

**Sudan University of science & technology**

**College of Graduate studies**

**Role of women participation in humanitarian assistance  
activities during conflict period, Nyala, south Darfour  
state, Sudan**

**دور مشاركة المرأة في أنشطة المساعدة الإنسانية خلال فترة الحرب مدينة نيالا  
ولاية جنوب دارفور, السودان**

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## الآية

قالى تعالى:

اقْرَأْ بِاسْمِ رَبِّكَ الَّذِي خَلَقَ (1) خَلَقَ الْإِنْسَانَ مِنْ عَلَقٍ (2) اقْرَأْ وَرَبُّكَ الْأَكْرَمُ (3)  
الَّذِي عَلَّمَ بِالْقَلَمِ (4) عَلَّمَ الْإِنْسَانَ مَا لَمْ يَعْلَمْ (5)

سورة العلق 1 - 5

صدق الله العظيم

## **Dedication**

I dedicated this study

To My Great mother

To the soul of my father

To my daughter Fatima

To my sisters and brothers

To all my friends for their co-operation and support

## **Acknowledgement**

At this moment I would like to thank a few whose help made it possible to have this document at this shape it was not easy for me to start and complete writing

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## **Abstract**

The study aimed to examine the role of leader women participating in humanitarian aid during the conflict in Darfur in the camps of Nyala city (Ottash- Drgai - Alsalam - Al-Serif) Camps.

Research used both quantitative and qualitative methods in the process of work, PRA techniques used in the field. e.g meetings, focus group discussions, interviews and random informal meeting to crosscheck some information gathered using questionnaire.

The selection of women depended on Women who live in the camp and member in humanitarian's assistance committees. 100 of the women participating in committees in humanitarian aid were selected.

The results of the study and analysis showed that 66% the age of the respondents were range between 25 -50 years. In addition, presentations of women in committees were present 2 – 3 members.

Based on the results, the study recommended encouraged educated and youngest women to participate in commutes and development activities.

The study also recommended that donors should continue to provide long-term support to achieve sustainability of projects and direct capacity-building programs to upgrade the skills of campers.

## مستخلص البحث

هدفت هذه الدراسة لاختبار دور مشاركة المرأة القيادية في المساعدات الإنسانية خلال فترة الصراع في دارفور في معسكرات مدينة نيالا ( عطاش - رديج - السلام - السريف ) وقد اعتمدت الدراسة في ذلك بأخذ عينة عشوائية في هذه المعسكرات النساء اللائي يمثلن أعضاء لجنة المساعدات الإنسانية و القيادات المحلية داخل المعسكر.

تم اختيار 100 من النساء المشاركات في لجان المساعدات الإنسانية اللتي يسكن في المعسكر, تم استخدام الاستبيان كأداة لجمع المعلومات - المشاركة المجتمعية - الاجتماعات الغير رسمية و الملاحظة

أوضحت نتائج الدراسة والتحليل ان 66% من النساء اللائي شاركن في المساعدات الإنسانية تتراوح أعمارهن بين 25-50 سنة وكذلك عدد النساء في اللجان يمثلن 2 - 5 أعضاء.

بناء على النتائج أوصت الدراسة بضرورة تشجيع النساء المتعلمات والصغيرات في السن المشاركة في هذه اللجان وفي العمليات التنموية بالمعسكر.

كما أوصت الدراسة أيضا بضرورة مواصلة المانحين لتوفير دعم طويل الأمد لتحقيق استدامة المشروعات وتوجيه برامج بناء القدرات لترقية مهارات أهل المعسكرات .

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## Acronyms

|               |  |
|---------------|--|
| <b>OCHA</b>   | Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs          |
| <b>UN</b>     | United Nations   |
| <b>UNDP</b>   | United Nations Development Fund                          |
| <b>UNHCR</b>  | United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees            |
| <b>UNICEF</b> | United Nations Children's Fund                           |
| <b>WFP</b>    | World Food Programme                                     |
| <b>NGOs</b>   | Non-Governmental Organizations                           |
| <b>PRA</b>    | Participatory Rural Appraisal                            |
| <b>IDP</b>    | Internally Displaced People                              |
| <b>INGOs</b>  | International Non-Governmental Organization              |
| <b>RD</b>     | Rural Development  |
| <b>SRD</b>    | Sustainable Rural Development                            |
| <b>SD</b>     | Sustainable Development                                  |
| <b>UNRISD</b> | United Nations Research Institute for Social Development |

# **Chapter One**

## **Introduction**

# Chapter One

## Introduction

### 1.1 Introduction

Participation in social science refer to different mechanisms for public to express opinions and ideally exert influence – regarding political ,economic ,management or other social decisions. Participatory decisions making can take place along any realm of human social activities , including economics ( participatory economics ) political ( participatory democracy )management ( participatory management ),cultural or familial (feminism) for all informed participation to occur , it is argued that some versions of transparency e.g. radical transparency is necessary ,but not sufficient . It has also been argued that those most affected by decision .community participation has long been recognized as an effective means of helping rural and urban people focus energy and mobilize resources to solve their environmental, economic problems and to provide social services .when people from the community organized, plan, share tasks with professional contribute financially to project or programs are more likely to achieve their objectives (Alesina,A and Eli-ana,L,(1999)chanan,Gabriel(1999)Jules,1995 Oakley,P and DilltonB,(1985)

Many development agencies are now adopting participatory approach to launch their development projects and programs for achieving sustainability.

Therefore, no universal interpretation or models of participation applicable to all development programs and projects, other interpretation has major influence in term of identifying the key – stages of project cycle in which participation could occur in decision –making, implementation, benefits and evaluation (Oakly and Marsden, 1984).

Participation play very impotent role in the world and consider it the reason of sustainability of development projects.(Oakly and Marsden,1984 and Dillon, 1985,FAO,1988 and Doud,2007).

In Sudan, social turbulence has had particularly acute impact on the lives of women. Not only among the middle and upper classes

Sudanese's women have a long history of sharing responsibilities with men in all aspect of life .they have also suffered institutionalized discrimination in favor of males within the family and in the society. Women have always been denied the full benefit of educational programs. Evenwhen their rights have been clearly set out in law, they have been thwarted by traditional dominance of men

In Darfur, women carry double or even triple of work as they cope with household, childcare and subsistence food production.

### **Humanitarian aid**

Is material and logistic assistance to people who need the help. It is usually short-term help until the long-term help by government and other institutions replaces it. Among the people in need are the homeless, refugees, and victims of natural disasters, wars and famines. Humanitarian aid is material or logistical assistance provided for humanitarian purposes, typically in response to humanitarian relief efforts including natural disasters and man-made disaster. The primary objective of humanitarian aid is to save lives, alleviate suffering, and maintain human dignity. It may therefore be distinguished from development aid, which seeks to address the underlying socioeconomic factors, which may have led to a crisis or emergency. There is a debate on linking humanitarian aid and development efforts, which was reinforced by the World Humanitarian Summit in 2016. However, practitioners view the approach critically.<sup>[1]</sup>



Humanitarian aid aims to bring short-term relief to victims until the government and other institutions can provide long-term relief. Humanitarian aid considers “a fundamental expression of the universal value of solidarity between people and a moral imperative”.<sup>[2]</sup> Humanitarian aid can come from either local or international communities. In reaching out to international communities, the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)<sup>[3]</sup> of the United Nations (UN) is responsible for coordination responses to emergencies. It taps to the various members of Inter-Agency Standing Committee, whose members are responsible for providing emergency relief. The four UN entities that have primary roles in delivering humanitarian aid are United Nations Development Programmer (UNDP), the United Nations Refugee Agency (UNHCR), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the World Food programmer (WFP).<sup>[4]</sup>

Women's organizations, and individual women, are already playing a key role as frontline responders in disasters and conflicts. They are playing a leading role in affected communities, helping everyone in those communities – women, men, girls and boys – survive, cope with and adapt to the crisis. The contribution of women as humanitarian actors needs to be recognized and supported. Partnerships between local women’s groups and humanitarian agencies should be fostered to promote learning in both directions and leverage these partnerships to become drivers of change for women’s participation, gender equality and gender-based violence prevention and response in each sector.

The needs of people affected by a crisis, as well as their coping strategies, are shaped by gender. As humanitarians, if we don’t try to understand these, then we are not doing our job. While the specific roles played by women and girls are often off the radar for mainstream humanitarian action, they are in fact amongst the first and frontline responders. It’s already happening, and the chal-

challenge and opportunity for the humanitarian system is to now better support those efforts.

## **1.2 Problem statement**

Women's organizations, and individual women, are already playing a key role as frontline responders in disasters and conflicts. They are playing a leading role in affected communities, helping everyone in those communities – women, men, girls and boys – survive, cope with and adapt to the crisis. The contribution of women as humanitarian actors needs to be recognized and supported.

Many studies reports show that participation of women as leader in any community or in camps are very weak. This need high encouragement of organizations and agencies to support women to participate in development activities.

## **1.3 Overall Objective of the study**

To study the tools and mode of participation and communication in relation to lead women are full participate and share in development activities and all aspect of their life to become active leaders.

### **1.3.1 Specific Objectives:-**

- To highlight the existing barriers th prevent local women from participating, sharing finding, learning from and build their knowledge and skills.
- To study the relationship between participation and communication and how it assist local women to participate.
- To know the relationship between participation and awareness rising to support women to become a leader.

- To draw attention of the community to the role of women in participations in all aspect of life and lead them know that participation it may help them to educate.

