg 425–20.

is not supplemented by factors of an enabling environment like good policy and good governance.²⁹ Further empirical studies have shown the effectiveness of aid and its impact on human development. A case study done in Nigeria for example between 1984 and 2016 made reference to aid having maximum positive effect when it is used to fund the education sector.³⁰ Other scholars like Fielding have also propagated the avenues of aid effectiveness in relation to improved social indicators, with specific measures of health, education and fertility, with the notion that the variants are likely to interact with each other.³¹ The evidence from his analysis clearly shows the positive effect of aid on development outcomes. In 2005, he further concluded research focusing on the connection between aid and its effectiveness on the MDG targets (wisdom, nutrition, health) and concluded that with foreign aid comes improved outcomes in child health, basic sanitation and education.³²

1.8 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The findings of Andrews (2009) noted that the gap between the developed and underdeveloped nations has gradually been increasing for various reasons including inequitable access to economic opportunities, curtailed political freedom, natural disasters, climatic shocks and recurrent conflict.³³ Humanitarian aid is therefore administered to these countries in response to this. The concept of foreign aid is widely accepted as a flow of financial resources from developed to

²⁹ Tang, K.-B., & Bundhoo, D. (2017). Foreign aid and economic growth in developing countries: Evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa. *Theoretical Economics Letters*, 7(5), 1473–1491

³⁰ Fashina, O. A., Asaleye, A. J., Ogunjobi, J. O., & Lawal, A. I. (2018). Foreign aid, human capital and economic growth nexus: Evidence from Nigeria. *Journal of International Studies*, 11(2), 104–117

³¹ Fielding, David, et al. (2006) A Wider Approach to Aid Effectiveness: Correlated Impacts on Health, Wealth, Fertility and Education

³² Fielding, McGillivray, and Torres (2005) Achieving Health, Wealth and Wisdom: Links Between Aid and the Millennium Development Goals.

³³ Andrews, N. 2009. Foreign aid and development in Africa: What the literature says and what the reality is. *Journal of African Studies and Development* 1(1):8-15

developing countries to accelerate their economic development till they reached to satisfactory rate of growth on a self-sustained basis (EROĞLU and YAVUZ, 2008).³⁴ Numerous studies however on the linkage between aid assistance fuelling human development have generated mixed results.³⁵ On one hand, Burnside and Dollar (2000) noted that whereas aid has a positive impact on growth and human development, the quality of the country's macroeconomic policies play a huge role in this.³⁶ In examining the effect of humanitarian aid on development indices, Neanidis (2012) noted that the effect of humanitarian aid on economic growth and human development was unclear.

The study reviewed relevant literatures on the emergence and impact of aid effectiveness. The discussion was majorly between two schools of thought; one that propagated aid as creating dependency, perpetuating under development and conflict, and other portraying aid as the vehicle that poor governments can leverage on for recovery and development of their economies and subsequently improving and sustaining human development. The reviews done were mainly on United Nations Articles and charters as well as the works of different scholars with interest in the field of foreign aid. Prehistorically, there has not been sufficient literature addressing the impact of aid on development. Several scholars however have been able to highlight the correlation between aid and social indicators such as health, education, fertility, sanitation and poverty. Whereas there is historical literature and various theories that exist in this field, still more research needs to be done on the effectiveness of aid, best practices in administering this aid to leverage on results – in terms of human

³⁴ Eroğlu, ö., and A. Yavuz. 2008. The role of foreign aid in economic development of developing countries. *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 18:313-327

³⁵ Ekanayake, E., and D. Chatrna. 2010. The effect of foreign aid on economic growth in developing countries. *Journal of International Business and Cultural Studies* 3(10):1-13

³⁶ Burnside, C., and D. Dollar. 2000. Aid, policies, and growth. *American economic review*:847-868

development and restoration of basic services especially in conflict affected countries.

I shall focus on testing the hypotheses that there is a positive relationship between humanitarian aid and human development. Specifically, the impact of this aid on post war recovery countries, bearing in mind that war destroys all forms of infrastructure and creates human crisis that demands urgent immediate lifesaving interventions.

1.9 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

This study is necessitated by the need to understand the dynamic aid environment. There is a stark difference in the line of continuum from the emergence of aid prehistorically to present day. The global environment is changing and more factors for consideration are being placed on the table before aid allocation. There are also new areas of interest for example climate change that is seeing a lot of financing being channeled towards it. The major fact remains however that there cannot be a universal standard to administering aid. This study will seek to confirm that there are success stories of aid effectiveness in post war recovery countries, and that without aid injection human development and other indices could not have been met. Whereas there are still numerous issues to do with aid handling by recipient governments for instance issues of diversion and corruption, we cannot overlook the fact that aid is important and the evidence supporting this hypothesis is available and verifiable. Additionally, this study has been largely motivated by the limited research and data available on aid financing and its impact on countries that are on recovery post conflict. The discussion will analysis the information that is available through various scholars, articles and organizations like the United Nations and the World bank that have easily accessible online data. This study has identified allocation of humanitarian aid as a

core component of recovery and restoration. The Millenium Development Goals were launched in 2000 and thus beginning this study a decade after this critical milestone in aid financing is critical to analyze the changes that took place within this period. There was consensus that most countries did not achieve these goals and therefore a strategic shift happened in 2016 when the Sustainable development goals were unveiled. With this also came fresh donor appetite to channel more funding to these countries with perennial low human development indices, and hence the increase of aid assistance to Somalia. In addition, there is a wealth of data in terms of reports and statistical databases that are available for the period 2010 and 2022 that can inform this study.

1.10 HYPOTHESES

The study is guided by the following three hypotheses:

- There is a positive impact of humanitarian aid on human development.
- Increased humanitarian aid funding has been effective in Somalia’s post war recovery.
- Humanitarian aid is impacting on Somalia’s human development indices.

1.11 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

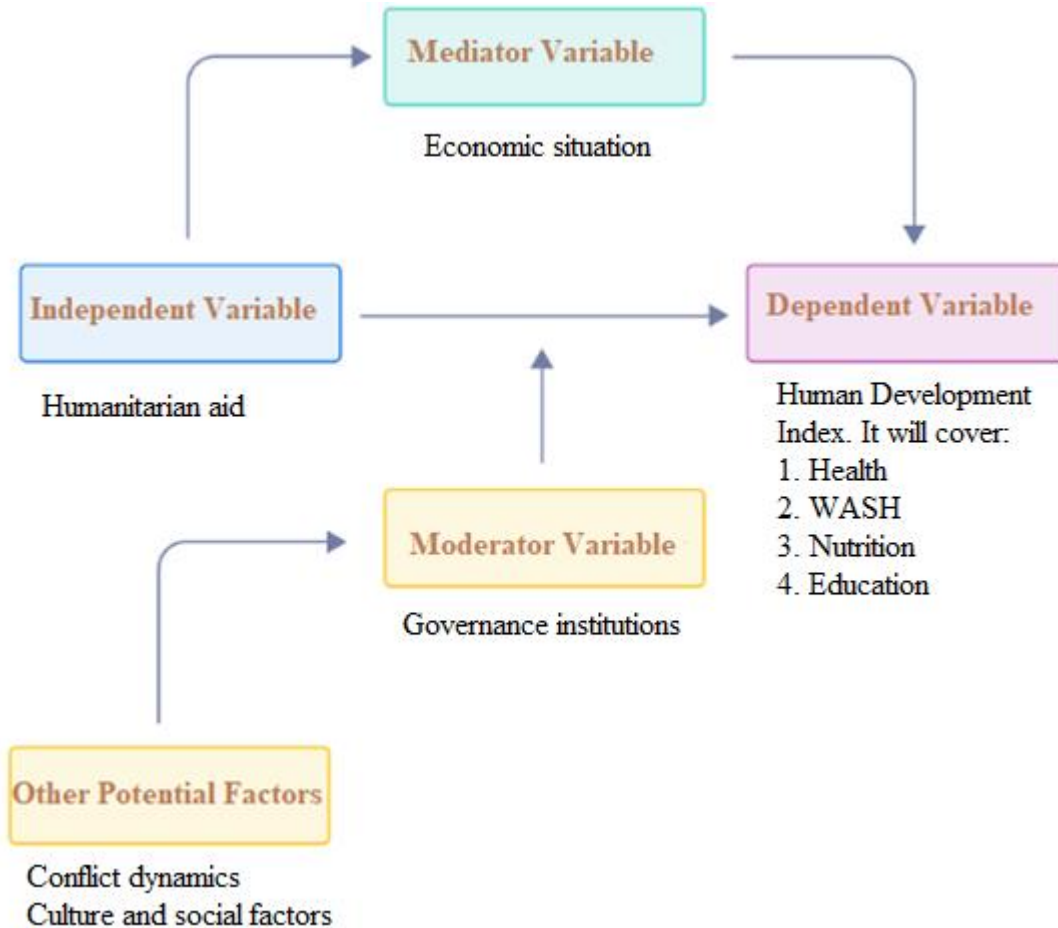


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

The framework above will guide analysis of the relationships between humanitarian aid, economic situation, governance and institutions, and numerous human development indices related to the

targeted communities. The researcher will examine how the mediating variable, governance institutions, influence the impact of humanitarian aid. Restoration of institutions and establishment of new ones are considered important aspects of post-war recovery. The study will also entail an analysis of the moderating variables that shape the overall outcomes. Contextual factors such as culture, conflict dynamics, and the social environment are important in providing a deeper understanding of the specific dynamics in Somalia.

1.12 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Design and methods of data collection

The methodology will entail incorporating information from primary and secondary data sources. The primary data will be collected through interviews with community leaders, beneficiaries, and aid workers. Due to factors like insecurity and inaccessibility in some areas of the country, the study will be done in Mogadishu and Garowe areas, the two capitals of Somalia and Somaliland. The current population of the country is about 17 million with approximately 2 million being residents of the capitals respectively. As these are pretty urban contemporary cities, the 5 major clans of the country will be well represented. The average household size in Somalia comprises of 7 people and therefore the sample size will comprise of 20 households per city. In addition to this, the study will take advantage of 10 focus group discussions that are set to be held in Hirshabelle and Galmudug regions of Somalia.

Secondary data will be retrieved from existing literature, reports, and statistical databases. A cross-sectional, focusing on a specific time period between 2010 and 2022, will be adopted. This design allows for a snapshot analysis of the relationship between humanitarian aid and human development indices in post-war Somalia. Interviews will help in gathering rich and contextual

insights into the perspectives of different stakeholders involved in the aid process. Purposive sampling will be employed. This approach is appropriate in scenarios where researchers intend to capture the input of a diverse range of participants. In the ongoing study, the researcher needs to ensure that various regions, genders, and roles within the humanitarian aid landscape are covered. Community leaders, beneficiaries, and aid workers will provide different perspectives on the humanitarian efforts. Their perspectives on the impact of aid on human development will help contextualize the relationship between the variables covered in the hypothesis and research questions at the beginning of this report. The sample size will be determined based on data saturation. The researcher intends to cover the optimal quantity of insights within the constraints of time and resources of this study.

Data Analysis

Transcription will be used to prepare the data collected through interviews for coding and thematic analysis. The researcher will look for patterns, themes, and relationships between the variables identified in the conceptual framework above. The secondary data analysis will entail a comprehensive review and synthesis of existing literature and reports. The study will be conducted in line with ethical standards set at the professional and institutional levels. Informed consent will be obtained from all participants through from or conversations that will convey information on the purpose of the research and their rights during the data collection process. The researcher will also use the engagement to affirm her commitment to participant confidentiality. Measures will be taken to protect the privacy and anonymity of participants during data collection, analysis, and reporting.

1.13 CHAPTER OUTLINE

This report outlines the study in five chapters. The current section is an introduction to the research. It outlines the goals and the general landscape of the study. The second chapter provides an overview of humanitarian aid and its impact on a country's post war recovery process. The third chapter covers the impact of humanitarian aid on development indices in Somalia from 2010-2022. The fourth chapter builds on insights generated from the previous section to provide a discussion on assessing key prospects and challenges in the implementation of humanitarian aid in the context of human development in Somalia. The fifth chapter is the conclusion of this research. It summarized the other sections and provides inferences and directions for future studies based on the current work.

CHAPTER 2: A CRITICAL LOOK AT HUMANITARIAN AID AND THE IMPACT ON HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

Africa is considered one of the rapidly developing regions of the world. Based on this reputation, many countries on the continent have managed to market themselves as ideal destinations for development partners. However, numerous African nations are still aid-reliant. The uphill task here is bringing together the varied opinions on whether the approaches being used are sufficient to cater for both short term and long term needs of the people. The goal of this chapter is to provide insights into the concept of humanitarian aid and its impact on human development in countries that in recovery post war. Overall, the section will entail the employment of various qualitative research approaches that will culminate into a comparison of multiple economies with the goal of determining whether these cases provide lessons for an ideal post-war recovery journey that is built on aid.

2.2 Humanitarian aid in definition

Humanitarian aid refers to relief efforts and material assistance that is aimed at alleviating suffering and saving lives in these scenarios.³⁷ Often voluntary, individuals and institutions engage in actions to support the affected people as a way of preserving human dignity.

Aid is as old as humanity. From ancient civilizations, people showed empathy for those suffering. Individuals, households, and societies in need would receive various forms of support from each other to ensure that they recover from disaster and crisis.³⁸ The topic of formalization of humanitarian aid emerged in the 19th and 20th centuries when specialized institutions were being

³⁷ Harrell-Bond, B. (2022). Can humanitarian work with refugees be humane? *Forced Displacement and NGOs in Asia and the Pacific*, 1-32.

³⁸ Terry, F. (2017). *Condemned to repeat? The paradox of humanitarian action*. Cornell University Press.

set up. The Geneva Conventions of 1864 resolved that the world needed formalized systems to deal with wounded people during armed conflicts.³⁹ The points raised during the convention were addressed with the formation of the League of Nations and the United Nations in the subsequent century. The Red Cross was also formed in the 1860s with the goal of guiding humanitarian efforts in various scenarios.

The world has experienced increasing awareness of humanitarian needs.⁴⁰ The nature of human beings is to strive to at the very least be able meet their own basic needs.⁴¹ However, scenarios like outbreaks of war, natural disasters like cyclones and typhoons, manmade disasters like oil spills, nuclear accidents and terrorist attacks, interrupt the normal cycle of actions geared towards meeting these needs, ultimately threatening survival. The major focus of organizations today is engaged in counteractive action aimed at restoring dignity through provision of supplies geared towards alleviating suffering.⁴²

Humanitarian efforts at scale are mainly coordinated by international organizations. Institutions such as the Red Cross, the UN, World Vision International, and Oxfam take up the responsibility of coordinating humanitarian aid because they have the resources and manpower required to provide the requisite logistics and knowledge.⁴³ Individuals of good will who are not able to be on the front line of recovery actions also channel their support through such organizations, and where possible establish direct links with the beneficiaries. Historically, the UN has continued to take up the mandate of assessing the conditions of societies in need of humanitarian aid. They engage in data collection to document deprivation levels, cost the recovery process and set up appeals to

³⁹ Bennett, Angela (2005). The Geneva Convention, the Hidden Origins of the Red Cross

⁴⁰ Nunn, N., & Qian, N. (2014). US food aid and civil conflict. *American economic review*, 104(6), 1630-1666.

⁴¹ Terry, F. (2017). *Condemned to repeat? The paradox of humanitarian action*. Cornell University Press.

⁴² Guillaumont, P., & Chauvet, L. (2019). Aid and performance: a reassessment. In *Changing the Conditions for Development Aid* (pp. 66-92). Routledge.

⁴³ Krause, M. (2014). *The good project: Humanitarian relief NGOs and the fragmentation of reason*. University of Chicago Press.

fundraise to meet these obligations.⁴⁴ Every year, UNICEF publishes country specific Humanitarian Appeal for Children (HAC) that serves as a guide on what emergency response is required to intervene in key programmatic areas of Health, Education, Nutrition, Child Protection as well as Water Sanitation and Hygiene. This forms the basis on which they engage with donors, as well as guide all actions related to fund raising. Since humanitarian assistance is a coordinated endeavour, the appeals usually borrow from the governments pillars for development to ensure that all actors are reading from the same script. To complement this, most donors have designed special portfolios to attend to the dynamic and ever changing emergency response action plans, and thereby prioritizing humanitarian programming to set the stage for development and sustainability efforts.

2.3 Conceptual and Theoretical analysis of the impact of humanitarian aid on post-war countries

The UN General Assembly made resolutions on which the conceptual framework of humanitarian aid is built. In 1991, UN member states converged and came up with four principles of humanitarian aid implementation. The first principle which is human facing noted that humanitarian aid should be founded on the need to preserve the dignity of the beneficiaries, preserving life and the wellbeing of the people. The second principle of neutrality forbids humanitarian actors from aligning with factions in active conflict. As neutrality is central to building trust, the key focus should be accountability to the affected populations.⁴⁵

The third principle is impartiality that draws linkage between humanitarian workers and

⁴⁴ Malkki, L. H. (2015). *The need to help: The domestic arts of international humanitarianism*. Duke University Press.

⁴⁵ Weiss, T. G. (2016). *Humanitarian intervention*. John Wiley & Sons.

vulnerable populations. Favouritism and in equity in resource allocation and distribution is discouraged as the former has an upper hand being the able service providers.⁴⁶ One of the key methods of determining who needs help is the severity of suffering. In practising impartiality, aid workers are able to provide urgent assistance to the most in need. The final principle is that of independence. Many organizations involved in humanitarian efforts benefit from international funding. However, there is a risk of donor imposed conditionalities that inhibit flexibility to implement programs that are tailored to specific humanitarian needs.⁴⁷ This in principle is to foster credibility and autonomy as humanitarian aid workers are not supposed to encourage foreign influence like political affiliation in the jurisdiction of duty.

Scholars have utilized tens of theoretical frameworks to explain humanitarian aid. Some of the most common perspectives in this discipline are consequentialism, utilitarianism, deontological ethics, socialization, and rational choice. Consequentialism entails the evaluation of morality based on outcomes.⁴⁸ In line with this theory, humanitarian organizations assess the impacts of their actions and choose the path that benefits the largest number of people. Utilitarianism focuses on the maximization of utility. Under this theory, the impact of humanitarian aid will be measured by analyzing the well-being and satisfaction of beneficiaries. The concept provides a framework for making decisions around resource allocation.⁴⁹ Deontology entails duty-based moral evaluation of human actions. The theory is used to demonstrate how people develop the idea that they have an obligation to alleviate each other's suffering. It helps humanitarian organizations to prioritize a needs-based implementation approach. Socialization theories

⁴⁶ Krause, M. (2014). *The good project: Humanitarian relief NGOs and the fragmentation of reason*. University of Chicago Press.

⁴⁷ Meier, P. (2015). *Digital humanitarians: how big data is changing the face of humanitarian response*. CRC Press.

⁴⁸ Chandler, D. (2014). The Responsibility to Protect? Imposing the 'Liberal Peace.' In *Peace operations and global order* (pp. 59-81). Routledge.

⁴⁹ Posner, E. A. (2014). *The twilight of human rights law*. Inalienable Rights.

explain the origin and propagation of values and norms. It shapes how humanitarian actors and entities influence the delivery of aid and allocation of resources during crises.⁵⁰ The rational choice theory is built on the assumption that people's actions are based on self-interest. The concept is used to analyze how humanitarian actors weigh the risks, costs, and benefits of alternatives to aid delivery. It explains how people pursue altruism by employing the most efficient means that lessen the burden on themselves. These theories are employed in breaking down the process that aid workers undertake to steer the challenges and dilemmas that emerge in their field.

2.4 The foreign policy of aid

Foreign policy usually determines how humanitarian assistance is conducted.⁵¹ Many nations have been working to portray themselves as being pro protection of humanity. Consequently, they have worked on navigating the complex and evolving landscape to position themselves as valuable partners to the international community. As such, some countries channel aid directly to affected populations, while others rely on existing international institutions to implement the aid.⁵²

Theoretically, the foreign policy of most nations insists on neutrality regarding participation in humanitarian assistance. Countries are keen to demonstrate that the aid they provide is based on their commitment to protecting human dignity and fostering the ability of vulnerable populations to meet their needs. According to Terry, a direct causal effect of the prevalence of relying on aid assistance is the phenomenon of donor led response programs.⁵³ Foreign policy

⁵⁰ Barnett, M. (2018). *Empire of humanity: A history of humanitarianism*. Cornell University Press.

⁵¹ Korb, L. (2015). Foreign aid and security: A renewed debate? In *Foreign aid and Foreign Policy* (pp. 27-38). Routledge.

⁵² Callaway, R. L., & Matthews, E. G. (2016). *Strategic US foreign assistance: The battle between human rights and national security*. Routledge.

⁵³ Terry, F. (2017). *Condemned to repeat? The paradox of humanitarian action*. Cornell University Press.

as a concept though freeing does not allow for parasitic relationships. Despite this, there are many nations that deviate from their foreign policies around aid by offering assistance in a way that allows them to pursue other economic and political interests. This results in a scenario where the beneficiaries cannot build on the assistance to develop into independent societies that can cater to themselves. In countries where opinion leaders have been very vocal for example, there is evidence of threats to pull out humanitarian aid.⁵⁴ As such it would not be misinformed to note that aid is used by the donor countries in the world to coerce partners into conforming to specific economic and political stands.

Dupuy et al. examined cases where poor and middle-income countries have rejected conditional assistance.⁵⁵ The researchers noted that by the end of 2015, 39 countries across the world had implemented policies that placed restrictions on several donors and aid organizations. The policies targeted institutions that supported warring blocs in conflict zones. They also focused on foreign nations and countries that had threatened to suspend funding while demanding that certain political conditions are met. These policies make provision for the possibility of severing ties between the aid receiving nations and the donors' countries, should there be evidence of aid being used to undermine the activities of the commands in power.⁵⁶

The foreign policies of many countries around aid are characterized by opacity. In examining the relationship between humanitarianism and violence in northern Uganda, Branch et al. found that while the organizations supporting humanitarian assistance in the region claimed to only be driven by restoring the dignity of the population, there was evidence that

⁵⁴ Dietrich, S., & Murdie, A. (2017). Human rights shaming through INGOs and foreign aid delivery. *The Review of International Organizations*, 12, 95-120.

⁵⁵ Dupuy, K., Ron, J., & Prakash, A. (2016). Hands off my regime! Governments' restrictions on foreign aid to non-governmental organizations in poor and middle-income countries. *World Development*, 84, 299-311.

⁵⁶ Heinrich, T., & Kobayashi, Y. (2020). How do people evaluate foreign aid to 'nasty regimes? *British Journal of Political Science*, 50(1), 103-127.

this aid was being used to fuel violence by supporting certain factions.⁵⁷ Similar observations were made by Hernandez, who noted that most humanitarian efforts by entities seeking to be as influential as long standing organizations like the World Bank were advanced by political aims.⁵⁸

Julius et al. utilized a multivariate time series analysis to analyse the long-term impact of aid by examining data from 36 nations across the African continent.⁵⁹ The findings showed that initially, African nations were open to humanitarian assistance. However, they later realized that the help was conditional. This was deduced from the behaviour of donors that set conditions for their assistance. One of the most intriguing was Western countries sidelining African nations that received assistance from the East. Consequently, countries had to make decisions on which side to align with. From these observations, humanitarian aid is an important determinant of the foreign policy of both donor and recipient nations.

2.5 Human Development Index

2.5.1 Evolution of the Human Development Index

Several scholars in the field of human development have tried to define the measure of wellbeing of humanity by a combination of indicators that explain social progress by its means and ends. A study on the level of living index in 20 countries was done by the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD) in 1996. The categories used in this study were three-fold; one on physical needs – Nutrition, Health

⁵⁷ Dupuy, K., Ron, J., & Prakash, A. (2016). Hands off my regime! Governments' restrictions on foreign aid to non-governmental organizations in poor and middle-income countries. *World Development*, 84, 299-311.

⁵⁸ Hernandez, D. (2017). Are "new" donors challenging World Bank conditionality? *World Development*, 96, 529-549.

⁵⁹ Juselius, K., Møller, N. F., & Tarp, F. (2014). The long-run impact of foreign aid in 36 African countries: Insights from multivariate time series analysis. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 76(2), 153-184.

and Shelter, the other on cultural needs – education, security, and leisure, and the last one on higher needs, denoting income above a certain threshold. They further went on to conduct another study to define a development index in 1972, this time using a set of nine economic and social characteristics respectively.⁶⁰ As the trend continued, in 1973 a study to predict GNP per capita index was conducted in 82 developing countries by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), using six social variables⁶¹. Further, using a set of seven social and economic indicators, the United Nations Economic and Social Council ranked 140 countries in 1975.⁶² Other organizations began engaging in studies in a bid to define the human development index and thus the need for countries to define a threshold to ascertain the needs of the population are being met was underscored. There was undisputed concerted effort to keep the variables at minimum and remain with core ones that had the highest level of correlation to each other. In 1990, UNDP in collaboration with Mahbub ul Haq, a renowned economist launched the first Human Development Report. The report was basically to draw the relationship between people and how development enhances their choices in life, with the most critical being those that lead to living long healthy lives, to be educated and to have access to the resources required to facilitate a decent standard of living. The idea painted was human development being a concern of both the creation and use of human proficiencies like improved health and education.⁶³ One common outcome of the report

⁶⁰ McGranham, et al. 1972 Measurement and Analysis of Socio-Economic Development, UNRISD, Geneva.