#### 1.4 Variable of the study

| Independent variable                     | Dependent variable     |
|--|------------------------|
| Participation in humanitarian assistance | 1- Education           |
|  | 2- Self- sufficient    |
|  | 3- Build capacity      |
|  | 4- Awareness           |
|  | 5- Ownership           |
|  | 6- Communication tools |
|  | 7- Fits role           |

#### 1.5 Hypotheses:-

In order to achieve the objective of the study the following hypotheses were put in consideration:-

- Participation develops community education and builds their capacity.
- Participation develops women awareness and lead them feel self- sufficient.

- Participation builds up good communication skills to community and they feel ownership of project during implementation.

### **1.6 Importance of the study**

- The importance of the study is that to address the problems of participation in development projects in remote areas that the rural people live in poverty, ignorance and diseases.
- And despite the intent and striving of the government to improve the living condition of the rural people the living condition of the rural areas still melancholic surrounded by dangers .as consequence the rural communities need to increase their capacity to deal with problems facing them.
- Another importance of this study is that it show or discover the ways of encouragement of the target to promote active participation in community development activities.
- It also help the workers in the field of rural development specially those working in humanitarian assistance to improve the methodology for an interactive participation
- Finally the recommendation of this study assist the local organization that work in the related field in rural areas to apply this experiment with the communities.
- We can finally come out with results and recommendations to highlight the importance of participation of women and the expected role of rural people in contributing to helping the community to bring about comprehensive development

### **1.7 Sampling:-**

### **1.7.1 Sample size:-**

The sample of the study was selected from women who live in camps and who are represented in committee's members and local leaders

.working as humanitarian's assistance committees.

Total of 100 women was administrated the questionnaire and observation. Also group discussion

### **1.7.2 Sample Technique:-**

The selection of women depended on the following items:-

- Women live in the camp.
- Women are member in humanitarian's assistance group.

### **1.8 Data collection methods:-**

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in process of the data collecting.

### **1.9 Data analysis:-**

The data collected through questionnaire was analysed by computer using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Other tools of analysis was used to present the data

### **1.10 Literature Review:-**

The key terms of literature reviews related to studyis:-

- Definition of leadership.
- Kind of leadership

- Types of leadership
- Importance of leadership
- The characteristic of leadership
- Definition of participation
- Concept of participation
- Type of participation
- Conflict in Darfur
- Humanitarian assistance in Darfur.

## **1.11 Organization of the study:-**

This study includes five chapters

### **Chapter One**

Comprises of an introduction, the research problem and questions, objectives, the importance of research and organization of the study.

### **Chapter two**

Discusses the theoretical framework of the research covering the participation concept, leadership concept, Humanitarian concept and conflict in Darfur.

### **Third chapter**

Deals with study area, research population, sample selection, research methodology, and data analysis whereas

### **Chapter Four**

Presents the results and discussion.

### **Chapter Five**

Tackles the summary of the results and conclusion and recommendation

**Chapter Two**  
**Literature Review**



## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

#### **2.1 Participation Concept**

##### **Participation**

For more than two decades development theories and practitioners have lectured the world about the need for participation of ordinary people in development. In much of rural development however, thinking about participation has remained at a very idealistic and ideological level. It has lacked analytical tools, practical methods and an adequate theoretical framework. So it has degenerated into a kind of propaganda-words to convince audience, NGOs, and governments have recognized the necessity of involving people in development activities. Sometimes, it is the participation of particular categories of people which has to be demonstrated-women, the poorest of the poor, minority groups. But participation is usually asserted, not demonstrated. Indicators of how participation happens and what its effects are on participation and in the wider society need to be developed and applied.

Participation have been defined as: the organized effort to increase control over resources and regulative institution by groups movements of those excluded from such control (United nations Research institute for Social Development (UNRISD), Pearse and Strefel, 1979). This definition recognized that it is potentially confliction, and that redistribution of power is involved. This means that there will be interests opposing participation, based on political affiliation, class, race, ethnicity, or gender. There are many typologies of participation; a basic distinction is that between a system-maintaining and system-transforming process. Participation as defined above would be system-transforming. Used in this way, participation is closely tied up with equity and empowerment (Gajanjak S. and Gaga Eajanjak, 1993).

It is possible to develop an argument about participation as necessity in rural development. Policies and programs have new content-low external input and sustainable agriculture, savings and collateral free credit, industrial districts and artisans' associations, new common property resources, community and group-based services. All these rely on local people's knowledge, managerial abilities, skills in problem identification and assessment of solution, and social and economic relationships. These new ideas recognize the importance of context in development: centrally produced, packaged technologies do not work in much of the world. Local context are infinitely vary and can only be known by local people.

These programmes need to be executed in new ways these programmes need to be executed in new ways: programmes replace projects, with strong degree of local managerial flexibilities activities are increasingly self-funding gives power to the shareholders.

Rural people may nevertheless acquire greater opportunities to come at politically, to develop movements to counter extraction and exploitation, which can be the basis for enhanced accountability of local and national institutions as well as NGOs. They will be free to set their own political and policy agendas; they will be more equal in negotiations with development agencies which will become more responsive and less imposing. This strength is based on: individual development and leaderships, group activities which may be networked into associations, political organization for lobbying to change policies, stop negative development and propose alternative, local development finance, possibly as a basis for seeking matching funds, Institutional development for the management of common resources, and development strategies which respect local knowledge people and institutions.

While participation has been generally seen by development agencies in terms of collaboration, and as a means to project success, as bringing additional

human resources into the project process, participation increasingly is about civil society playing roles which development agencies and governments cannot play, and in particular about the rural people associating together to defend common interests and challenge structures which keep them in poverty. In this empowerment sense it is a much more overtly political concept than it was. The challenge for rural development workers is to recognize and facilitate the process of organization and presentation and to ensure that development work is consonant with advancing the inclusion of the poor.

Controlling resources and institutions is not merely a matter of having on Opportunity share ideas and collectively plan of action it is a matter of organizational definition viable sustainable organization which can be run by the rural poor and exert an influence in the wider development area are the mechanisms for participation. Community participation has all too frequently been limited.

## **2.2 Why is participation necessary?**

In recent years, there have been an increasing number of cooperative of development projects that show participation is one of the critical, component of success. It has been associated with increased mobilization of stakeholders, ownership of policies and projects, greater efficiency, understanding and social cohesion more cost-effective services; greater transparency and accountability; increased empowering of the poor and disadvantages and strengthened capacity of people to learn and act.

## **2.3 The Uses of Participation:**

The term participation has been used by different countries, for different purposes and in different inter partitions. In some countries has been used to justify the use of extension of control of the state as well as to build local capacity and self-reliance it has been used to justify external decision as well as to devolve power and decision-making a way from external agencies it has been for data collection as well as for interactive analysis. In the conventional rural develop-

ment, participation has commonly centered on encouraging local people to sell their labour in return for food, cash or materials. Yet these material incentives distant perception, create dependencies, and give the misleading impression that local people are supporting external initiatives. But rarely do these supportive acts continue once a project ends.

In this context that the various use of the term participation needs to be analyzed. Pretty (1995) and others have identified seven possible uses of the term, summarized as the following:

1. **Manipulative participation:** is simply pretense, with people's representatives of official bounds but who are unelected and have no power.

2. **Passive participation**

People participate to tell what has been decided, or has already happened. It has involves unilateral decisions by project management without any listening to people's responses. Shaved information belongs to professionals.

3. **Participation by consultant**

People participated be being consulted or answering questions. External agents define problems and gather information, and control analysis. This process does not concede any share in decision-making, and professionals are under no obligation to take on board people's views.

4. **Participation for material incentives**

People participate by contributing resources, e.g. labour in return for food, cash or other material incentives. Farmer may provide the fields and labour, but are not involve in experimentation or the process of learning. This process is often called participation, yet people have no stokers prolonging technologies or practices who incentives ends.

5. **Functional participation**

Is seen by external agencies as a means to achieve project goals. People may participate by farming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the

project. Such involvement may be interactive and involve shared decision-making but tends to arise only after major decision and have already been made by external agents.

#### **6. Interactive participation**

People participate in joint analysis, development of plans, and formation or strengthening of local institution. Participation is a right, not just mean to achieve project goals. The process involves interdisciplinary methods that seek multiple perspectives and use structural learning processes. As groups take control over local decision and determined use of available resources they have a stake and ownership in maintaining practices or project outcomes.

#### **7. Self-Mobilization**

People participate by taking initiatives independently of external institution to change systems. They develop contacts and projects with external institution for resources and technical advices they need, but retain control over resources are used.

The way that development agencies (donors, GOS and NGOs) interpret and use the term participation rang from manipulative and passive where people are told what is to happen and what to do, to self-mobilization where people take initiative largely independent of external agencies. This suggested that the term ‘participation’ should not be accepted without appropriate clarification. What will be important• for sustainability of development and projects for agencies and individuals to define better ways shifting from the more common passive, consultiveand incentive driven participation towards the interactive ends of the spectrum.

### **2.4 How to achieve participation:**

If participation is desirable or essential aspect of the successful formulation, implementation- and sustainability of development projects. Thus achieving effective participation involves four key elements:

- (i) Institutional change: formal institutions at all level have to change to accommodate the move to increased participation by project beneficiaries. This will include policy and organizational change.
- (ii) Professional, personal change: Achieving participation also calls for a change in attitudes of profession. The participation of local people communities requires this change, their view, knowledge and empowering them to take part in the development process. Then the roles of the professional are now to act as facilitator and stakeholders, in the process of change.
- (iii) Community acceptance: communities also have to accept a change to participation process.
- (iv) Mechanism and methods: participation of different stakeholders will required appropriate mechanisms and methods to help achieving this.

## **2.5. Participatory Development:**

This is a development process where communities and people are in the process of developing their own selves and are given control over decisions and resources. People here are treated as assets and partners in the process, building their own institutions and resources. In this process groups are strengthened and financed, access for information is facilitated and thus ensures efforts to reduce poverty are demand responsive, inclusive, sustainable and cost effective than traditionally centrally led programmes. Also this process involves partnership between supporting organizations, service providers' etc. and communities. Participatory development ensures sustainable development at the local level (Narayan, 1995).

## **2.6. People's participation:**

Participation by United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD) is defined as an organized effort to increase control over resources and regulative institutions by groups and movements of those eluded from such control. This recognizes that it is potentially conflictual and that redistribution of power is involved. This means that there will be interests opposing participation, based on political affiliation, class, race, ethnicity or gender. From this definition it would mean systematic-transformation process and thus closely tied with equity and power. Furthermore, dimensions for empowerment which provides a good starting point for participation. These includes; organization of the disadvantaged and underprivileged in structures under their own control, knowledge of their social environment and its processes developed by the disadvantage; self-reliance, an attitudinal quality strengthened by the solidarity, caring and sharing of collective identity; creativity; institutional development, in particular the management of collective tasks, and mass participation in deliberation and decision making; solidarity-the ability to handle conflicts and tension, to care for those in distress and a consensus that all should advance together; progress for women in articulating their points of view, and the evolution of gender relations toward equality as assessed by women themselves. Furthermore structures and fora are necessary for participation to be meaningful as well as viable, sustainable organizations which can be run by the rural poor and exert an influence in the wider development arena are the mechanism for participation. (Shepherd, 1998). Further mentioned, there are lessons to be learned from experience, participation requires attitude change: understanding, humility, flexibility and patience, facilitating factors such as political support, decentralization traditions of community organization, the availability of good leaders and managers and helpful procedures, technologies which promote autonomy and self-reliance. (Shepherd, 1998).

## **2.7 .Participation as a strategy for Rural Development:**

Rural Development Is the process of improving the living standards of rural people in the economic, social and human wellbeing where the overall objective is to increase food production in a sustainable way and enhance food security ensuring sustainable agriculture involving education initiatives ,utilization of economic incentives and the development of appropriate and new technologies. It ensures stable supplies of nutritionally adequate food, access to those supplies by vulnerable groups, and production for markets, emphasize income generation for alleviation of poverty and natural resource management and environmental protection. Participation is considered as a good thing for rural development. The tactics that one adopts to implement the strategy vary according to the point of view of experts (Narayan, 1995).

## **2.8. Importance of local participation:**

Community involvement in the selection design construction and implementation of development programmes has often been the first step in the acceptance change, leading to the adoption of new techniques of production .The manner in which early participation is to be achieved and balanced with the need for over all guidance and control from the center is a problem which can only be resolved within each country and state .There is some evidence ,however ,such as Bangladesh argues that a strengthened local authority is better able to secure effective participation than are officials answerable to faraway central government. Tanzania has gone further in its attempts to deal with these problems that must other countries. For example, preparation of regional committees again composed of a mixed group of official and party members, before being presented to the central government. Agreement must be reached at each level before the proposals are passed on to the next higher level.

Furthermore, local institution, such as farmer associations and cooperation has obvious potential advantages for coping with administration difficulties



in reaching the rural poor. On the often side they provide some measure of participation through the involvement of their members. On the other hand, they perform intermediary function which makes it possible to provide credit to large numbers that can be done through official agencies. Group members can be held jointly responsible for acceptance of input supplies in other produce purchased from outside and for delivery of the marketed surplus to the appropriate agencies public or private.

## **2.9 Sustainable Development:**

It focuses on improving the quality of life of people without creasing the use of natural resources beyond the capability the environment to supply them indefinitely, here development adopts an approach that considers the economic environmental and cultural resources both in the short and long terms Narayan, 1995 stated that to achieve Sustainable Development at the local level requires community participation, demand -orientation and local organizational capacity and there is a widespread agreement on these prepositions. Community participation is needed especially in the project planning, appraisal implementation evaluation etc. demand-orientation is important to achieve long-term sustainability at the community level. . To have Sustainability we can have what can be called sustainable community Development and it ensures at striking a balance between environmental concerns and development objectives while the same time enhancing local social relationships in the process, local control over development as the primary means by which development is achieved.

## **2.2 Rural Development.**

### **Definitions**

As indicated by the World Bank, rural development is “a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of specific group of people (The rural poor). It involves extending the benefits of development to the rural poor-

est among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas. The group includes small scale farmers, tenant and land less” (World Bank, 1975,P.3)

However, according to Chamber, R. (1997), rural development is defined as “a Strategy designed to enable specific group of people, poor rural women and men, to gain to themselves and their children more of what they need. It involves helping the poorest among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas to demand and control more of the benefits of development” Chamber, R. 1997)

This side of development is important as it coming in first definition but it should be balanced by a reversal of power and initiatives so the second definition will be a complementary definition.

These definitions discussed at a lower level of what re really sub-objective. Some these are, increasing Productivity, improving equity, and maintaining and enhancing the renewably resources base of environment. But these are means not ends. The ends are in the lives of people. That means putting the poor rural people first “re order” development planner thinking. So that what before were seen and end are now seen as means. Means to overreaching objectives of enabling the poorest to demand and control more of what wants and need

Rural development can be redefining that to include enabling rural women and men to demand and control more of the benefits of development.

### **2.2.1 Interpreting Sustainable Development:**

The manner in which the phrase “sustainable development” (SD) is used and interpreted various so much that while O’Riordan(1985) called SD “a condition in terms”. Redclift suggested that it may be just “another development term”. These interpretational problems, thought ultimately conceptual, have some semat roots. Most people use the phrase “sustainable development” interchangeably with ecologically sustainable or environmentally sound development (Talba, 1983). This interpretation is characterized by: a) sustainability be-

ing understood as “ecological sustainability”. b) Conceptualization of SD as process of change that has ecological sustainable added to its list of objectives.

Taken literally sustainable development would simply mean “development that can continued either indefinitely or for the implicit time period of concern. But what is development? Theorists and practitioners have both been grappling with the word and the concept for at least four decades (Arndt, 1981, and Bartelmus, 1986).

Some equate development with GNP growth, others any number of social desirable phenomena in their conceptualization. The point to be noted is that development is a process of directed change. Definition of development thus embody both; I) objectives of this process and, ii) the mean of achieving these objectives, unfortunately, a distinction between objective and means is often not made in the development rhetoric. This has led to “sustainable development” frequently being interpreted as simply a process of change that can be continued forever for sometimes. Thus “sustainability” always requires “tailoring the design and implementation of projects to the needs and capabilities of people who are supposed to benefit from them” (Barbier, 1987). Since beneficiaries oriented design (or grass-roots participation); is the procedural imperative for any development process.

Generally speaking the concept of sustainable development represents a new synthesis of economic development and environmental protection thus it concerns about the scarcity of natural resources.

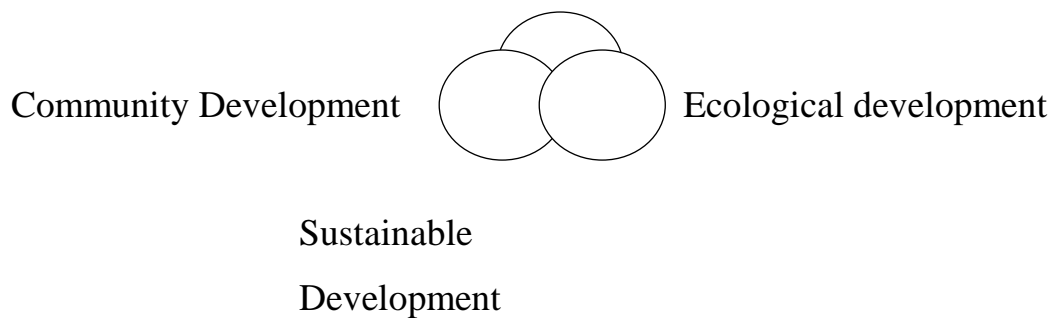
It is worth mentioning that there are three vital processes affect the sustainability of development: economic development, ecological development and community development (see figure 1). Sustainable brings the three into balance with each other and negotiates among the interest groups and stakeholders involved in the process. It provides a program of action for community and economic reform, such that economic development will not destroy ecosystem or

community systems. There is a growing consensus that sustainable development must be achieved at local level if it is ever to succeed on a global basis (KLEI, 1996).

Sustainable development refers to improvement of livelihood which does not undermine the livelihood of the future generation.

Figure 1: The three interrelated processes of sustainable development.

Economic Development



**Source:** Gregory E., Kersten, et al, 1999.

### **2.3 Sustainable Rural Development:**

Rural development process usually involves a set of activities and actions which taken to lead to progress in rural areas. It can be taken by diverse actors (i.e. individuals, organizations, groups and/or state). Progress is defined differently by different people: historically, material progress, growth of incomes and wealth, poverty alleviation, has been the main consideration in the development theory and practice. Today other indicators of progress, cultural, spiritual, ethical, are increasingly taking their place beside the material in a reformulated more holistic concept of development. There is evidence that old paradigms are breaking down and a new one formed.

In the old paradigm, conventional rural development has been a part of the modernization paradigm. Modernization equates development with four basic progresses: capital investment, which leads to productivity increases; the application of science to production and services; the emergence of nation states and large scale political and economic organization, and urbanization. RD

linked to change in values and social structure. Modernization has not reduced poverty and insecurity although states become independent. Worse still the majority of rural population are still marginal to their societies' development path, institutionally they are not incorporate. Rural development has focus on growth in production and market economy. In rural development the modernization paradigm has proved mechanical and inflexible. In many countries has not helped remove material poverty nor conserve valuable social and environmental resources its output have too often been both environmental and institutional unsustainable.