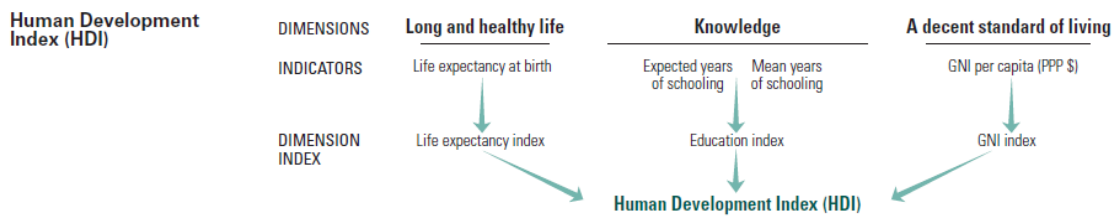
⁶¹ OECD/DAC (April 1977) 'Socioeconomic typologies or criteria for 82 developing countries.' Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris.

⁶² UN-ECOSOC (Economic Committee and Social Council, Committee for Development Planning) (1975) 'Developing countries and level of development.' 15 October. United Nations, New York.

⁶³ UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). 1990. Human Development Report: Concept and Measurement of Human Development. New York.

was the dreary performance in the ranking of countries for all those that were in a state of active conflict or post war recovery. The bottom 10 countries in the list of aggregates on human development were: Niger, Mali, Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Chad, Guinea, Somalia, Mauritania, Afghanistan, and Benin.⁶⁴

Since 1990 to date, countries of the first world have had high rankings of their development index. According to data collected in 2021, Switzerland, Norway and Iceland were the top 3 ranking countries. The same report dismal performance recorded by African countries, with only Malaysia being in the category of very high ranking with an annual average growth of 0.055 per cent.⁶⁵



Source: UNDP

It is important to understand that a country’s performance on this development indexes is directly proportional to good governance, presence of a robust national development strategy as well as a healthy population. The fact that conflict destroys the very foundation of society is the major reason why South Sudan and Somalia held place 191 and 192 with negative growth of one and nine per cent respectively. The complete degeneration of these drivers for human development (access to education, clean and

⁶⁴ Ibid

⁶⁵ Human Development Report 2021-22: Uncertain Times, Unsettled Lives: Shaping our Future in a Transforming World (PDF). hdr.undp.org. United Nations Development Programme. 8 September 2022.

sustainable water systems, preventive and curative health services, security and protection services and income) and the inability of governments to sustain them to globally accepted levels is the major reason for under development.

The focus is therefore clear, that the linkage between delivery of humanitarian aid to such economies in a state of recovery is imperative to human development thus averting the risk of further degeneration of human life.

2.6 Effective aid implementation

The issue of aid being perennially low has been discussed by the scholars Sachs (2009) and Stiglitz (2002) who noted that to effectively reduce poverty, larger allocations of aid assistance need to be made. The major foundation of this school of thought is the need to rethink how this aid is administered, with the proposition that funding is done per specific need interventions like the global fight against HIV and Malaria. The issue of ownership of aid to increase its effectiveness is made up of a number of components including aid agencies coordinating programs to deliver as one, having financial plans and commitments that are long term, thus multiyear, a higher percentage of funds allocated to support budget rather than programs, and inclusion of the civil society in aid programming. In full cognizance of this, the World Bank in the early 80s adopted a strategy of engagement with poor aid recipient countries to increase the local degree of ownership, encourage legitimacy and reduce any potential resistance. A report on adjustment lending released in 1988, pointed out that “progress in implementation has been stronger where governments have

‘owned’ the program and hence were committed to carrying it through.”⁶⁶ The Helleiner Commission report, headed by Canadian economist Gerry Helleiner, stating that ownership can only be ensured if the final decisions are left to the recipient governments.⁶⁷ The conclusion therefore was that to increase acceptance and effectiveness of aid, it was imperative to involve the recipient governments in coordination and implementation. With this idea gaining popularity in Africa and the developing world, the focus was now on the relation between ownership and performance.⁶⁸

The two scholars Graafland and Bosma investigate the moral duty of humanitarian aid from developed countries to low developed ones, with specific focus on poverty reduction.⁶⁹ Several ethical theories exist in support of this ideology. Firstly, from the utilitarian perspective, where the major focus is on the consequences of one’s action vis a vis the basic principle “the greatest happiness for the greatest number”.⁷⁰ This basically states that aid effectiveness should be measured to determine whether it should be administered or not. Some of the measures are for instance countries with limitations to democracy and other proved human rights violations with the probability of using aid ineffectively should not be recipients of such assistance.⁷¹

Another viewpoint is that of libertarianism that regards aid as a moral duty based on basic rights. From this dimension, rich countries have a moral responsibility to poorer ones to offer support through injection of aid into their economies. The Moral Politics of Foreign

⁶⁶ The World Bank, “Adjustment Lending: An Evaluation of Ten Years of Experience,” 1988, pg. 64.

⁶⁷ Helleiner (1995, as reproduced in Wangwe, 2002), p. 12

⁶⁸ Radelet, Steven. 2006. “A Primer on Aid Allocation.” Center for Global Development. Working Paper 92

⁶⁹ Graafland, J., & Bosma, M. (2013). World poverty and the duty to aid. *Spheres of global justice*, pg 611.

⁷⁰ *Ibid* pg 613

⁷¹ *Ibid* pg 615

Aid by Hattori queries the theory of aid and ethics especially because there is not enough empirical evidence to support it. Liberals argue that industrial states are indirectly obligated to offering this aid, considering that it promotes basic needs that is a human right. Further justification is this aid is administered out of a moral perspective to respond to issues that are solvable using technical expertise. The final ethical justification for foreign aid is to provide it for humanitarian reasons as a social relation of giving.⁷²

2.7 Prevalent Issues in post war Countries in Africa

The development path of each African nation is characterised by a unique combination of factors. Studies and insights from experts have helped establish the most prevalent issues in many scenarios. Although there is no consensus in many of these cases, problems around conflict and instability, resource utilisation, institutions, governance, and human capital development have dominated the discourse in this area. Analysing aid-dependent African nations from these perspectives will generate more themes that can be built upon to understand the phenomena better.

2.7.1 Humanitarian Aid in the context of post war countries

The 90s was a particularly difficult period in Africa as there was an outbreak of several major wars. In 1991, a coup ousted the Somali dictator Mohammed Siad Barre sparking off one of the longest and deadliest civil wars. More than a million Somali nationals lost their lives and means of livelihood, tossing the country into a deep humanitarian crisis. The complete breakdown of services and infrastructure jeopardized the country's state of stability. Between 1992 and 1995, the United Nations together with the United States of America became heavily involved, sending military personnel and humanitarian aid to the

⁷² Hattori, T. (2003). The moral politics of foreign aid. *Review of International Studies*, pg 229– 247

country. In 1994, the US pulled out support to Somalia because there was no foreseeable solution in sight despite the almost USD 1.7 billion that had been sent to the country. In a press release in 1999, Kofi Anan the former UN Secretary General noted that had humanitarian action be done early, the hefty death toll and prolonged conflict could possibly have been evaded.⁷³

At the same time in 1994, Rwanda was thrown into a brutal genocide of 800,000 Tutsis, a minority ethnic group, after President Juvenal Habyarimana was murdered in a controversial plane crash. What followed was 100 days of bloody murder perpetrated by Hutus, driving the country into a massive humanitarian crisis.⁷⁴ Whereas there were concerns that the world was quiet during this massacre and did not do much to support cease fire, the United Nations set up a military base in country but had no authority to act. The United States on the other hand was still reeling from the failed peace interventions in Somalia and stayed away from any action, despite claims that in 1993 the CIA had warned of imminent massacres in the country.⁷⁵

This genocide sparked mass movement of refugees from Rwanda into Congo. In 1996, a coalition of Ugandan and Rwandan armies invaded Eastern Congo to flush out the remaining perpetrators of the genocide. Extreme ethnic tensions and economic hardship under the authoritarian dictator President Mobutu Sese Seko had already set the stage for the Zaire (present day DRC) to court the possibility of an outbreak of war and this military

⁷³ Security Council - 1a - Press Release SC/6759 4072nd Meeting (PM) 29 November 1999

⁷⁴ Uvin, Peter. "Reading the Rwandan Genocide." *International Studies Review* 3, no. 3 (2001): 75–99.

⁷⁵ Des Forges, 2000. 'Response: Rationalising Western Apathy on Rwanda'. *Foreign Affairs* 79(3): 141-144

invasion sparked off what is known to be the first Congo war.⁷⁶ This led to formation of several revolutionary groups, with the most prominent being led by communist leader Laurent-Désiré Kabila. Lapses in Mobutu's organized forces led to easy capture of strategic regions in the country. In 1997, this rebel group with the backing of the Angolan military walked into Kinshasa and captured it, thereby rendering Kabila president and thus the renaming of the Democratic Republic of Congo. Upon assuming power, President Kabila was unable to divide the highly polarized country. The Eastern side remained very militarized and there was general dissatisfaction of how he got into power. It was not long after that that the second Congo war broke out.⁷⁷ The result of this was massive loss of lives and a complete breakdown of infrastructure. Today, the DRC remains a very volatile country with regions in the South and East still experiencing long periods of intense fighting.

Organisations like USAID that was previously channelling aid assistance to the Rwanda halted operations at the beginning of the genocide but resumed several months after active conflict, to provide humanitarian aid including programs in Nutrition (inclusive of providing food aid), Health and agriculture at small scale for the internally displaced people as well as refugees. In 1998 the situation began to stabilise in the country but the trail of gross violation of human rights was indescribable. As such US/Rwanda entered into a transitional phase agreement to re-establish the mission that was in place prior to the conflict. This set in motion the recovery process of the country with programs aiming at

⁷⁶ Williams, Christopher. "Explaining the Great War in Africa: How Conflict in the Congo Became a Continental Crisis." *The Fletcher Forum of World Affairs* 37, no. 2 (2013): 81–100

⁷⁷ Temesgen Thomas Halabo 2020 Conflicts in the Democratic Republic of Congo: Dynamics, Trends and Challenges for Peace.

increasing food security and delivering health services at the fore front of the exercise.⁷⁸

The total value of aid assistance delivered to support the first five years of recovery up to 1999 totalled USD 61 million. Throughout the early 2000s Rwanda was still in active post war reconstruction focussing on creating a robust agricultural extension system, reconstructing physical infrastructure and rebuilding health and justice systems. The last 10 years have seen an increase of humanitarian funding from the US to Rwanda from USD 48 million in 2004 to USD 128 million in 2016.⁷⁹ Consequently, Rwanda has made remarkable progress in rebuilding itself. Poverty reduction in the country over the last 15 years has dropped to 40 per cent, down from the original 60 per cent. There have been outstanding declines in maternal deaths (from 476 to 210 per 100,000 live births) and under five child mortality over the last decade (from 76 to 50 child deaths per 1,000 live births), thus achieving the highest average annual reduction rates among 75 countries that record more than 95% of these deaths.⁸⁰ Similarly, the net enrolment of 97 per cent confirms that access to education has resounding success in the country.⁸¹ Humanitarian aid assistance to Rwanda is one of the critical pillars of the country's successful post war recovery initiatives.

Similarly, the long-standing effects of the conflict in Congo led to mass violation of human rights and dignity. In 2016, the Human Development index Report by UNDP ranked Congo number 176 out of 188 countries in the world.⁸² According to the World Bank, in 2022

⁷⁸ History of USAID/Rwanda

⁷⁹ Uvin Peter 1996 Development, Aid and Conflict Reflections from the Case of Rwanda

⁸⁰ World Bank. 1984. Rwanda Population, Health and Nutrition Section Review. Washington, DC: Population, Health and Nutrition Department pg 1-3

⁸¹ Victoire Umuhoza 2023 Education in Rwanda: A long walk to the knowledge economy

⁸² UNDP 2016 Human Development Index Report

nearly 62 per cent of the total population of approximately 60 million people were living on less than USD 2.15 a day, resulting in one out of every six people living in extreme poverty.⁸³ Under five mortality (one in every 10 per 1,000 live births) and maternal deaths (seven of every 1,000 women) were among the highest in the world. Preventable Acute Watery Diseases (AWD) like Cholera was responsible for many deaths due to the lack of a safe and sustainable clean water system in the country, with over 41,000 cholera related deaths by 2019.⁸⁴ High stunting rates in children (42 per cent) and severe malnutrition, extremely poor quality of education resulting in 97 per cent of 10 year olds not being able to read simple text, high rates of gender based violence against women, poor health care systems compounded by the protracted conflict and other pandemics like Ebola and COVID 19 are some of the reasons for DRC being at the bottom position it is at today.⁸⁵ In 2018 at a humanitarian conference in Geneva, donors announced that USD 528 million of humanitarian aid funding was earmarked for the DRC to support the initiatives towards building and recovery.⁸⁶ By the end of 2022, the World Bank's aid contribution for both national and regional projects totaled USD 7.36 Billion.⁸⁷ Whereas the human development index for DRC still remains low, with a lot of areas for improvement, there have been slow steady steps made towards rebuilding the country. The consistent access to humanitarian aid at scale has enabled the current wins in the country. Between 2021 and 2022, more than three million additional children were enrolled in primary education. Infrastructure projects have reopened and maintained more than 3,000 kilometers of road network thus opening

⁸³ World Bank 2019 Our Data Bank

⁸⁴ World Health Organization 2020 Global Health Estimates Data

⁸⁵ World Bank 2019 Our Data Bank

⁸⁶ United Nations News 2018 Global Perspectives Human Stories DRC

⁸⁷ World Bank 2022; Country Overview DRC

economic activity. Over three million people now have access to clean and sustainable water with more than 88,000 new water connections and over 450 rehabilitated water points across the country, with a further seven million benefitting from various services (literacy training for GBV survivors, dignity kits distribution and other medical, legal and psychosocial support) aimed at prevention of gender-based violence.