#### **2.4 Community Development Approach.**

The current challenge facing development for "human centered» development strategies active participation of the people as grass root this field in most countries are increasingly Involving an approach to development based on and self-reliance such endeavours have transformation from a welfare oriented approach passive beneficiaries to a community development at helping communities to help themselves Participation (GajanagakS.x Gaga Gajanagak 1993).

There is growing acceptance that the community development approaches has the potential to address development issues and challenge faced by rural and urban communities in developing countries as well as issues encountered by disenfranchised disadvantaged and marginal groups in the developed world. The community development approaches place the human being at the centre of develop and is Primarily concerned with human dignity and potential it assumes that in order for people to control and shape their own destiny they Should first realize their own Worth and strength. The community development approach provides a high level of Participation for the members of the community in all aspects pertinent to the development process. However, past experience in the developing world has revealed that the Considering the Whole community as

the target group has not made significant impact on the Poorest of the Poor (GajanagaS.x Gaga Gaianagak 1993).

The community development approach requires a process of empowerment consciousness raising and leadership development. It is essential for this process to initiate the community itself.

The community development approach, usually design to create conditions of economic and social progress for target communities, emphasizes the significance of bottom-up approach to development and empowerment of communities' integration and sustainability are central to this approach. Community development approach is based on the assumption that development start at grass-roots level and initiatives, creativity, and energies of the people can be utilized to improve their own lives using democratic processes and voluntary efforts. It implies that through consciousness rising, people at the grass roots level become a wakened to realize their own potentials (Gajanagak, S.x Gaga Gajanagak, 1993).

#### **2.4.1 Community capacity building development:**

Over the last decade or more there has been a more away from the provision of physical acts and towards increasing the knowledge, skills and ability of people at various levels to more effective in their work. Thus any plan to develop capacity must begin by identifying current and existing strengthens weakness and objectives (OECD, 1994). Therefore, in order to maximize the ability of organization to achieve its goal it is essential to increase human capacity as projects are being implemented.

#### **2.4.2 The concept and elements of capacity building:**

The implementation of structural adjustment policies has meant decreasing government service provision, and a failure of efforts to increase production capacity through industrialization and shrinking government services delivery in marginalized rural areas. This situation has highlighted the role of NGOs, CBOs

and other civic structures in rural development. Accordingly, there has been a growing emphasis on the importance of capacity building within the development intervention (Franks, 1999). However, building community capacity must start with indigenous knowledge, and should be based on local interest and needs. Consequently, an integrated holistic approach, focused on sustainable improvement to the quality of life for whole communities, should be the main target. Sustainable societies will have to be based on sustainable life style at the individual and community levels.

The term ‘capacity’ and ‘capacity building’ have been used widely many different ways, which has led to confusion (Cohen, 1995) uses the term ‘capacity’ to mean individual, organization or community abilities, talent and qualifications. It is also generally means the ability of an organization to act and operate effectively and successfully, on a sustainable basis, in pursuit of its goals and objectives. According to Edoho (1998) and Udoh, (1998) the ability of a society or organization to promote social and economic development is determined by the capabilities of its peoples’ skills and their ideas, knowledge, talents, innovations and creativity.

Given the common use of the word, there is a need to distinguish clearly between the two terms. According to Franks (1999) capacity building refers to knowledge and skills including technical know how. It also includes attitudes of individuals or groups and their competencies to undertake their assigned responsibilities. Therefore, capacity depends on capabilities of people size of, tasks, the policy framework and resources required performing them. However, Biswas (1996) argued that capacity building should continue to focus on human resources development and strengthening of management system.

James (1994) defines capacity building as an intervention aimed at improving an organization's performance in relation to its mission, context, resources and sustainability. Thus capacity building in the development context

refers to a process by which an organization or community is able to identify problems and constraints, develop a plan of action and manage that plan. This process usually involves the development of human resources and organizational skills, with the aim of improving existing resources and capabilities, and using them effectively and efficiently to achieve sustainable economic and social development. Eade (1997) supports this definition.

### **2.4.3 Elements of capacity building:**

Alaerts, et al (1997) identify three elements of capacity building; first, the creation of an enabling environment within appropriate policy and legal frameworks; second, human resources development and strengthening of managerial system and third, institutional development, including community participation. Community participation whether its individually and collective exercise for example, voicing demands, choosing interests and making choices, seeking rights and becoming involved in project decisions is therefore equally important in sustaining the capacity of the beneficiaries.

According to Binker Hoff and Gold Smith (1990) community management can be enhanced and supported through training and the development of learning process, which reinforce the partnership between supporters and communities. This can be done by acknowledging every one as both learner and facilitator/ teachers and also by encouraging the continuing development of learning relationship within and between communities (Udoh, 1998).

Other ways to learning include the establishment of community monitoring and evaluation systems (Franks, 1999). Thus the development of participatory learning through holding meetings, problem-solving methods, and the pooling of resources through networking system are considered to be different ways of capacity building. However, the basic challenge is to build up community self-reliance, including self-reliance in sharing of knowledge and experiences (Udoh, 1998). Building capacity for community management include develop-



ing learning systems that will enable those who have gained new knowledge to share it with others (Frankm 1999).

Typical capacity building will follow a sequence of steps aimed at identifying what skills need strengthening and enhancement and what Support will be needed from outside the community. Therefore, efforts are often directed towards sustainable development at grass roots level. Using Participatory techniques in which community members play a leading role in diagnosing their own needs. Furthermore, with external Support to this kind of participatory planning, communities can organize themselves and use their own resources, knowledge and skills to address their needs for achieving sustainable livelihoods.

The capacity building should be direct to address issues of illiteracy, unemployment deprivation, Poor health and Unsound of natural resource. These issues if properly addressed should lead to self-reliance and Sustainable improve production and empowerment (Holdga 1996). Accordingly sustainability has to be created by people themselves; it can Inspire confidence, local initiatives, self-reliance and self-respect.

Nevertheless, building local capacity will lead to self-supporting sustainable and adequately communities. Slocum et al (1995) and Reid (1995) assert that strengthening the capacity of poor communities will enable them to understand not only why they are and poor, but also what they can do about it.

## **2.5 Empowerment:**

Empowerment is a concept that goes beyond participation. It implies enabling people to understand the reality of their environment, reflect on the factors shaping that environment, and take step to effect changes to improve the situation. It is a process that encompasses people deciding where they are now, where they want to go, and developing and implementing plans to reach their goals, based on self-reliance and sharing of power. Most importantly, empow-

empowerment helps people to liberate themselves from mental and physical dependency. It is, in essence, the ability to stand independently, think progressively, plan and implement changes systematically, and accept the outcomes rationally. There are several dimensions of empowerment have been identified which provide a good starting point for developing indicators about participation:

- (i) Organization of disadvantaged and underprivileged in structures under their own control.
- (ii) Knowledge of their social environment and its processes developed by the disadvantaged,
- (iii) Self-reliance, and attitudinal quality strengthened by the solidarity, caring and sharing collective identity.
- (iv) Creativity.
- (v) Institutional development, in particular the management of collective tasks, and mass participation in deliberation and decision-making.
- (vi) Solidarity- the ability to handle conflicts and tensions, to care for those in distress, and a consensus that all should be advanced together.
- (vii) Progress for women in articulating their point of view, and the evaluation of gender relations towards equality, as assessed by women themselves.

Empowerment would also imply society as a popular democracy and cultural diversity a result of grass roots changes the development of human dignity, popular democracy and cultural diversity.

## **2.6 The role of Local organization in Development:**

Historically they have been different phases in terms of the role of local organizations were expected to play in development process:

- a) During the first decade at development cooperation local institutions were used as technical instruments by the state and, donor agencies during this phase the idea of institution building was born. Institution could be created and manipulated to serve the goal of mobilization. It was claimed that there

is a strong empirical basis for conducting that local organization is a necessary if not sufficient condition for accelerating rural development especially that which emphasis improvement. In the productivity and welfare of the majority of rural people (Uphott and Esman, 1974), due to lacking people's participation in modernization effort, Community Development (CD), development project were initiated in late 50s and early 60s. Traditionally a pathetic and conservative behavioral pattern of the rural population was seen as major constraints to development. CD activities were to change this by involving communities in a process in which they organize themselves for planning and action; define their common and individual problems and needs make groups and individual plans to meet their need and solve their problem; execute these plans with a maximum reliance upon community resources, and supplement these resources when necessary with services and materials from governmental and NGOs agencies outside the community (Hold Craft, 1982:207), within this processions were seen as intermediates between people and projects governments. CD program have been criticized for their top down approach.

- b) In the 1960s cooperative societies as special type of local organization become urge popular especially in Africa, to implement their respective version of African socialism. With this approach there have been remarries problems with people in fact that cooperatives so actives were introduce by states and outside agencies in to down fashion as vehicle for introducing their own agendas. This led to inadequate participation by farmer in decision making and o centralization management; benefited mostly government officials and rich class.
- c) In current development thinking one of the developments it seems in the low capacity of local organizations to absorb external and efficiently implement development. programs. Consequently there is increasing emphasis on the

strategy of institutional development it can be defined as strategies learning process where by an institution's environment structure, management, resources, ideology, strategy and performance, output are developed and empowered. So that it becomes of greater value to the community it serves (Booy, 1988:69). The concept of institutional development is based on an analysis of benefit of using local organization in development projects. These include:

- ILO as facilitator for use of indigenous technical knowledge's;
  - Programs can be more appropriate adapted to local conditions on the basis of information obtained through Los on actual needs, priorities and capabilities.
  - Local resources can be mobilized and thus the degree of self-reliance can be increased, through LOs/NGOs grass roots presence, communication with the communities and participation of communities in development activities including planning and goal setting enhanced the institutional development strategy taking most appropriate for technical assistance international NGOs can give to Los (Honadle, 1985:38) expatriate does job while local gets training, teacher expatriate not in decision making but as advisors function and mobilizer. Institutional development is most compatible with the latter two as these potentially ensure long term sustainability.
- d) Central to both concepts of institutional development as well as integrated rural development programs is importance attached to the people participation (Uphoff and Esman, 1974).