2.8 Chapter Summary

It is clear from the analysis of the effect of conflict in various countries in Sub Saharan Africa, that humanitarian aid is at the crux of efforts geared towards recovery and rebuilding. There are numerous case studies that can attest to the causal effect this humanitarian aid has on improvement of infrastructure and service delivery, and the line of continuum on improved social indicators can be drawn in backing of this. This chapter provided an overview of the general humanitarian aid environment, and its characteristics of interest in light of sustaining human development and has outlined a definite impact of humanitarian aid on human development in post war countries.

CHAPTER 3: AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF HUMANITARIAN AID ON HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDICES IN SOMALIA BETWEEN 2010 AND 2022

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will focus mainly on the state of human development in Somalia and the degree of change that has occurred over the years. It will also go ahead to analyse the trends in humanitarian financing to the country, their areas of focus and highlight quantitative data on beneficiaries reached. The preceding chapter gave an overall snapshot of countries that have suffered the spoils of war, and the positive impact that aid has had in recovery and rebuilding their states. In chapter 3, we will go in depth to Somalia, to unravel the uniqueness of the country's political context and its impact on human development.

3.2 Socio Political environment in Somalia

Historically, Somalia has always been known as a weakened state. The long-standing war that has perpetuated the total breakdown of core infrastructure required to sustain a country is the major reason for this classification. The 19th century saw Somalia colonized by two major countries; British and Italy, and as such, was polarized based on these two colonies, establishing British Somaliland and Italian Somali land. Their colonial reign lasted over a decade but mid-1960, Somalia gained independence.

3.3 Trends in Aid financing to Somalia

The Net Official Development Assistance recorded a remarkable increase for the early 2000s, from more than USD 170 million in 2003 to more than USD 230 million by the end of 2005, with aid per capita growing from USD 22 to USD 30 between 2003 and

2005 respectively.⁸⁸The major donors providing this aid were the European Union, United States, Norway, The United Kingdom, Kingdom of Netherlands among others. By the end of 2004, UN OCHA's Financial Tracking system reported that nonconventional donors emerging from the Gulf states were contributing up to 12 per cent of the total humanitarian aid assistance to Somalia.⁸⁹

Somalia was categorized as a country with critical flimsiness, low resource allocations and high deprivation indexes, and as such was prioritized for consideration of increased aid flows. As the health needs in the country were very dire, the total aid received in this sector constituted approximately five percent of the total assistance between 2004 and 2005.⁹⁰ Further, in the same period, the total proportion of this aid assistance that was classified as humanitarian stood at 67 per cent. By the end of 2006, Somalia witnessed a sharp increase of humanitarian funding due to eruption of violence coupled with severe drought.

According to the UNOCHA FTS Humanitarian Analysis Funding for Somalia in 2010, the total available humanitarian aid was USD 491 million, decreasing from USD 663 million in 2009.⁹¹ Amidst continued conflict and massive displacement of people, the country experienced good rainfall and equally good harvests. As such, the number of people in need dropped slightly between these two years, from 2.7 million to 2 million respectively.⁹²In 2015, the Common Humanitarian Fund (CHF) in Somalia was developed

⁸⁸ OECD 2007 Aid Statistics.

⁸⁹ Harmer, A., and L. Cotterrel. 2005. "Diversity in donorship: The changing landscape of official humanitarian aid." ODI Humanitarian Policy Group Research Briefing.

⁹⁰ Ibid

⁹¹ UNOCHA FTS 2010 Response plan/Appal snap shot

⁹² UNOCHA FTS 2010. Humanitarian Analysis Funding for Somalia, September issue

with the intention to support timely and coordinated response and allocate funding to the most urgent lifesaving needs in Somalia. The annual report developed by the Fund in the same year noted that a total of USD 31 million of aid was channelled through various donors to respond to high priority needs as identified in the Somalia Humanitarian Response Plan (HRP).

By the end of 2015, Somalia had received a total of USD 1.3 billion total ODA assistance, out of which USD 593 million was specifically earmarked as humanitarian. In total, about 30 per cent of development aid of over USD 200 million was channelled to the funding windows of the Somalia Development and Reconstruction Facility (SDRF) marking a significant increase compared to the USD 80 million in 2014.⁹³ In 2017, more than USD 1 billion had been contributed by donors for humanitarian response, thus enabling the country to avert the looming famine. In 2018 however, above average Gu rains that resulted in riverine flooding, coupled with the existing shocks of the exacerbated conflict, drove the country into a deeper humanitarian crisis. The outcome of this was an estimated 5.4 million people in need of urgent lifesaving assistance.⁹⁴ In 2018, the country was in dire need of resources with the Humanitarian Response Plan seeking USD 1.5 billion in humanitarian aid. By mid-year, the country had only received 74% of funding received same time in the previous year, and by the end of 2018 a total of USD 1.2 billion humanitarian aid had been channelled to Somalia.⁹⁵

In 2020, the world was brought to a standstill by the COVID 19 pandemic. On top

⁹³ United Nations in Somalia, Aid Flows Somalia 2016

⁹⁴ UNOCHA 2017-2018 Somalia humanitarian funding analysis (data as of 31 May 2018)

⁹⁵ UNOCHA FTS 2018 Response Plan/Appel Snap shot

of dealing with recurrent conflict, environmental and climatic shocks, prolonged famine and continuous displacement of people, Somalia was forced to respond to this humanitarian emergency. Donors collectively contributed a total of USD 1.09 billion to Somalia for both routine humanitarian response and COVID 19 specific response. This continued through 2021, as the level of funding remained generally similar.⁹⁶

Two years on after the global slow down due to the pandemic saw the process of slow recovery and resumption of normalcy begin. In 2022, US\$ 2.2 billion was received in country as humanitarian aid assistance to support programmes in Health, WASH, Education, Child Protection, Nutrition, Securing livelihoods, Resilience and Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR).⁹⁷

3.4 Humanitarian Situation in Somalia

Somalia's political landscape has historically been marked by clan-based dynamics against a backdrop of low socio-economic conditions with uneven distribution of political and economic powers. The recent history of the country, characterized by a long-lasting conflict situation and multiple political, economic and social shocks, has made Somalia a fragile state undermined by many vulnerabilities. Some of these vulnerabilities are political instability due to a breakdown of institutions, lack of proper infrastructure to facilitate trade and investment, displacement of people due to conflict and drought, strain and depletion of available social services, recurrent shocks, and coping strategies among others⁹⁸.

Strengthening resilience is one major factor of recovery. This ideally means that the system

⁹⁶ UNOCHA FTS 2020 Response Plan/Appel Snap shot

⁹⁷ United Nations Office of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA) Somalia Humanitarian Response Plan 2022

⁹⁸ Istanbul II Background Paper on Resilience, May 2012, retrieved June 2023

should allow for the capacity to anticipate, plan, and reduce disaster risk to effectively protect communities, livelihoods as well as socio economic eco systems. Somalia has over two decades been in a constant state of conflict that has perpetuated poverty, deterred socio economic development and consequently distorted the enabling environment required to address the challenging humanitarian needs.⁹⁹ Prolonged environmental dysfunctions causing consecutive periods of drought has resulted in zero farm harvests, a poor livestock base, sky high food prices and weak purchasing power. These have eroded coping mechanisms and triggered a long running state of emergency in Somalia.

The poverty profile in Somalia has remained at a high constant. In 2002, out of the country's 6.8million population, a total of 43.2 per cent was living under one dollar a day and another 73.4% per cent was living under to dollars a day. The poverty gap is large with a survey done on households suggesting that the poorest households representing about 10 per cent receives only 1.5 per cent of the country's generated income.¹⁰⁰ Poverty not only impacts matters economy but also has poor outcomes on health, nutrition, education, and access to basic services. The 2001 UN Human Development Report ranked Somalia 161 out of 163 countries based on several social indicators. Lack of security has also impacted on the country's capacity to advance the development agenda as most areas harboring the most in need being inaccessible.¹⁰¹

The country's heavy reliance on remittances of aid over the years is an indication of the long process of post war recovery. Because of the protracted conflict in Somalia, the health

⁹⁹ FSNAU Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit – Somalia. Nutrition Update. September -October 2012

¹⁰⁰ World Bank/UNDP 2002 Socioeconomic survey on Somalia news release

¹⁰¹ UNICEF Technical Report 2004/2005

status was ranked as one of the worst in the world. At the end of 2003, the under-five mortality rates for Sub Saharan Africa stood at 171 per every 1,000 births.¹⁰² The rate for Somalia was a whopping 224 deaths per 1,000 live births, representing a third above the average for Sub Saharan Africa. Further, the maternal mortality rate in the country is among the highest rates in the world. Immunization rates remain extremely low with Diphtheria, Pertussis and Tetanus (DPT3) coverage in 2002 being at 40 per cent as compared to countries like Zimbabwe and Mozambique that recorded 58 and 60 per cent respectively.¹⁰³ A study conducted on Somali immigrants noted that the trauma associated with civil war exposed Somali youth to high risks of developing psychological illness.¹⁰⁴ To complement the advancements in the Health sector, Nutrition programs (Malnutrition prevention and control, Breastfeeding, Micro nutrient administration and emergency surveys) accounted for 11 per cent of the total aid financing to Somalia.

In 2010, the short rains (*Deyr*) usually expected between October and December of every year failed in most parts of the country. The impact of these failed rains was evident in the dwindling water supply, increased livestock death, sky high food prices and large displacement of people. Malnutrition rates increased rapidly, with 30 per cent of children in active acute malnutrition, almost twice the threshold for mobilizing urgent humanitarian assistance. Between 2010 and 2012, the Food Security Analysis Unit (FSNAU) reported that the country had experienced severe food insecurity due to the long period of drought. This, compounded by the ongoing conflict and overall reduction in humanitarian assistance

¹⁰² Schieber, G. 2005. "Sustainable Health Sector Financing." High Level Forum on the Health MDGs in Asia-Pacific, Tokyo, Japan.

¹⁰³ UNICEF. 2002. One-year-old immunization–DPT3.

¹⁰⁴ Reitsma, K. 2001. Needs assessment: Somali adolescents in the process of adjustment. Toronto: Children's Aid Society of Toronto

around this time further fuelled the effects of the drought. Early warning systems run by FSNAU and the USAID funded Famine Early Warning System Network (FEWS NET) were able to detect the fast evolving humanitarian crisis. Following recommendations from a multi partner integrated food security analysis coalition, the UN declared famine in most areas of the country.¹⁰⁵

The United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) Executive Director in a statement on the state of Child and Armed conflict in Somalia regrettably noted that armed groups were recruiting and using children as soldiers.¹⁰⁶ This was an outright show of the degree of breakdown of the society as reports indicated that schools were being used as recruitment centres.

In the same breath, humanitarian actors were scaling up the response to mitigate the effect of *el nino* flooding that was predicted along Juba and Shabelle Rivers that had a definite impact on the already worsening drought situation in Somalia. On top of this, the country was responding to a large influx of internally displaced people (IDPs) estimated at 29,310¹⁰⁷ people who were fleeing the war in Yemen to seek shelter in Somalia. A total of 3.2 million people needed lifesaving and livelihood support, with 214,700 children under-5 acutely malnourished, 39,700 of them severely malnourished and 1.1 million in a protracted internal displacement situation¹⁰⁸.

¹⁰⁵ C. Francesco & W. Courtland Robinson 2013, Mortality among populations of southern and central Somalia affected by severe food insecurity and famine during 2010-2012

¹⁰⁶ A. Lake, 2010 Statement from UNICEF Executive Director and The Secretary General’s special representative on Child and Armed conflict New York

¹⁰⁷ Laura Hammond, 2014 Somali refugee displacements in the near region: Analysis and Recommendations, Paper for the UNHCR Global Initiative on Somali Refugees

¹⁰⁸ UNICEF Somalia Situation Analysis Report 2015

By the end of 2014, the Somalia Humanitarian annual report reported a significant increase in humanitarian needs with over one million people unable to meet their basic needs food requirement, representing a 20 per cent increase from the beginning of the same year.¹⁰⁹ An additional two thirds of the population, mostly women and children were internally displaced, with another 2.1 million slipping towards acute food insecurity. Acute malnutrition rates of children under five were at 14.9 per cent averaging over one in every seven children, with a concerning 2.6 percent severely malnourished. Only a paltry 30 per cent of the population had access to safe water and approximately 1.7 million children were out of school.¹¹⁰ Despite concerted effort leading to a slight improvement in the situation in 2015, there are large numbers of people still in need of urgent lifesaving assistance.

The situation remained the same as preceding years, as there was still about 3.2 million people in urgent need of humanitarian aid for survival in the country by 2018. Access to essential basic services of Education, Health, Nutrition and Water Sanitation and Hygiene were at an all-time low, with internally displaced people being most affected. Abuse of human rights including sexual and gender-based violence was rampant, child recruitment and limitations on the freedom of movement drove an estimated 3.6 million people to needing immediate protection services. With a large chunk of the population living in hard-to-reach areas due to conflict and other infrastructural imitations, provision of timely lifesaving assistance was limited.¹¹¹

At the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, it was reported that about 5.2

¹⁰⁹ UNOCHA 2014 Somalia Humanitarian Fund Annual Report

¹¹⁰ UNOCHA 2014 Somalia Humanitarian Fund Annual Report

¹¹¹ UNOCHA 2018 Somalia Humanitarian Needs Overview

million people needed urgent humanitarian assistance¹¹². The country continued to feel the impacts of climate change (through flash and riverine flooding), conflict, COVID19 and the desert locust plague, displacing over 840,000 people. The effect of the pandemic on injection of aid was felt as the whole world slowed down to tackle this global health emergency.

Fast forward to 2022, with close to ten million people requiring immediate humanitarian assistance, Somalia was on its fifth failed consecutive rainy season, with a projected high likelihood of a sixth one. The consequence of this was a devastating food crisis, sharp increase of internally displaced persons and severe shortages of clean water compounding the already dire state of the drought affected population.¹¹³

Food security and nutrition remained a constant need in Somalia. In 2022, the country was struggling to correct the critical figures of malnutrition in children that had exceeded the WHO threshold for emergencies standing at an alarming 16 per cent of children in comparison to 11 per cent recorded in 2021.¹¹⁴ According to UNICEF fast facts report 2013, there was a projection of close to two million children below the age of five being at risk of suffering from malnutrition of which more than half a million were likely to deteriorate to severe wasting between July 2022 and June 2023.¹¹⁵

The Deprivation Index has continued to be high with large portions of the population unable to access basic services of health, water, education, nutrition and shelter.

¹¹² UNICEF Somalia Humanitarian Needs Overview (HNO)2019

¹¹³ UNICEF Somalia Situation Analysis Report January 2022

¹¹⁴ FSNAU October 2010 Multi Partner Technical Release on updated IPC Analysis for Somalia

¹¹⁵ Ibid

3.5 Millenium Development Goals

The new millennium was ushered in with fresh hope as the United Nations played host to world leaders to deliberate on a joint vision to reduce suffering. In September 2000, the United Nations Declaration was signed, committing world leaders to ‘combat poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation, and discrimination against women.’ As a result of this, eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were formulated, with a set timeline of the year 2015.¹¹⁶ The former UN Secretary General Ban Ki Moon, in a statement termed the global mobilization behind the formation of the MDGs as having birthed the most vibrant anti-poverty movement in history¹¹⁷. The euphoria that was generally present in the global humanitarian scene at the times presented these goals as a ‘savior’ of sorts, placing undue pressure on countries to achieve unified results. Overall, significant progress was made on achieving these results, though uneven and far reaching as the most in need were still left behind. Issues of gender inequality, climate change and degradation, access to basic services further exacerbated the already existing gaps between the have and the have nots. One of the key take aways from this was the requirement to have a more targeted unit of measure, with strategic areas of convergence that countries can work towards. This was envisioned to further cascade the goals to make sure that the indicators include the ones who were at the ‘bottom of the food chain’. The good news from this was that the momentum had been built with strong evidence that global action works to push through transformative agendas.

¹¹⁶ United Nations General Assembly 2000 Resolution A/RES/55/2

¹¹⁷ United Nations 2015 Millenium Development Goals Report

This new era received a lot of public interest and more so media attention due to the grand road map of redemption for developing countries. The correlation of media and aid, and specifically humanitarian aid is a new area of growing interest. Einarsdóttir and Gunnlaugsson, the two main scholars of this school of thought note that attention from the media can influence how donors allocate aid especially in conflict and crisis affected countries. Further, Olsen, Carstensen and Høyen introduce the CNN-effect when discussing this linkage between the two variables and they note that in relation to international emergency assistance, mass media coverage of a humanitarian crisis increases the likelihood of increased emergency funding and thereby meeting humanitarian needs.¹¹⁸ In retrospect, the cost benefit analysis to this would conclude that this may work in favor of the recipient governments as the emergence of conflict comes with it a breakdown in services and underscores the inability to engage in fundraising and negotiations at the global sphere.

At the advent of the MDGS, Somalia was recording high numbers of people living in extreme poverty. (66 per cent of the total population). Even though there was the government led and internationally backed Somali Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), it was very clear that the country was not going to achieve these goals. The looming food crisis and protracted drought resulted in the worst famine experienced in 2011, killing approximately 250,000 Somalis (50 per cent children) and leaving an even larger population in dire need of assistance.

¹¹⁸ Olsen, G. R., Carstensen, N., & Høyen, K. (2003). Humanitarian Crises: What Determines the Level of Emergency Assistance? Media Coverage, Donor Interests and the Aid Business. *Disasters*, pg. 109-126

According to UNICEF, Somalia made limited progress in MDG 1-3 (eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, achieve universal primary education and promote gender equality and empower women), with a 25 per cent drop in humanitarian needs in 2015 as compared to 2009 and an a gross enrolment of 31 per cent for school children (22 per cent girls and 34 per cent boys.) MDG 4 (Reduce child mortality) performed dismally as 200 children per 1,000 live births were reported to die before their fifth birthday, exceeding the estimate on 135 in 2006. This was attributed to high levels of malnutrition, lack of access to preventive vaccines and disease outbreaks.¹¹⁹ Further, as of 2006, only 29 per cent of the total population had access to clean water with another meagre 39 per cent having access to sanitation facilities.¹²⁰

3.6 Human Development Index progress in Somalia

Despite the challenges that came with the context in Somalia of insecurity and in accessibility, humanitarian aid assistance through various organizations managed to reach people in need. In 2014, a massive polio campaign was initiated, reaching over 4 million people. The food security cluster reports reaching nearly 1.4 million people with investments to boost livelihoods, with more than 350,000 children treated for malnutrition. Similarly, an estimated 380,000 people gained access to temporary water sources, with more that 500,000 gaining access to safe and sustainable water. Emergency assistance packages and transitional shelters were provided to over 200,000 people cumulatively, with over 20,000 children in displaced settlement supported with education materials and re

¹¹⁹ UNDP 2006 Millenium Development Goals Report

¹²⁰ UNICEF ESARO 2010 Country Office Annual Report (COAR)

integration into the system of learning.¹²¹

The trend was on an upward incline, as more results were recorded with consistent and increased humanitarian funding. In 2015, the Somali CHF through various humanitarian organizations directed approximately USD 31 million for emergency assistance. The results were more than 100,000 children under five and women of childbearing age received routine preventive vaccination. A further 1000 health facilities were supported and trained on management of common illnesses. A total of 500,000 people received access to clean and safe drinking water with approximately 90,000 receiving access to sanitation services. In addition, more than 35,000 children were enrolled in school, over 150,000 children aged 6-59 months were admitted to programmes for treatment and more than 250,000 people gained access to food and livelihoods improvement.¹²²

In 2016, over 23 per cent of the target beneficiaries of about 2.8 million had been provided with humanitarian assistance. Prevalence of malnutrition was reduced to 12 from 14 percent. Further, sustained humanitarian assistance and the good rainfall that year lowered the number of people in need significantly. Similar results were recorded between 2017 and 2021. With increased humanitarian funding to the country, they were able to record results of improved human index levels.

UNICEF Consolidated Emergency Report (CER) for 2022 noted remarkable results achieved in different appeal sectors as a direct result of the emergency funding received

¹²¹ UNOCHA 2014 Somalia Humanitarian Funding Annual Report

¹²² UNOCHA 2015 Somalia Common Humanitarian Fund (CHF) Annual Report

from various donors. In summary, over two million individuals had access to clean water via water trucking and drilling of boreholes, over one million individuals received lifesaving health care services, re integration services for over 1,000 children formerly associated with armed groups and more than 100,000 people benefitting from Gender Based Violence (GBV) response. This, in principle, underscores the fact that the impact of aid is being felt across the country's vulnerable population.¹²³

It is not surprising to note that Somalia has been ranked as one of the least developed countries in the world. One of the challenges surrounding this is the lack of readily available data that can be internationally comparable. A UNDP fact sheet produced in 2012 recorded that the country scored a measly 0.285 out of 1.0 in terms of education, income, health and general development. In this case, had there been reliable qualitative data, Somalia would have been ranked 165 out of 171 countries globally in the Human Development Index Report 2010.¹²⁴ Whereas the results of the sampling showed gross under performance across key sector indicators, the evidence also suggested that there were great improvements for example in the life expectancy that moved to 50 years in 2012 as compared to 47 years in 2001 occasioned by an increase of humanitarian assistance per capita. Fast forward to 2021, Somalia is continuing to position itself to be able to integrate data to be incorporated into these global reports. Its progress towards achieving the Sustainable development goals is commendable, as this shows that the immediate humanitarian needs are being addressed with the support of donor funding, and the move towards sustainable development has begun, though slow, the process of re building,

¹²³ UNICEF Somalia Consolidated Emergency Report 2022

¹²⁴ UNDP 2012 Somalia Human Development Report Fact Sheet; Empowering Youth for Peace and Development

recovery and resilience has been a steady incline in the recent years.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter sought to examine the trends in humanitarian financing in Somalia as a critical precursor to meeting urgent humanitarian needs. It provided an analysis of the degenerated humanitarian situation in the country and the steps that have been initiated and taken towards recovery. With the understanding that perpetuated conflict and other harsh environmental challenges coupled with the lack of institutions for governance, structure and oversight, does not provide an enabling environment for development, this chapter also provided insights on the varied concerted efforts from different stakeholders that have contributed to achieving results. Similarly, the evidence of increased humanitarian aid being the wind beneath the country's wings to recovery was presented. Thus, the line of continuum can be drawn, and the linkages between the impact of humanitarian aid on human development can be made.

CHAPTER FOUR: KEY CHALLENGES IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HUMANITARIAN AID IN THE CONTEXT OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

This research aims to analyze the impact of humanitarian aid on human development in post-war recovery. The current chapter looks at the notable prospects of humanitarian aid in the context of human development. It entails a discussion on the areas that scholars and relevant practitioners have highlighted as viable pursuits in providing aid. The chapter also analyzes relevant challenges associated with the distribution of aid.

4.1 Key Challenges

4.1.1 Politicization of Aid

The concept of sovereignty was very prevalent during the cold war era where countries considered power blocs had colonial rule over their territories. With this came the unspoken characteristic of noninterference of a state's internal affairs. This only had implications on physical interference but did not consider socio economic, military and political aid that was primarily deemed as assistance.¹²⁵ As this war came to a close, the concept of having superpower states gradually diminished and interest began shifting towards conditional influence on underdeveloped countries. The donor environment similarly began looking at aid assistance as a means of promoting security and development. In 1992, Boutros-Boutros Ghali wrote a report tagged 'Agenda for peace' stating that conflict resolution can only be achieved if the socio cultural, economic and political situation in these countries can be

¹²⁵ Macrae, J. & Leader, N. (2000). Shifting sands: The search for 'coherence' between political and humanitarian responses to complex emergencies. HPG Report: ODI

addressed by both development and humanitarian actors.¹²⁶ As a result of the September 9/11 attacks on the twin towers in America, the fear of terrorism became a new phenomenon of politicization of aid targeted at war prone countries, thereby bringing in the notion of moral responsibility of aid actors to help in addressing the root causes of conflict and support political change. In summary, the politics after this attack influenced where resources are spent, the partners of choice to work with and why as well as a critical justification to the citizens of the donor countries.¹²⁷ The donor environment is characterized by two opposite factions; the taxpayer from the countries of aid origin to whom the government must account for the money taken from them, and the recipient countries who have the onus to report on results achieved using these funds. The delicate balancing dance emerges where both parties are seen to navigate their own interest without one being at the expense of the other. This justification has resulted in the emergence of conditional aid. For instance, conditional aid is used to pursue economic interests,¹²⁸ where the recipients are expected to reciprocate through policy and agreements that align with the foreign interest pursuits of the donors.

The politicization of aid has serious implications for development. Aid assistance tied to political motivations is primarily aimed at meeting the donor's needs.¹²⁹ As part of their efforts to sustain aid flow, the receiving policymakers submit to the donors' conditions thus

¹²⁶ Ditto

¹²⁷ Norton, A. (2011). How the 9/11 decade changed the aid, security and development landscape. HPG Report: ODI

¹²⁸ Lewis, M. (2011). *Whose aid is it Anyway?: Politicizing Aid in Conflicts and Crises* (Vol. 145). Oxfam.