## **2.7 Monitoring and Evaluation:**

In their early years monitoring was mostly carried on through informal means. Only at the end of the 1990s was a permanent system of monitoring and evaluation established. This system drew upon guidelines suggested by the UN agencies' Administrative committees on coordination (ACC) firstly applied in their forestry program.

Formal monitoring and evaluation forced them to make analysis at their objective, expected out comes, and associated activities and indicator of success.

The experience they gained so far has allowed them to fine-tune their working methodology and provided valuable information as they expanded their activities to neighboring zones.

Although format M&E were introduced recently, participatory evaluation with area residents have been ongoing over long years. A system of participatory testing introduced in their farmer and livestock program which farmers and technicians come together to share experiences and knowledge. Then the results are discussed and conclusions drawn in groups organized at village level.

This test has proven to be a very useful method for provoking discussion on matters of technology. The spread of technical knowledge in this manner supplements the formal training given by ICE as well as extension training provided by their technical and village Para technicians.

### **2.7.1 Where do we go from here?**

In the past DESEC has been forced to interrupt and abandon initiatives due to the drying of donor funds. This has often placed us in an unenviable position even though it was unavoidable. If DESEC had waited to have full financing from the start, we never would have initiated. Several of the activities that we began and we would have lost the opportunities for learning that present themselves this is a good example of Albert O. Hirschman's "the hiding hands" (1995).

Extended support provided over a longer period of time is essential for local associations to develop their skills and to build up their organizations to a level where they can progressively take over the tasks of the support agency. That they have to stay in extension continuously over a number, although in a changing and evolving role. This in return points clearly to the need for sustain-

ing donor supports over actually long time much longer than has traditionally been envisioned, especially in the project mode of assistance the situation has improved since early 1980s with the commitment of regular operation and long-term commitments that donor have started to provide. This provide more stable environment for our staff and for the people among whom we work, our long years of experience, of good results mixed with some inevitable mistakes, stand using good stead, as will our reputation of being political and independent.

## **2.8 Humanitarian aid**

### **Humanitarian aid**

Is material and logistic assistance to people who need the help. It is usually short-term help until the long-term help by government and other institutions replaces it. Among the people in need are the homeless, refugees, and victims of natural disasters, wars and famines. Humanitarian aid is material or logistical assistance provided for humanitarian purposes, typically in response to humanitarian relief efforts including natural disasters and man-made disaster. The primary objective of humanitarian aid is to save lives, alleviate suffering, and maintain human dignity. It may therefore be distinguished from development aid, which seeks to address the underlying socioeconomic factors which may have led to a crisis or emergency. There is a debate on linking humanitarian aid and development efforts, which was reinforced by the World Humanitarian Summit in 2016. However, practitioners view the approach critically.

Humanitarian aid aims to bring short term relief to victims until long term relief can be provided by the government and other institutions. Humanitarian aid considers “a fundamental expression of the universal value of solidarity between people and a moral imperative”.<sup>[2]</sup> Humanitarian aid can come from either

local or international communities. In reaching out to international communities, the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) of the United Nations (UN) is responsible for coordination responses to emergencies. It taps to the various members of Inter-Agency Standing Committee, whose members are responsible for providing emergency relief. The four UN entities that have primary roles in delivering humanitarian aid are United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the United Nations Refugee Agency (UNHCR), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the World Food Programme (WFP).

According to the Overseas Development Institute, a London-based research establishment, whose findings were released in April 2009 in the paper "Providing aid in insecure environments: 2009 Update", the most lethal year in the history of humanitarianism was 2008, in which 122 aid workers were murdered and 260 assaulted. The countries deemed least safe were Somalia and Afghanistan.<sup>[5]</sup> In 2014, Humanitarian Outcomes reported that the countries with the highest incidents were: Afghanistan, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Central African Republic, South Sudan, Sudan, Syria, Pakistan, Somalia, Yemen and Kenya.<sup>[6]</sup>

## **2.8.1 History**

### **2.8.1.1 Origins**

The beginnings of organized international humanitarian aid can be traced to the late 19th century. The most well-known origin story of formalized humanitarian aid is that of Henri Dunant, a Swiss business man and social activist, who upon seeing the sheer destruction and inhumane abandonment of wounded soldiers from the Battle of Solferino in June 1859, cancelled his plans and began a relief response.

Prior to the work of Henri Dunant in Humanitarian Aid was that of Florence Nightingale. In 1854, the Crimean War began Florence Nightingale and her team of 38 nurses arrived to Barracks Hospital of Scutari where there were thousands of sick and wounded soldiers. Florence and her team watched as the understaffed military hospitals struggled to maintain hygienic conditions and meet the needs of patients<sup>1</sup>. Ten times more soldiers were dying of disease than from battle wounds <sup>[11]</sup>. Typhus, typhoid, cholera and dysentery were common in the army hospitals. Florence and her team established a kitchen, laundry and increased hygiene. More nurses arrived to aid in the efforts and the General Hospital at Scutari was able to care for 6,000 patients.

Nightingale's contributions still influence humanitarian aid efforts. This is especially true in regard to Nightingale's use of statistics and measures of mortality and morbidity. Nightingale used principles of new science and statistics to measure progress and plan for her hospital. She kept records of the number and cause of deaths in order to continuously improve the conditions in hospitals. Her findings were that in every 1,000 soldiers, 600 were dying of communicable and infectious diseases. She worked to improve hygiene, nutrition and clean water and decreased the mortality rate from 60% to 42% to 2.2% all of these improvements are pillars of modern humanitarian intervention. Once she returned to Great Britain she campaigned for the founding of the Royal Commission on the Health of the Army. She advocated for the use of statistics and coxcombs to portray the needs of those in conflict settings.

Despite little to no experience as a medical physician, Dunant worked alongside local volunteers to assist the wounded soldiers from all warring parties, including Austrian, Italian and French casualties, in any way he could including the provision of food, water and medical supplies. His graphic account of the im-



mense suffering he witnessed, written in his book “A Memory of Solferino”, became a foundational text to modern humanitarianism.

A Memory of Solferino changed the world in a way that no one, let alone Dunant, could have foreseen nor truly appreciated at the time. To start, Dunant was able to profoundly stir the emotions of his readers by bringing the battle and suffering into their homes, equipping them to understand the current barbaric state of war and treatment of soldiers after they were injured or killed; in of themselves these accounts altered the course of history. Beyond this, in his two-week experience attending to the wounded soldiers of all nationalities, Dunant inadvertently established the vital conceptual pillars of what would later become the International Committee of the Red Cross and International Humanitarian Law: impartiality and neutrality. Dunant took these ideas and came up with two more ingenious concepts that would profoundly alter the practice of war; first Dunant envisioned a creation of permanent volunteer relief societies, much like the ad hoc relief group he coordinated in Soldering, to assist wounded soldiers; next Dunant began an effort to call for the adoption of a treaty which would guarantee the protection of wounded soldiers and any who attempted to come to their aid..

After publishing his foundational text in 1862, progress came quickly for Dunant and his efforts to create a permanent relief society and International Humanitarian Law. The embryonic formation of the International Committee of the Red Cross had begun to take shape in 1863 when the private Geneva Society of Public Welfare created a permanent sub-committee called “The International Committee for Aid to Wounded in Situations of War”; composed of five Geneva citizens, this committee endorsed Dunant's vision to legally neutralize medical personnel responding to wounded soldiers. The constitutive conference of this committee in October 1863 created the statutory foundation of the Interna-

tional Committee of the Red Cross in their resolutions regarding national societies, caring for the wounded, their symbol, and most importantly the indispensable neutrality of ambulances, hospitals, medical personnel and the wounded themselves. Beyond this, in order to solidify humanitarian practice, the Geneva Society of Public Welfare hosted a convention between 8 and 22 August 1864 at the Geneva Town Hall with 16 diverse States present, including many governments of Europe, the Ottoman Empire, the United States of America (USA), Brazil and Mexico. This diplomatic conference was exceptional, not due to the number or status of its attendees but rather because of its very *raison d'être*. Unlike many diplomatic conferences before it, this conference's purpose was neither to reach a settlement after a conflict nor to mediate between opposing interests; indeed this conference was to lay down rules for the future of conflict with aims to protect medical services and those wounded in battle.

The first of the renowned Geneva Conventions was signed on 22 August 1864; never before in history has a treaty so greatly impacted how warring parties engage with one another. The basic tenants of the convention outlined the neutrality of medical services, including hospitals, ambulances and related personnel, the requirement to care for and protect the sick and wounded during conflict and something of particular symbolic importance to the International Committee of the Red Cross: the Red Cross emblem. For the first time in contemporary history, it was acknowledged by a representative selection of states that war had limits. The significance only grew with time in the revision and adaptation of the Geneva Convention in 1906, 1929 and 1949; additionally supplementary treaties granted protection to hospital ships, prisoners of war and most importantly to civilians in wartime.

The International Committee of the Red Cross exists to this day as the guardian of International Humanitarian Law and as one of the largest providers of humanitarian aid in the world.