¹²⁹ Mitchell, J. D. F. (2016). *NGO insecurity in high-risk conflict zones: The politicization of aid and its impact on humanitarian space*. "Kansas State University.

exposing the country to risks including not meeting immediate lifesaving needs and certainly having no sustainable long term development goals.

During the Sudanese Civil War, numerous entities came in to help civilians deal with basic need shortages. United Nations, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), and NGOs such as Oxfam and Doctors Without Borders played an active role in alleviating civilian suffering. Some blocs involved in the conflict accused these organizations of funding their rivals. Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) provided politicized aid in areas that it deemed friendly to its course.¹³⁰ SPLM and the nations that channelled aid with the expectation of political support from the beneficiaries. Politicization of aid results in aid ineffectiveness. This has been a long-standing conversation over time that culminated in the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness in 2005, whose signatories committed to “far-reaching and monitorable actions to reform the ways we deliver and manage aid”¹³¹. Politicization of humanitarian aid has massive implication on the principles of humanity, impartiality and neutrality. One of the factors that has become greatly determining in the aid sector is the increasing influence of political interest on the where and how of aid delivery. As the number of emergencies have grown, so has the response from the global community. The protracted crisis in the Horn of Africa and massive media engagement on the same has had a direct impact on the amount of humanitarian aid that has been channeled to the regions.¹³²

¹³⁰ Pinaud, C. (2015). “We are trained to be married!” Elite formation and ideology in the “girls’ battalion” of the Sudan People's Liberation Army. *Journal of Eastern African Studies*, 9(3), 375-393.

¹³¹ R.Bissio The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness pg 234-244

¹³² FAO (2010). Countries in protracted crisis: what are they and why do they deserve special attention? FAO

The fact that most aid recipients are fully dependent on donor good will that partly has some degree of self-seeking interest, politicization of aid on humanitarian development in crisis affected countries is proven.

4.1.2 Aid Diversion and Corruption

Corruption has continued to be a major challenge in the aid environment as it undermines the core purpose of humanitarian action.¹³³ This long-standing issue has been engraved in a lot of unstable conflict-ridden aid receiving countries as lack of both political structure and physical infrastructure provides an enabling environment for diversion to occur. Aid diversion is often associated with clan dynamics, land ownership issues, camp management issues, setting up of internally displaced people camps etcetera. The complexity of these factors further engrains diversion of both relief supplies and thereby leading to an inequitable distribution of resources. The collapsing nature of war and conflict does not encourage accountability mechanisms to thrive both because in these circumstances the systems are either non-existent or dysfunctional.¹³⁴ This opens avenues for aid management practices divergent from the ultimate goals set by the donors and organizations in charge. Embezzlement of cash has been a common form of corruption where individuals and governments siphon resources and direct them to personal use. Compromising of procurement processes has also been another common form of diversion where aid

¹³³ Caverzasio, S.G. (2001) *Strengthening Protection in War: A Search for Professional Standards: Summary of Discussions among Human Rights and Humanitarian Organizations*, International Committee of the Red Cross, Geneva.

¹³⁴ Ewins, P., Harvey, P., Savage, K., & Jacobs, A. (2006). *Mapping the risks of corruption in humanitarian action*. Overseas Development Institute.

enforcement officers collect bribes and other unlawful handouts for provision of goods and services, thus conceding quality.¹³⁵

In 2009, media outlets reported that a leaked UN Report claimed that up to a half of relief food aid was not finding its way to the beneficiary thus losing almost half a million dollars' worth of commodities to the black market. This, they purported was majorly with the help of local armed groups, corrupt web of partners, contractors and implication some of the UN personnel. The context in Somalia is extreme as the country deals with large areas of lawlessness and an economic structure that is driven by local power structures and the perpetuated state of conflict. The definition of what is permissible and illegal in such scenarios totally differs from what is universally agreed as so, as what is termed corruption could be usual business in the state. The noble intentions of donors and other humanitarian agencies are not immune to the fact that business is done by the virtue of kickbacks and influence wielded by powerful groups and individuals¹³⁶.

Two respondents of the interview administered to collect data within the Mogadishu zonal area reported that a lot of times they buy cereals and grains from the market that are clearly coming out of sacks labelled 'relief food not for sale'. One respondent further added that they dared not enquire from the shop owners' reasons why they had access to such commodities for fear of victimization. Another respondent said that they have witnessed cases where individuals who were interested in pursuing this were banished from the

¹³⁵ Willitts-King, B., & Harvey, P. (2005). Managing the risks of corruption in humanitarian relief operations. *A study for the UK Department for International Development. Overseas Development Institute: Humanitarian Policy Group. Retrieved August 11, 2007.*

¹³⁶ S.Bailey <https://odi.org/en/insights/somalia-food-aid-diversion/>

community and or experienced retaliatory attacks from traders often working with influential people of vested interests.¹³⁷

Corruption in aid management can also be in the form of inflation of costs. Since auditing operations of organizations in conflict areas are complicated, officials take advantage of the lack of oversight and accountability to overprice or fraudulently invoice goods and services.¹³⁸ The actions create a path for diverting funds to themselves and colluding with suppliers. The officials may also create a list of fake beneficiaries and allow people to receive more than they should. Nepotism is also a major problem in aid management. Resources are diverted to associates, friends, or relatives of those involved in the aid distribution process.

The short-term impact of aid diversion and corruption is that the practices deny deserving individuals access to resources that would have changed their lives. This impact exacerbates the crisis and results in prolonged human suffering. One of the notable long-term impacts is loss of trust. In some instances, the donors completely withdraw. In September 2023, a UN investigation discovered widespread theft and misuse of aid donated to avert famine in Somalia and thereby leading to a suspension on funding from the European Union (EU) to the leading agency WFP. The Chief of WFP in a statement posted on social media regretted that they were forced to suspend lifesaving aid for more than two million people in need.¹³⁹ In other scenarios, they set up more reliable but costlier channels to ensure the aid is delivered to the targeted individuals. Malnutrition is a condition that is

¹³⁷ Anonymous interviewees on commodity diversion

¹³⁸ Ewins, P., Harvey, P., Savage, K., & Jacobs, A. (2006). *Mapping the risks of corruption in humanitarian action*. Overseas Development Institute.

¹³⁹ C. McCain 2023 Tweet on impact of EU suspended funding

widespread in Somalia with very high levels of wasting. As part of immediate response, many donors channel resources towards Nutrition interventions providing Oral Therapeutic Programs to these children usually in the form of RUTF. These commodities are expensive to purchase and therefore donors employ strict scrutiny to ensure that they are used properly and for the treated of children with malnutrition. Nonetheless, leakages into commercial markets have not been averted. One interviewee reported that RUTF is readily available in markets and due to its high sugar and cocoa content, it is sold as a snack to humans and pig farmers to fatten their herd.¹⁴⁰ To counter these many institutions result to measures like having these sachets of Ready to use therapeutic food (RUTF) given to children who physically come to the health facilities. This commute is costly and time consuming and often discourages mothers from seeking this life saving treatment. The result is always a steep increase in infant mortality rates. This then counteracts the very reason that humanitarian aid is administered to a country.

4.1.3 Insecurity, Terror and Insurgents

Humanitarian workers are in the selfless business of putting themselves at risk of physical harm to deliver critical services to those most in need. Even though humanitarian organisations have continually ensured to make safety and security of their workers of utmost priority, there are many instances where attacks have permeated these security measures. In 2009 there were two large scale attacks against AMISOM were carried out by Al Shabaab, a Somali jihadist organization that resulted in more than 30 people losing their lives. Similarly, in 2013, the same jihadist organization attacked a UN compound in

¹⁴⁰ Anonymous interviewee on RUTF access and usage

Mogadishu using suicide bombers leaving a trail of killing and massive injuries. This is not an isolated case as many more attacks have been launched on humanitarian workers across the country.¹⁴¹ An aid worker interviewed for the purpose of this research reported that the attack came after a series of failed attempts by insurgents who tried to access the compound. He further stated that there was a lot of grapevine alluding to the possibility of an attack but nothing had been substantiated until after the fact.¹⁴²

Continued efforts have been made to ensure humanitarian efforts stand out from conflict in volatile areas.¹⁴³ Numerous laws have been set at the international level to ensure that all people involved in armed conflicts do not interfere with aid efforts. Local concessions are also made between the international community and warring factions to facilitate the movement of resources and aid personnel in conflict areas. However, the threat from combat and targeted attacks still limits the activities of aid workers.

Apart from limiting aid distribution channels, insecurity also interferes with data collection and engagement with the beneficiaries. For aid to have any impact, there must be an abundance of reliable and consistent data to inform programming. It is only when interventions are evidence based in terms of being back by baseline surveys, deprivation indexes and reports emanating from these assessments that impact will be both qualitative and quantitative. As it stands in Somalia today, most humanitarian agencies rely on third party monitors usually consisting of locals to venture into the field to conduct a lot of the activities due to the restrictions on movement. Critical interaction between aid workers and

¹⁴¹ UN News 2023 UN officials voice outrage at deadly attack on world body's compound in Somali Capital

¹⁴² Anonymous interviewee on insecurity in the work place

¹⁴³ Steets, J., Sagmeister, E., & Ruppert, L. (2016). Eyes and Ears on the Ground: Monitoring aid in insecure environments. *Global Public Policy Institute*.

the target beneficiaries is therefore very flimsy where existent. According to a response given by an international volunteer stationed in Somaliland, the agency he works for has a strict 6am-6pm rule on field travel. Similarly, they are not allowed to move into the host communities, IDP camps and other areas of clustered residence for fear of attacks. Twice he further added, they encountered threats as they were out in a security allowed zone and that has greatly reduced his willingness to go to the field for programmatic work.¹⁴⁴ It also creates fear among specialists whose input could have been beneficial in curating the aid to align with the development goals of the communities. Insecurity also drives the cost of labor and equipment deployed to conflict areas. In March 2021, the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) reported that aid workers were involved in 56 insecurity incidents across Somalia in 2020. Twelve individuals had lost their lives, while 38 were arrested by law enforcers or kidnapped by factions involved in various conflicts.¹⁴⁵ These incidents increase the turnover of aid workers and complicate the hiring process. Aid organizations have to offer high salaries and bonuses to attract individuals to take on volatile responsibilities. They must contend with longer routes and means of transport that mitigate the danger that conflict poses to their personnel, equipment, and the commodities offered to the beneficiaries. Out of a group of 17 aid workers who were engaged in the data collection for this research, 12 reported that they were involved in security incidents with 5 having experienced perhaps what is deemed the worst form of it which is detention by anti-government groups.

¹⁴⁴ Anonymous aid worker interviewee Somaliland

¹⁴⁵ UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs. (2021). *Somalia Humanitarian Bulletin, October 2020*.

Insecurity is invasive of people's ability to focus on recovery and development. This is perhaps one of the reasons why many African countries have remained in a perpetual state of underdevelopment due to the continuous loop of conflict.¹⁴⁶ Efforts to recover from one war are hindered by more tension and violence. Some societies that have faced constant conflict are Somalia and Sudan, where wars started by different factions have overlapped over the years. Therefore, humanitarian aid for the affected areas can only be used for survival. People are unsure if any input towards human development and post-war recovery can produce sustained results. The recurrent incidents of insecurity often undo any gains made in the past. This creates fear and reluctance among donors, aid workers, and beneficiaries to invest in medium- or long-term endeavours.

4.1.4 Poor Infrastructure

War, in its very nature causes a breakdown in infrastructure. The structural exclusion of citizens from resources, services and opportunities for their own human development reinforces social divisions, marginalization and further plummet into a perpetual state of conflict. The capacity of governments thus to provide basic services both routine and lifesaving to its citizens in need is largely dependent on a healthy infrastructure system that is all reaching and all inclusive. Building and sustaining infrastructure entails a rigorous process composed of recurrent and fixed expenditures that is usually lacking in conflict ridden countries. Transport and communication are the major industries that need well-maintained facilities and systems to remain operational.¹⁴⁷ Other sectors that heavily rely

¹⁴⁶ Steets, J., Sagmeister, E., & Ruppert, L. (2016). Eyes and Ears on the Ground: Monitoring aid in insecure environments. *Global Public Policy Institute*.

¹⁴⁷ Vijil, M., & Wagner, L. (2012). Does aid for trade enhance export performance? Investigating the infrastructure channel. *The World Economy*, 35(7), 838-868.

on infrastructure include education, healthcare, water supply, food production, sanitation, and energy.

Conflict complicates the process of planning for infrastructure maintenance and expansion as it interrupts tax collection systems and undermines a country's ability to borrow. Nations that have experienced decades-long wars struggle with even the basic aspects of infrastructural development, such as maintaining dry-weather roads.¹⁴⁸ Investment in transport infrastructure is widely recognized as being crucial to the promotion of economic growth and industrialization to promote recovery and reconstruction in fragile states.