Another such examples occurred in response to the Northern Chinese Famine of 1876–1879, brought about by a drought that began in northern China in 1875 and lead to crop failures in the following years. As many as 10 million people may have died in the famine

British Missionary Timothy Richard first called international attention to the famine in Shandong in the summer of 1876 and appealed to the foreign community in Shanghai for money to help the victims. The Shandong Famine Relief Committee was soon established with the participation of diplomats, businessmen, and Protestant and Roman Catholic missionaries. To combat the famine, an international network was set up to solicit donations. These efforts brought in 204,000 silver tales, the equivalent of \$7–10 million in 2012 silver prices.

A simultaneous campaign was launched in response to the Great Famine of 1876–78 in India. Although the authorities have been criticized for their laissez-faire attitude during the famine, relief measures were introduced towards the end. A Famine Relief Fund was set up in the United Kingdom and had raised £426,000 within the first few months.

Early attempts were in private hands, and were limited in their financial and organizational capabilities. It was only in the 1980s, that global news coverage and celebrity endorsement were mobilized to galvanize large-scale government-led famine (and other forms of) relief in response to disasters around the world. The 1983–85 famine in Ethiopia caused upwards of 1 million deaths and was documented by a BBC news crew, with Michael Buerk describing "a biblical famine in the 20th Century" and "the closest thing to hell on Earth".

Live Aid, a 1985 fund-raising effort headed by Bob Geldof induced millions of people in the West to donate money and to urge their governments to participate in the relief effort in Ethiopia. Some of the proceeds also went to the famine hit areas of Eritrea.

The first global summit on humanitarian aid was held on 23 and 24 May 2016 in Istanbul, Turkey. An initiative of United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, the World Humanitarian Summit included participants from governments, civil society organizations, private organizations, and groups affected by humanitarian need. Issues that were discussed included: preventing and ending conflict, managing crises, and aid financing.

### **2.8.2 Funding**

Aid is funded by donations from individuals, corporations, governments and other organizations. The funding and delivery of humanitarian aid is increasingly international, making it much faster, more responsive, and more effective in coping to major emergencies affecting large numbers of people (e.g. see Central Emergency Response Fund). The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) coordinates the international humanitarian response to a crisis or emergency pursuant to Resolution 46/182 of the United Nations General Assembly. The need for aid is ever-increasing and has long outstripped the financial resources available.

Humanitarian aid spans a wide range of activities, including providing food aid, shelter, education, healthcare or protection. The majority of aid is provided in the form of in-kind goods or assistance, with cash and vouchers constituting only 6% of total humanitarian spending. However, evidence has shown how cash transfers can be better for recipients as it gives them choice and control, they can be more cost-efficient and better for local markets and economies.

It is important to note that humanitarian aid is not only delivered through aid workers sent by bilateral, multilateral or intergovernmental organizations, such as the United Nations. Actors like the affected people themselves, civil society, local informal first-responders, civil society, the diaspora, businesses, and local governments, military, local and international non-governmental organizations all play a crucial role in a timely delivery of humanitarian aid.

### **2.8.3 Humanitarian aid and conflict**

In addition to post-conflict settings, a huge portion of aid is being directed at countries currently undergoing conflicts.<sup>[42]</sup> However, the effectiveness of humanitarian aid, particularly food aid, in conflict-prone regions has been criticized in recent years. There have been accounts of humanitarian aid being not only inefficacious, but actually fueling conflicts in the recipient countries.<sup>1</sup> Aid stealing is one of the prime ways in which conflict is promoted by humanitarian aid. Aid can be seized by armed groups, and even if it does reach the intended recipients, "it is difficult to exclude local members of local militia group from being direct recipients if they are also malnourished and qualify to receive aid." Furthermore, analyzing the relationship between conflict and food aid, a recent research shows that the United States' food aid promoted civil conflict in recipient countries on average. An increase in United States' wheat aid increased the duration of armed civil conflicts in recipient countries, and ethnic polarization heightened this effect.<sup>1</sup> However, since academic research on aid and conflict focuses on the role of aid in post-conflict settings, the aforementioned finding is difficult to contextualize. Nevertheless, research on Iraq shows that "small-scale [projects], local aid spending . . . reduces conflict by creating incentives for average citizens to support the government in subtle ways." Similarly, another study also shows that aid flows can "reduce conflict because increasing aid revenues can relax government budget constraints, which can [in return] increase

military spending and deter opposing groups from engaging in conflict."<sup>1</sup> Thus, the impact of humanitarian aid on conflict may vary depending upon the type and mode in which aid is received, and, *inter alia*, the local socio-economic, cultural, historical, geographical and political conditions in the recipient countries.

#### **2.8.4 Psychological Issues**

Aid workers are exposed to tough conditions and have to be flexible, resilient, and responsible in an environment that humans are not psychologically supposed to deal with, in such severe conditions that trauma is common. In recent years, a number of concerns have been raised about the mental health of aid workers.

The most prevalent issue faced by humanitarian aid workers is PTSD (Post Traumatic Stress Disorder). Adjustment to normal life again can be a problem, with feelings such as guilt being caused by the simple knowledge that international aid workers can leave a crisis zone, whilst nationals cannot.

A 2015 survey conducted by *The Guardian*, with aid workers of the Global Development Professionals Network, revealed that 79 percent experienced mental health issues.

#### **2.8.5 Standards**

During the past decade the humanitarian community has initiated a number of interagency initiatives to improve accountability, quality and performance in humanitarian action. Five of the most widely known initiatives are the Active Learning Network for Accountability and Performance in Humanitarian Action (ALNAP), Humanitarian Accountability Partnership (HAP), People In Aid, the Sphere Project and the Core Humanitarian Standard on Quality and Accounta-

bility (CHS). Representatives of these initiatives began meeting together on a regular basis in 2003 in order to share common issues and harmonies activities where possible.

### **2.8.6 People in Aid**

The People in Aid Code of Good Practice is an internationally recognized management tool that helps humanitarian aid and development agencies enhance the quality of their human resources management. As a management framework, it is also a part of agencies' efforts to improve standards, accountability and transparency amid the challenges of disaster, conflict and poverty.

### **2.8.7 Humanitarian Accountability Partnership International**

Working with its partners, disaster survivors, and others, Humanitarian Accountability Partnership International (or HAP International) produced the HAP 2007 Standard in Humanitarian Accountability and Quality Management. This certification scheme aims to provide assurance that certified agencies are managing the quality of their humanitarian actions in accordance with the HAP standard. In practical terms, a HAP certification (which is valid for three years) means providing external auditors with mission statements, accounts and control systems, giving greater transparency in operations and overall accountability.

As described by HAP-International, the HAP 2007 Standard in Humanitarian Accountability and Quality Management is a quality assurance tool. By evaluating an organization's processes, policies and products with respect to six benchmarks set out in the Standard, the quality becomes measurable, and accountability in its humanitarian work increases.

### **2.8.8 Agencies that comply with the Standard:**

- declare their commitment to HAP's Principles of Humanitarian Action and to their own Humanitarian Accountability Framework
- develop and implement a Humanitarian Quality Management System
- provide key information about quality management to key stakeholders
- enable beneficiaries and their representatives to participate in program decisions and give their informed consent
- determine the competencies and development needs of staff
- establish and implement complaints-handling procedure
- establish a process of continual improvement The distinction between combatant and non-combatants
- The principle of non-refoulement



## **Chapter Three**

### **Methodology**

## Chapter Three

### Methodology

#### 3.1 The Study Area:

Nyala, city, southwestern Sudan, located at an elevation of 2,208 feet (673 meters) in the Darfur historical region. The city's industries produce textiles, processed food, and leather goods. Nyala is a road and railway terminus and serves as a trading center for gum Arabic. It also has a domestic airport. Branches of the Agricultural Bank of Sudan and the Peoples Cooperative Bank, which extend loans to the different cooperatives, composed of farmers, consumers, craftsmen, and fishermen, are located in Nyala. The city became a haven for refugees after the outbreak of violence in Darfur in 2003. Pop. (2008) 492,984. (Amy McKenna - Encyclopedia Britannica Editor(<https://www.britannica.com/place/Nyala-Sudan>

Local industries produce textiles, as well as processed food, and leather goods. Nyala has terminus ends for both road and railway, and also has a domestic airport, Nyala Airport. Nyala serves as a trading place for gum Arabic and has branches of the Agricultural Bank of Sudan and the People's Cooperative Bank. Nyala is home to Nyala University, a public university. (*Chauhan, Yamini*)

#### 3.2 Research Population:

The research population represents the internal displaced persons (IDPs) who are living in the camps and the members of humanitarian assistance committees, as well as women leaders in the camp.

### **3.3 Sample Selection:**

The sample was composed of 100 women accounted in four IDPs camps (Otash – Alserif – Alsalam – and Derege) in Nyala town.

The sample is composed of women who are members in humanitarian assistance committees (education, health, water and sanitation and food committees), as well as women leaders in the camps. The number of the committees is different from camp to camp, and also the member of the committees is different, so that the specific number of target group is difficult to be identified.

#### **3.3.1 Sampling Method:**

Random sampling method was used in the selection of the sample, which was meant to represent the different tribes and locations.

### **3.4 Data Collection:**

A combination of quantitative (social survey) and qualitative research was used.

#### **3.4.1 Data Collection Tools:**

The study deployed primary and secondary data.

**The primary data** was four main tools:

1. Structural interview.
2. Questionnaire.
3. Observations.
4. Group discussion.

**The secondary data** was data collected from books, internet, reference and reports

### **3.6 Data Analysis:**

Descriptive statistical procedures were employed in data analysis, through use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) The collected data were coded and entered into the computer for analysis. The specific statistical methods used frequency and percentage distribution analysis, and T-test analysis of the Significance of the observed differences between group means, correlation analysis to assess the significance of associations between selected variables and regression analysis. The t-test and regression analysis was used to reveal the impact of selected variables on household incomes.

### **3.7 Problems Encountered by the Researcher:**

The following difficulties were encountered during conduction of the study:

- 1- The behavior of IDPs is changed when answering the questions and data collection. They think that they should be paid to answer the questionnaire.
- 2- Difficulties in proper understanding questions. The researcher had to clarify and explain the questions.
- 3- Remoteness of the camps from each other, so it was to provide means of transportation.

Despite all these problems and difficulties the researcher was able to overcome them.

**Chapter Four**  
**Analysis and Discussion**

## CHAPTER FOUR

### Analysis and Discussion

This chapter focused on analysis and results of the study.

#### 4.1 Age:

Table 4-1: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by age group

| age group    | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|
| 19 - 30 year | 21        | 21.0    |
| 31 – 40      | 33        | 33.0    |
| 41 – 50      | 33        | 33.0    |
| 50 and more  | 13        | 13.0    |
| Total        | 100       | 100.0   |

**Source: Field survey 2018.**

Table 4.1 shows that 66% respondent their age ranging between 31-50 and economically active to change for better living slandered while 21% respondent present the age of 19-30 years and 13% their age are 50 years and over this show that most women who participated in the committees are adults and mature while the youth and youngest women were not involve in the committees.

#### 4 -2 Education level

Table 4-2: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by Education level

| <b>Education level</b> | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> |
|------------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Illiterate             | 40               | 40.0           |
| Primary                | 36               | 36.0           |
| Khalwa                 | 6                | 6.0            |
| Secondary              | 13               | 13.0           |
| University             | 5                | 5.0            |
| Total                  | 100              | 100.0          |

**Source: Field survey 2018**

Table 4.2 shows that the education levels of women participated in the committees are 40% illiterate while 36 are primary school and 13% are secondary education and 5% are university. It illustrated that illiterate women are demonstrated on the committees and this need to encourage youngest women to support the performance of the committees.

### 4-3. Marital Status

Table 4-3: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by Marital Status

| Marital Status | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Married        | 75        | 75.0    |
| Single         | 2         | 2.0     |
| Divorced       | 12        | 12.0    |
| Abandoned      | 3         | 3.0     |
| Widow          | 8         | 8.0     |
| Total          | 100       | 100.0   |

Source: Field survey 2018

Table 4.3 illustrated that the married women are 75% .that mean the active women in committees are married and they stay in camp while the other group are not available in the camps. Also single women try to find other jobs to gain money for their families.

### 4-4Access to job

Table 4-4: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by aaccess to job

| access to job | Frequency | Percent |
|---------------|-----------|---------|
| Have job      | 15        | 15.0    |
| NO job        | 84        | 84.0    |
| Some          | 1         | 1.0     |
| Total         | 100       | 100.0   |

Source: Field survey 2018

Table 4.4 show that women who received job are few 15% meanwhile the of women do not have job are very big(84%) that mean women completely depend on their own work in houses and some of them are traders.



#### 4-5 displaced location

Table 4-5: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by Displaced location

| <b>Displaced location</b> | Frequency | Percent% |
|---------------------------|-----------|----------|
| Shangil Towbay            | 6         | 6.0      |
| Merishing                 | 2         | 2.0      |
| Ghahawa Laban             | 3         | 3.0      |
| Adawa                     | 16        | 16.0     |
| East Jebal Merra          | 7         | 7.0      |
| Labado                    | 7         | 7.0      |
| Tiraba                    | 2         | 2.0      |
| Tabaldia                  | 2         | 2.0      |
| Dowgi                     | 2         | 2.0      |
| Ditow                     | 1         | 1.0      |
| Furo Barahga              | 5         | 5.0      |
| amar Jadid                | 2         | 2.0      |
| Koroli                    | 1         | 1.0      |
| Abga Rajel                | 3         | 3.0      |
| Takaro                    | 5         | 5.0      |
| Ghora Abashi              | 7         | 7.0      |
| Shiaria                   | 2         | 2.0      |
| Sania Daliaba             | 2         | 2.0      |
| Yao Yao                   | 7         | 7.0      |
| Diraib El-Rieh            | 1         | 1.0      |
| Donki Direaisa            | 2         | 2.0      |
| EL-Malam                  | 6         | 6.0      |
| Abu Ajowra                | 1         | 1.0      |
| Riheid El-Birdi           | 2         | 2.0      |

Table NO (4.5) CONT

| Location     | F   | %     |
|--------------|-----|-------|
| Ghibaish     | 3   | 3.0   |
| Um Khair     | 1   | 1.0   |
| Shataya      | 1   | 1.0   |
| Khazan Jadid | 1   | 1.0   |
| Total        | 100 | 100.0 |

**Source: Field survey 2018**

Table 4-5 show that most of women come from different areas that mean they are multi- cultural and have also different ideas about participation of women in development.

#### **4-6 Time of displacement**

Table 4-6: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by Time of displacement

| <b>Time of displacement</b> | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------------|-----------|---------|
| less than 3 years           | 3         | 3.0     |
| 4 - 6 years                 | 3         | 3.0     |
| 7 - 10 years                | 24        | 24.0    |
| 11- 15                      | 53        | 53.0    |
| 15 years and more           | 17        | 17.0    |
| Total                       | 100       | 100.0   |

**Source: Field survey 2018**

Table 4.6 illustrated that 53% of the respondent stay in camps form 11 – 15 years and 24% lived for 7-10 years .more than 15 years are 17 % those are present the before conflict

#### 4-7 Household Headed before

Table 4-7: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by Household Head before displacement

| Household Headed before | Percent | Percent |
|-------------------------|---------|---------|
| Husband                 | 43      | 43.0    |
| Wife                    | 12      | 12.0    |
| Father                  | 42      | 42.0    |
| Relatives               | 3       | 3.0     |
| Total                   | 100     | 100.0   |

Source: Field survey 2018

Table 4.7 shows that 43% of respondent husband headed the house before conflict and 42 % are father but women headed are 12% that mean before war the husband and father are the main responsible for the family and due to the death of the men in conflict the situation changed.

#### 4-8: Household Head after Displacement

Table 4-8: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by Household Head after Displacement

| Household Headed after | Frequency | Percent |
|------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Husband                | 29        | 29.0    |
| Wife                   | 62        | 62.0    |
| Sons                   | 5         | 5.0     |
| Daughters              | 3         | 3.0     |
| Relatives              | 1         | 1.0     |
| Total                  | 100       | 100.0   |

Source: Field survey 2018

Table 4.8 shows that women head 62% of respondent the house and 29 % are husband but 5% are sons and daughters. Mainly women are responsible from all the activities in and outside the house after displacement.

#### **4-9: The Reason behind the women be Household Head in Camp**

Table 4-9: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by Household Headed in Camp

| <b>Why women be Household</b> | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> |
|-------------------------------|------------------|----------------|
| N/A                           | 15               | 15.0           |
| husband death                 | 33               | 33.0           |
| husband unemployment          | 22               | 18.0           |
| Husband migration             | 18               | 14.0           |
| inability of Sons             | 12               | 8.0            |
| Other                         | -                | -              |
| Total                         | 100              | 100.0          |

**Source: Field survey 2018**

Table No.4.9 show that due to the death of the husband, 33% of women became house head in camp and women head 22% because the husband are unable to work for illness and adults. While 18% due to the migration of husbands that mean women are responsible from all the family responsibility, look after children and so on.

#### 4-10: Women economic role in the camp:

Table 4-10: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by the women economic role in the camp:

| women economic role             | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| collecting and buying fire wood | 21        | 21         |
| Handy Crafts                    | 24        | 20         |
| commercial activity             | 25        | 25         |
| working NGO's committees        | 30        | 30         |
| Other                           | -         | -          |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4.10 shows that the 30% of respondent are working in NGOs as committees members while 42% are handy crafts and 37% work as commercial activities. These mean women depend on the work in NGO committees as volunteer. In addition, waiting for the fees coming from these committees.

#### 4-11: The participation at any committee inside community.

Table 4-11: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by participation at any committee inside community

| participation in any committees | Frequency | Percent% |
|---------------------------------|-----------|----------|
| Participate                     | 92        | 92.0     |
| Not participate                 | 8         | 8.0      |
| Total                           | 100       | 100.0    |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-11 show that 92 % from the respondents participate in committees inside the camps and only 8% work other activities inside and outside the camps in that illustrated women are highly active in participation in committees and development activities and also are more aware about importance of participation in community.

#### 4-12 :An important committee in camp?

Table 4-12: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by important committee in camp?

| Type                            | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Educational services committees | 36        | 36.0       |
| Health services committees      | 42        | 42.0       |
| relief distribution committees  | 22        | 22.0       |
| other                           |           |            |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-12 shows that 42% of the committees are working in health committee while 22% of the relief distribution committees plays major role in the camps and 36% of respondents are education services committees

#### 4-13: Ccommittees establishment.

Table 4-13: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by and when these committees are established

|              | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|
| 10 years ago | 57        | 57.0    |
| 8 years ago  | 37        | 37.0    |
| 5 years ago  | 6         | 60      |
| others       | -         | -       |
| Total        | 100       | 100.0   |

**Field survey 2018**

The table shows that the 57% of from the committees established 10 years ago while 37% have 8 bean years from the establishment

#### **4-14: The number of women in committee**

Table 4-14: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by number of women in each committee

|             | Frequency | Percent |
|-------------|-----------|---------|
| Less than 2 | 2         | 2.0     |
| 3 - 5       | 48        | 48.0    |
| 6 - 8       | 13        | 13.0    |
| 9 and more  | 37        | 37.0    |
| Total       | 100       | 100.0   |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4.14 illustrated that 48% of committees members of women present between 3-5 members in each committees while 37% present 9 and more members .