Accessibility to beneficiaries is crucial in implementing humanitarian programmes. Where this is lacking, response initiatives cannot be actualized therefore creating the ripple effect of rising deprivation due to unmet needs. Where donors are willing to go over the inhibition of poor infrastructure to reach the last mile, the cost of doing business almost triples.¹⁴⁹

Liberia experienced decades of war in country because of the exclusion of a large group of the population from socio political and economic resources as well as chronic mismanagement of natural resources leading to a complete breakdown of the economy. After the brokering of their peace deal in 2003, and the subsequent inauguration of President Sirleaf-Johnson in 2006, the country started moving into investment in infrastructure to support recovery and rebuilding. The country had to start afresh to construct a road network to ensure that all the areas that could be cut off during the heavy

¹⁴⁸ Donaubauer, J., Meyer, B., & Nunnenkamp, P. (2016). Aid, infrastructure, and FDI: Assessing the transmission channel with a new infrastructure index. *World Development*, 78, 230-245.

¹⁴⁹ Vijil, M., & Wagner, L. (2012). Does aid for trade enhance export performance? Investigating the infrastructure channel. *The World Economy*, 35(7), 838-868.

rainy periods would now be able to access humanitarian services.¹⁵⁰ The situation in Somalia is no different. The result of the long-standing war is the reason why 90 per cent of the road network in the country is poor. Mechanisms for ensuring food security, education in the form of physical schools with good water and sanitation facilities, health facilities that are well equipped to serve the populations are almost non-existent. To counter this, five Federal Ministries in Somalia came up with the Somali National Infrastructure Strategy for 2019-2023. Under the guidance of the SDGs, this strategy's objective is to revitalize, operate and maintain essential infrastructure and services to improve stability and set foundations for social, economic and sustainable development.¹⁵¹ In an interview conducted amongst women who were attending an antenatal clinic session in an IDP camp, two women reported that they had experienced miscarriages of their previous pregnancies because they were not able to get to a health facility for medical assistance. Another further added that she had lost a 7-month-old baby due to health challenges mostly related to lack of vaccination. The common factor in these unfortunate incidences was the lack of a safe and affordable means of transportation to the nearest health centre.¹⁵²

4.1.5 Tied Aid

The concept of conditional aid has been a recurrent issue in the donor environment over time. Tied aid is aimed at ensuring that the donors and recipients maintain bilateral relations that are aligned with pre-set conditions. It limits the choices available to aid workers and the beneficiaries. Issues such as cost-effectiveness and suitability of the goods and services

¹⁵⁰ Giovine, L, Krech, R, Ionkova, K & Bach, K 2011, Holding on to Monrovia: Protecting a Fragile Peace through Economic Governance and Short-Term Employment

¹⁵¹ Inter-ministerial Public Works Coordination Mechanism 2018 Somali National Infrastructure Strategy (SNIS)

¹⁵² Anonymous women attending an antenatal clinic session at an IDP camp

are often overlooked as the recipients pursue models to appease the donors.¹⁵³ Post-war recovery should be guided by the needs and perceptions of the individuals who are in the affected areas. The data should be compiled and utilized in the decision-making. Under tied aid, the evidence-based approach to human development in post-war recovery is discarded. Evidence is foundational in comparing capacity and willingness with development trajectories.¹⁵⁴ When the function is undermined, the post-war recovery process is characterized by unsustainable activities aimed at fulfilling the donors' demands thus slowing down the wheels of reconstruction.

Bilateral donors often tied their aid to debt. Bräutigam (2010) examined aid architecture in Africa and found that nations trying to pull out of war were receiving aid tied to debt.¹⁵⁵ Her findings showed that Chad, Burkina Faso, and The Gambia are some countries that made commitments that saw them get aid tied to debt from China. France also provided such aid to Mali, Senegal, Niger, and Gabon.¹⁵⁶ Assistance tied to debt makes leaders overlook the impact of borrowing on the recovering economies. In the case of Niger, tied aid has been used by France and its Western allies to maintain a grip on the country's monetary system and mineral resources. The scenario extends to many French ex-colonies that still utilize the CFA Franc.¹⁵⁷ Consequently, they make their followers subservient to

¹⁵³ Barratt, B. (2019). Aiding or abetting: British foreign aid decisions and recipient country human rights. In *Understanding Human Rights Violations* (pp. 43-62). Routledge.

¹⁵⁴ Román, M. V., Arto, I., Ansuategi, A., & Galarraga, I. (2020). The economic implications of tied aid and local content requirements for climate finance. *Climate Change Economics*, 11(01), 2050002.

¹⁵⁵ Brautigam, D. (2010). China, Africa, and the international aid architecture. *African Development Bank Group Working Paper*, 107.

¹⁵⁶ Siradağ, A. (2014). Understanding French foreign and security policy towards Africa: pragmatism or Altruism. *Afro Eurasian Studies*, 3(1), 100-122.

¹⁵⁷ Taylor, I. (2019). France à fric: the CFA zone in Africa and neocolonialism. *Third World Quarterly*, 40(6), 1064-1088.

the donors. The loss of discretion means that the affected populations cannot actively pursue their recovery.

Somalia has continued to be a donor favorite country by virtue of the amount of humanitarian funding that has been received in the last decade. However, the phenomenon of having donor driven projects is not peculiar. Conventionally, funding has been given and grouped into core thematic areas usually encompassing the life cycle of an individual, so Health, Nutrition, Education, WASH, Livelihoods improvement, Agriculture among others, but still to some extent there have been cases where aid funding is channeled and implemented under the close watch of donors to ensure a specific way of implementing. One of the core reasons why the country has been mis giving in humanitarian development indices is because of lack of evidence-based programming. The results-based framework of doing business whereas beneficial to some extent is not immune to these conditionalities. In these types of circumstances then aid implementation does not achieve results beyond surface level.

This research engaged several household beneficiaries in questions based on set of fixed indicators to establish how quantifiable their personal development has been with the understanding that they have been residing in areas that have fallen along the continuum of aid target locations. According to the results from the research interviews conducted on households (n=64), close to half (44 per cent) of the households drew their livelihoods from casual labor, 13 per cent relied on farming, 10 per cent on pastoral activities and eight per cent on agro-pastoralism. The levels of saving were very low with about three percent reported to have adopted new income generating activities in the last three years. Overall, only two per cent of the households interviewed had a member who had saved money

within a six months' with over 60 per cent reporting that they have borrowed money to buy food and other household supplies that month. Agricultural production was also very low as only 10 per cent of the surveyed households cultivated crops. Further, the survey pre-selected coping strategies and asked beneficiaries to how they would cope in the event of having insufficient money for food, health for a period of 60 consecutive days and overall, the results showed that beneficiary and comparison groups were likely to adopt similar livelihood coping strategies. Among beneficiary households, those in the Education & WASH intervention adopted the most severe coping strategies (averaging 18.7), followed by those in Education & Nutrition intervention (12.1) and lastly Nutrition only beneficiaries who displayed an average of 11.4. This underscored the need to support households to avoid severe coping strategies. It was apparent that marginalized groups suffer most in times of crisis, mothers would feed their children and households first before themselves, thus compromising the quality of breast milk among breastfeeding mothers and consequently causing malnutrition among children. If such coping strategies are not checked, they have the potential to negate gains made by aid funding and other humanitarian programs being implemented. Overall, the results indicated a concentration of households slightly below the average resilience (based on a scale of 0 to 100, where 0 and 100 are the least and most resilient households respectively). Among the beneficiary households (n=48), analysis showed that households in the Education & WASH intervention arm had a score of 50.47, Nutrition had 49.82 and Education & Nutrition stood at 49. When the respondents were asked about the ability of their household to respond to a severe drought and floods if they were affected in the immediate term (tomorrow, for example), only five per cent of the households agreed that their households would be well prepared in advance; six per cent

affirmed that their household could recover fully within six months; and 12 per cent were optimistic that their household would still find a way to navigate severe droughts and floods. This indicates lower than ideal capacity to bounce back from a shock. It is imperative thereby for more programs to be funded that support community and household resilience to shocks through various community led initiatives, such as natural resource management committees, disaster risk reduction committees, among others, which help guarantee community leadership in disaster management. As part of evidence generation agenda, knowledge attitude practices (KAP) survey was conducted to assess the adoption level and practices of the Social Behavior Change Communication messages related to health, nutrition, wash and education in Gedo region. More than half of the respondents acknowledged having received SBC messaging via phone and radio. Another 30 per cent reported that based on this messaging their lives have been impacted positively; they were made aware of routine immunization services being offered at static clinics near them as well as other important tips on proper sanitation etc.

These results all point to the need for humanitarian aid funding leaning towards coordinating and advocating for emergency cash assistance to its target beneficiaries for example to boost immediate access to food, improved access to water to expand the capacity available for economic engagement. This will kick start the effort to address in part promotion of livelihood diversification to reduce the negative coping strategies.

Conditional aid that is donor driven rarely relies on evidence and data and ends up being more cosmetic than impactful.

4.2 Chapter Summary

Notable impediments to ensuring that aid is effective in fostering human development are politicization, diversion, corruption, insecurity, infrastructural challenges, and donor conditions. These problems result in the deviation of resources from the recipients' needs. It is imperative for core players in the donor environment to address the challenges instead of things being business as usual. Viable prospects for making aid effective include localization of humanitarian action, alignment with goals set by the authorities, provision of untied aid, capacity building, and inclusivity. Focus on these areas will ensure an evidence-based approach to elevating the capacity of communities affected by conflict to grow towards self-sustenance.

CHAPTER FIVE: RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is a summation of this research that sought to understand the dynamic of humanitarian aid and its correlation to sustained human development. In this final chapter of the study, recommendations will be made to effectively deal with the challenges outlined in the previous chapter as well as to inform future engagements in the aid environment.

5.2 Key Recommendations on Humanitarian Aid for post war recovery

5.2.1 Localization of Humanitarian Aid Action and Capacity Building

Localization of humanitarian action is increasingly being fronted as an area of concern in aid implementation as it recognizes the value of local expertise and cultural understanding in providing appropriate aid. This empowering of local in country responders to lead and deliver humanitarian aid goes hand in hand with strengthening local resource capacity to respond to crisis for long term sustainable development. The idea here is to improve significance, efficiency and influence of humanitarian interventions. For aid to be effective, the locals must be at the centre of the response. The fact that these local actors were present before crisis, will be present during and after response makes them invaluable in the continuum of aid implementation.¹⁵⁸

Localization of aid requires proper needs assessment to identify the areas that require prioritization. Open communication channels should exist between the beneficiaries, aid workers, donors, and other professionals fostering post-war human development. As

¹⁵⁸ Roepstorff, K. (2020). A call for critical reflection on the localization agenda in humanitarian action. *Third World Quarterly*, 41(2), 284-301.

engagement with local communities is a continuous process, aid organizations cannot escape liaison with authorities and civil society to identify priority areas.¹⁵⁹ These stakeholders have the duty to provide data on viable areas of human development like healthcare, income, education, and food security as well as spearheading needs-based assessments with fully disaggregated data for suitable implementation.

The need for capacity building extends beyond convincing donors to prioritize unconditional aid. Many forms of assistance have failed to bear the expected outcomes because the recipient nations lack institutions, agencies, and laws to support post-war recovery. Mkdisi et al. (2023) looked at efforts by North African nations to recover from the Arab Spring to analyze the link between local capacity and the ability of a state to use aid to promote human development during post-war recovery.¹⁶⁰ The findings showed that Africa has yet to fully exploit its capacity-building potential because stable countries do not provide the required assistance to help channel foreign aid towards human development.¹⁶¹ Englebert and Tull (2008) contextualized the problem using information from various sub-Saharan nations. They noted that the cases of nations that have handled returnee refugees have been hostile to attempts by their stable neighbors to offer human resources towards fostering development in the recovery journey.¹⁶² He cited scenarios where countries like the DRC, Burundi, Somalia, Sudan, and Liberia have struggled due to mistrust with their stable neighbors. These nations only accept monetary aid or resources

¹⁵⁹ Barakat, S., & Milton, S. (2020). Localization across the humanitarian-development-peace nexus. *Journal of Peacebuilding & Development*, 15(2), 147-163.

¹⁶⁰ Makdisi, S. A., & Soto, R. (Eds.). (2023). *The Aftermath of the Arab Uprisings*. Routledge.

¹⁶¹ Stites, E., Humphrey, A., & Krystalli, R. (2021). Social connections and displacement from South Sudan to Uganda: towards a relational understanding of survival during conflict. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 34(3), 2720-2739.

that do not include foreign personnel from their immediate neighbors.¹⁶³ The lack of collaboration has undermined capacity building towards post-war recovery on the African continent. Autesserre (2014) corroborated the idea that local partnerships and trust have immense potential in capacity building since neighboring nations have professionals who understand viable pathways to efficient recovery.¹⁶⁴ Therefore, African nations can set up reliable systems to ensure that aid is channeled towards the most potent paths of post-war recovery. It is therefore imperative for the donor countries to place value on local capacity building for faster humanitarian development results.

5.2.2 Alignment with National Development Blueprints

The sustainability of aid is limited to short- and medium-term periods. Effective assistance programs possess the capacity to set off self-sustaining socioeconomic and political systems. The best way of achieving this outcome is to ensure that human development during the post-war recovery period is aligned with the development strategies of local and national authorities. In such scenarios, policymakers can take deliberate actions to build on the gains made by the aid organization even after the latter's exit or reduction of its scale of operations.

One nation that has experienced impeccable post-war recovery on the continent is Liberia. The process was set off by the input of various donors who channelled their assistance through US-based aid organizations. In March 2006, a report to the US Congress indicated that there was a need for the aid organizations to start planning for their exit. Among the

¹⁶³ Englebert, P., & Tull, D. M. (2008). Postconflict reconstruction in Africa: Flawed ideas about failed states. *International security*, 32(4), 106-139.

¹⁶⁴ Autesserre, S. (2014). *Peaceland: Conflict resolution and the everyday politics of international intervention*. Cambridge University Press.

key recommendations in the report was that the organizations needed to align their assistance with the development plans of the Liberian government that had started growing stronger after the end of the civil war.¹⁶⁵ Proper coordination between the aid agencies and government authorities meant that the two stakeholders concentrated on the same key issues. Toe (2021) studied Liberia's post-war recovery success using data from the education sector. He observed that international humanitarian interventions advanced toward Liberia in the post-war period were specifically intended to subsidize national recovery and restart economic development.¹⁶⁶ He noted that Western donors succeeded in setting up secondary, technical, and vocational education and training (TVET) institutions under PPP models. Therefore, the aid organizations withdrew and left stable schools and colleges that could run using local resources and expertise.

The UN Developmental Assistance framework is a good initiative that was piloted to respond to humanitarian needs based on the global SDGs and in close reference to country specific national plans. As such, the prevalence of successful interventions is more probable to be higher by the virtue of this alignment to national priorities.

5.2.3 Provision of Untied Aid

It has been said severally before that tied aid is still aid. As such, many countries, especially those in dire humanitarian crisis resort to accepting this tied aid mainly because of a lack of alternatives. In such cases, the upper hand rests on the donor who will then be at liberty to impose their conditionalities with little regard on whether or not it is consistent with

¹⁶⁵ Cook, N., & Library of Congress Washington DC Congressional Research Service. (2006). Liberia's Post-War Recovery: Key Issues and Developments. *Politics and Economics in Africa*, 6, 103-121.

¹⁶⁶ Toe, L. T. (2021). *Assessment of community participation in municipal solid waste management in Monrovia City, Liberia* (Doctoral dissertation, Kampala International University).

meeting the needs of the recipients. Untied aid can only be provided by societies driven by the need to restore human dignity rather than their economic and political interests.¹⁶⁷ African nations can provide untied aid to each other to foster friendship and their people's mutual well-being. They can challenge the notion that only developed and rapidly growing economies can provide aid. When nations with mutual respect assist, the resources are more likely to be disbursed under flexible terms that account for the needs and expectations of the targeted populations.

Heads of states and other leaders on the continent, either directly or through organizations such as the African Union and regional blocs like the Intergovernmental Authority on Development, Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), and the Southern African Development Community (SADC), can encourage donors to minimize the restrictions and conditions placed on aid. Stites (2021) noted that one of the most effective approaches to untying aid is building local expertise. The researchers used the case of individuals displaced from South Sudan to Uganda.¹⁶⁸ The findings showed that the Ugandans used their experiences in post-war recovery in the second half of the 21st century to help the South Sudanese build their capacity to coordinate aid towards recovery. Consequently, many South Sudanese refugees convinced donors that they could aid in handling aid and aligning it with the needs of their communities.

Whereas a lot of humanitarian funding has been availed to countries in post war recovery, there is shared concern that a very small proportion of this funding is actually flexible.

¹⁶⁷ Barratt, B. (2019). Aiding or abetting: British foreign aid decisions and recipient country human rights. In *Understanding Human Rights Violations* (pp. 43-62). Routledge.

¹⁶⁸ Stites, E., Humphrey, A., & Krystalli, R. (2021). Social connections and displacement from South Sudan to Uganda: towards a relational understanding of survival during conflict. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 34(3), 2720-2739.

Whereas having earmarked funds for specific interventions is not necessarily negative, it is important for donors to understand the dynamic nature of aid recipients and specifically those in active humanitarian crisis and those in post war recovery. As the erratic nature of these environments are ever evolving, the immediate needs may change abruptly, and the luxury of time to request for permission to reprogram might not be there. The challenge therefore rests on donor communities to adopt flexibility in terms of aid use and reporting to fit the specific contexts in which they work in.

5.2.4 Inclusivity

One of the quickest ways to increasing the effectiveness of aid is by employing the principles of inclusivity and equity. The likelihood of creating sustainable economic growth, strengthening national development plans and promoting efficient humanitarian assistance is guaranteed when these concepts are taken into consideration. There are several inhibitive factors that have propagated exclusion in African contexts for example gender, ethnicity, and religion. As a result, the marginalization of some sections of the population undermines societal overall wellbeing.

Abdullahi (2023) analyzed the issue of inclusivity regarding aid utilization by using Somalia's higher education system as a case study.¹⁶⁹ The researcher noted bias among donors and aid organizations in the country. The poorest segments of the population remained disenfranchised because the aid is tied to a merit-based system that analyzes the most potent parts of society based on factors such as academic performance. Therefore,

¹⁶⁹ Abdullahi, A. M. (2023). The Challenges of Advancing Inclusive Education: The Case of Somalia's Higher Education. *Journal of Law and Sustainable Development*, 11(2), e422-e422.

areas whose primary and secondary schools have the infrastructure to facilitate good academic performance enjoy most of the aid. Those who have been disadvantaged in the past continue enduring slow development.

Aid can only foster desired growth if it provides opportunities to the entire community.

Lwanga-Ntale et al. (2020) investigated approaches to understanding resilience and vulnerability in Somalia. The researchers noted that there was a gap in information handling. Identifying priority areas follows patterns of tribalism and nepotism where the aid workers favored individuals close to them or their associates. He recommended redistribution as a viable approach to fostering human development in post-war recovery. The onus therefore lies with aid officials to ensure that implementation of aid is all inclusive to increase the chances of better programming results and ultimately faster attainment of human development index scores.

5.2.5 Donor Harmonization

It is widely appreciated that donors do not work in a vacuum. Invariably they undertake operations that require involvement from a partner government and generally work in areas where other donors are also active. Effective working relations, based on mutual trust and respect, are vital. Experience shows that these must be built on explicit, shared objectives, and an institutional framework for co-ordination that reconciles different interests in a constructive way. In 2017, the United Nations Developmental Assistance Framework, a strategic midterm results framework describing the collective vision and response of the UN to national developmental priorities and results based on normative programming principles. It further describes how UN Country teams will contribute towards development

based on a common country analysis and leveraging on the UN's comparative advantage. One of the key criticisms that humanitarian organizations have received over the years is duplication of intervention activities and donor fatigue due to numerous agencies approaching similar countries for funding. This framework was set up to sort out this prevalent mess with the understanding that all agencies were working towards achieving the global SDGs and could work better together rather than in silos. The donor environment has been changing however there are some fundamental thematic areas that remain constant. New emergent areas like climate change and digitalization of humanitarian response for data collection have presented fresh areas of possible funding, however the principles of aid administration remain constant. The overarching programming principle of leaving no one behind and reaching the most in need further supports the reason why donors should sit at a common table and make unified decisions on funding and intervention.

This in turn will synchronize their operational procedures at the highest standard, to reduce transaction costs and make aid delivery more flexible for the recipient countries. The challenges that come with different donor conditionalities starting from unaccustomedness with the diverse donor systems, steep cost in terms of administrative capacity and takes over ownership by the recipients thus weakening their capacity for effective management. Many contradictory practices by donors impose burdens on partners. Whereas it is agreeable that not all countries may have robust systems to support aid implementation, donors should in such cases adopt joint working modalities that encourage joint decision making. These practices for example joint monitoring and high-level meetings almost guarantee sustainability in terms of aid coordination, considering the different donor

interests thereby reducing greatly the administrative burden on the recipient countries. To further support this, agreements should explicitly define the roles and expectations of each donor with the understanding that the benefit of joint action outweighs the cost of individual negotiation. Sector wide approaches to programming should also be adopted, with the sectors that move quickest being water and sanitation, health, and education. Such an approach is believed to reduce transaction costs by a large margin leading to greater predictability of aid flows for fostered human development.

5.2.6 Evidence based and Risk informed aid programming

The constraint of data and lack thereof in developing and conflict-ridden countries has been existent since the evolution of aid. As war contributes to a breakdown of infrastructure that would otherwise support data collection, analysis and storage for future reference, the risk of having programming that is not supported by facts is high. Deprivation indexes and other key numerical data that portrays the true embodiment of the needs base might be lacking and thereby immediately translating to having interventions that are surface level. The usage of personal data occurs throughout the life cycle of a response project and supports augmented situational analysis, conduct of evaluations for a lasted secure delivery of aid assistance. ¹⁷⁰Further to the operational value of data collection, insight into specific characteristics of beneficiaries defines their needs and thereby giving a platform for the best type of interventions. An example of this good practice is the Humanitarian Data Exchange platform of the UNOCHA that has been utilizing data from 2018 to inform the

¹⁷⁰ Gazi, T. 2020 Data to the rescue: how humanitarian aid NGOs should collect information based on the GDPR. Int J Humanitarian Action 5

response to the flooding in Bangladesh.¹⁷¹ In the global context where humanitarian needs are ever increasing while the availability of resources may not be corresponding, it is imperative to boost the use of available data to map out humanitarian action of highest output at reasonable cost. In 2016 the World Humanitarian Summit bore the Grand Bargain framework that highlighted the importance of data or humanitarian work underscoring their commitments to ‘improve joint and impartial needs assessments.’¹⁷²

Managing risk at every level of humanitarian action ladder, both those emanating from the program and those to the program is critical for making progress towards risk informed programming. This entails a multifaceted methodology to handling disaster risks and climate impacts all in a bid to protect human development. Conflict analysis is particularly significant where countries are susceptible to bearing the brunt of natural disasters, and other complex emergencies as it supports responses addressing humanitarian and developmental needs. It provides a platform to engage with donors and other humanitarian development players and can help promote the United Nations as a valued collaborator.¹⁷³

Risk reduction is a crucial tool to achieving sustainable development. Countries with complex humanitarian occurrences both manmade in the form of conflict and others fueled by climate change have underlying liabilities, low capacity and usually lack foresight for long term solutions to dealing with risk. The solution thereby lies in building on what is existent especially in contexts with disposition and scope to manage risk. As risk mitigation and reduction is an ongoing process, stakeholders must be held accountable to regularly develop systems that foster resilience. Donors should equip these national and multi-lateral

¹⁷¹ Telford S (2020) Opinion: In a world awash with data, aid workers contend with gaps.

¹⁷² World Humanitarian Summit 2016

¹⁷³ UNDRR 2020 Scaling Up Disaster Risk Reduction In Humanitarian Action

processes and efforts by consciously building on the present instruments. Carrying out frequent risk analysis and mapping out resilience investments will certainly better inform humanitarian plans and curate sustainable development frameworks. Further this support will ensure that there are up to date risk profiles that all maximize the quality of humanitarian operations. For utmost output, this exercise must be conducted in conjunction with governments and development agencies.

5.2.7 Mutual accountability

Humanitarian aid involves a chain of accountability relationships across the international community, national governments, and implementing agencies to a set of target beneficiaries of the outputs of aid financing. The fact that foreign aid functions better at both macro and micro levels (both aid flows and individual projects) in a system with clear lines of accountability cannot be over emphasized.¹⁷⁴ Despite this, there are still concerns on the failure in the design of humanitarian aid programs that do not foster accountability of donors to governments or beneficiaries. The widely accepted direction for accountability is from the recipients to the donor.

One of the five principles of the Paris Declaration on aid effectiveness of 2005 is mutual accountability. This as was said should be measured by the number of countries that accept to undertake mutual progress assessments in implementing agreed upon commitments on aid effectiveness. At the time of this declaration, the target to have all countries on board with this was the year 2010.¹⁷⁵ The expectation is that a mutual accountability exercise

¹⁷⁴ Winters, Matthew S. "Accountability, Participation and Foreign Aid Effectiveness." *International Studies Review* 12, no. 2 (2010): 218–43

¹⁷⁵ OECD 2005 Paris Declaration on Aid effectiveness

where aid recipient countries would individually be equipped to share experiences on donor performance would be upheld, considering the experience of OECD/DAC in conducting peer appraisals of donor aid practices. The conventional exercise of countries sitting in front of donor panels has implications on imbalance of both resources and power as accountability is single facing (recipient to donor). The possibility of perceived coercion in these cases is high as countries will be driven by the need to maintain a consistent flow of funding.

Accountability therefore cannot go without participation as it basically seeks to recognize beneficiaries as right holders and not just poor recipients of humanitarian assistance. The systematic, consistent engagement of civic participation goes a long way to promote social behavioral change and strengthens community systems.

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