#### **4-15: The number of men in committee**

Table 4-15: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by the number of men in each committee

| <b>number of men in each committee</b> | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> |
|--|------------------|----------------|
| Less than 2 members                    | 5                | 5.0            |
| 3 - 5 member                           | 7                | 7.0            |
| 6 - 8                                  | 6                | 6.0            |
| 9 and more                             | 82               | 82.0           |
| Total                                  | 100              | 100.0          |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4.15 illustrated that 82% of men in committee are more than 9 in some committers which represent 82% of the members, while in others number of women of not exceed 3-5 members 7%. Therefore, the number of men is high in all committees

#### 4-16: Who established these committees?

Table 4-16: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by and who established these committees

| <b>Establish the subcommittees</b> | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent %</b> |
|------------------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Government                         | 4                | 4.0              |
| Civil society organization         | 73               | 73.0             |
| UN agencies                        | 21               | 21               |
| all of them                        | 2                | 2.0              |
| Total                              | 100              | 100.0            |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-16 shows that 73% of committees established by civil society organizations and the government established only 4% of the committees, which means provided services by government are low.

#### 4-17: position in the committee?

Table 4-17: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by position in the committee?

| <b>Position in the committee?</b> | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Chair men                         | 7                | 7.0            |
| Finance official                  | 24               | 24.0           |
| Secretary                         | 1                | 1.0            |
| Member                            | 68               | 68.0           |
| Others                            | -                | -              |
| Total                             | 100              | 100.0          |

**Field survey 2018:**

Table 4-17 shows women present 68% of the members, only 24% of them are Finance official and this reflects dominance of men on this position.



#### 4-18: How members are chosen to the committees?

Table 4-18: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by member is chosen to committee?

| Member chosen to committee | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------------------|-----------|---------|
| By Election                | 23        | 23.0    |
| By appointment             | 45        | 45.0    |
| Both                       | 32        | 32.0    |
| Others                     | -         | -       |
| Total                      | 100       | 100.0   |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-18 shows 45% of the committees members are assigned by appointment and 32% are selected by both appointment and election

#### 4-19: Women as a member in these committees.

Table 4-19: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by is there other women members in these committees

| other women as a member in | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Women in committee         | 97        | 97.0    |
| No women in committee      | 3         | 3.0     |
| Total                      | 100       | 100.0   |

**Field survey 2018**

Table- 19 shows that 97% of respondent are members in the committees while 3% are local leaders in the camps. This mean that women are full participants in committees established by NGOs and UN agencies.

#### 4-20: The nature of committee work

Table 4-20: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents according to the nature of committee work?

| Type   | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Awareness  | 30        | 30         |
| distributing inputs and means                      | 20        | 20         |
| Training   | 24        | 24         |
| motivating community to participate in Development | 26        | 26         |
| Others   | -         | -          |
| Total  | 100       | 100.0      |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-20 illustrated that 30% of respondents are upgrading the people awareness in the community. 26 percentage are motivating the community to participate in development activities.

#### 4-21: the committees have permanent location?

Table 4-21: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents have permanent location for the committee

| location for the committee | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Committee Have location    | 67        | 67.0    |
| Not have location          | 33        | 33.0    |
| Total                      | 100       | 100.0   |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-21 shows that 67 of the respondents mentioned that they have permanent location for the committees while 33% said that they have no permanent location for the committee.

#### 4-22: is permanent place for the committee if the its no

Table 4-22: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by if the answer (No), why

|                                       | Frequency | Percent |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|---------|
| its voluntary committees              | 20        | 20.0    |
| the meeting in determined time        | 2         | 2.0     |
| the people does not able to get place | 10        | 10.0    |
| rural place                           | 1         | 1.0     |
| N/A                                   | -         | -       |
| Total                                 | 33        | 100.0   |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-22 shows that the 20% of the members mentioned that its voluntary committees have no especial place for conducting their activities. They perform their activities anywhere even under any tree.

#### 4-23: The source of income for the committee

Table 4-23: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by what is the source of income for the committee?

| Type                  | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------|
| Donation              | 28        | 28         |
| Sharing               | 32        | 32         |
| Governmental supports | 5         | 5          |
| NGO's Supports        | 81        | 81         |
| Total                 | 100       | 100        |

**Source: Field survey 2018**

Table 4-23 illustrated that 81% of the respondents mentioned they receive their income from NGOs support and 32 % mentioned that they get income from their shares with each other.

#### 4-24: Received any training course

Table 4-24: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents if they received any training course in the current place.

| receive any training course | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Yes received                | 94        | 94.0    |
| Not received                | 6         | 6.0     |
| Total                       | 100       | 100.0   |

Source: Field survey 2018

Table 4-24: shows that 94% of respondent received training while 6% did not receive any training

#### 4-25: The kind of training course received current .

Table 4-25: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by If the answer is (Yes), what the type of this training

| Type of training                       | Frequency | Percent |
|--|-----------|---------|
| improved stoves                        | 15        | 17.0    |
| First Aids                             | 7         | 7.0     |
| Handy Crafts                           | 11        | 11.0    |
| WASH project                           | 6         | 6.0     |
| cooking activities                     | 5         | 5.0     |
| health orientation                     | 10        | 13.0    |
| Women leadership in community training | 5         | 5.0     |
| food industries                        | 3         | 3.0     |
| community leading                      | 11        | 11.0    |
| most of them                           | 15        | 16.0    |
| N/A                                    | 6         | 6.0     |
| Total                                  | 94        | 100.0   |

Source: Field survey 2018

Table above it shows that the most type of training is improved stoves (15%) 10% in health education and 11% in community leading. Women leadership training represents 5% only. this means respondents need more training and participation in leadership.

#### 4-26: Enough training

Table 4-26: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by training enough

| <b>training is enough</b> | Frequency | Percent |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Enough training           | 20        | 20.0    |
| Not enough training       | 60        | 60.0    |
| sometime                  | 20        | 20.0    |
| Total                     | 100       | 100.0   |

**Source: Field survey 2018**

From the respondents point of view of the they think the training received is not enough and it shows that 60% of them still need more training in different items While 20 % feel that it is enough. The most importance thing the respondent mentioned that they need more training to become more aware of the important things to the community, especially attenuations to the leadership.

#### 4-27 : participation in the committees' decision making

Table 4-27: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by participating in the committees' decision making

| committees' decision making | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Participate                 | 44        | 44.0    |
| Not Participate             | 12        | 12.0    |
| Sometimes                   | 44        | 44.0    |
| Total                       | 100       | 100.0   |

**Source: Field survey 2018**

Table 4-27 shows that 44% of the members participate in decision-making process. In addition, the same numbers mentioned they do sometime participate, and only 12% said no.

#### **4-28: If you participate in the committees' decision making**

Table 4-28: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by if the answer is (No), explain why

| <b>participate in the committees' decision making</b> | Frequency | Percent |
|---|-----------|---------|
| the hard living condition                             | 2         | 2.0     |
| No obligation to decide                               | 2         | 2.0     |
| the men dominant in decision making process           | 8         | 8.0     |
| N/A   | 88        | 88.0    |
| Total   | 100       | 100.0   |

**Source: Field survey 2018**

Table 4- 28 shows that the 88% from respondent mention that men are fully dominating the decision making. That means women do not have chance to participate in decisions making process.

#### **4-29: Ccommunication among the committees' members.**

Table 4-29: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by communication among the committees' members

| <b>Communication among the committees' members</b> | Frequency | Percent |
|--|-----------|---------|
| Have communication                                 | 96        | 96.0    |
| Not have   | 4         | 4.0     |
| Total  | 100       | 100.0   |

**Source: Field survey 2018**

Table 4-29 shows that 96% of the respondents say that there is communication among them. That means they have good communication and good relationship between them.

#### 4-30 : What are the means of communication

Table 4-30: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by what are the means communication ?

| means communication    | Frequency | Percent |
|------------------------|-----------|---------|
| By phone               | 60        | 60.0    |
| personal communication | 11        | 11.0    |
| Radio TV               | 1         | 1.0     |
| most of them           | 24        | 24.0    |
| N/A                    | 4         | 4.0     |
| Total                  | 100       | 100.0   |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-31 shows that 60% of respondent communicate by phone system to each other, that means all of them have phones to facilitate their performance as committee members .

#### 4-31 : encouraging women to participate in the committee

Table 4-31: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by how you encouraging women to participate in the committee

| encourage women to participate in the committee | Frequency | Percent |
|---|-----------|---------|
| Awareness campaign                              | 65        | 65.0    |
| community motivation                            | 18        | 18.0    |
| Training  | 14        | 14.0    |
| all of them                                     | 3         | 3.0     |
| Total   | 100       | 100.0   |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-31 illustrates that 65% of the committee member's focus are awareness campaign to encourage women to participate in committees as general and in development activities as a whole

**4-32: expectation that women are more affected by development problems than men**

Table 4-32: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by expecting that women are more affected by developmental problems more than men

| No, of women effected | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------|-----------|---------|
| effected              | 94        | 94.0    |
| Not effected          | 4         | 4.0     |
| I Don't Know          | 2         | 2.0     |
| Total                 | 100       | 100.0   |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-32 shows that 94% of women face conflicts than men. Their number in camps is large and they suffer from living problems.

**4-33: Explain the reasons behind the above**

Table 4-33: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by (Yes), explain the reasons

| Answer yes   | Frequency | Percent |
|--|-----------|---------|
| N/A  | 6         | 6.0     |
| husband death  | 12        | 12.0    |
| Absence of Husband                                   | 17        | 17.0    |
| women carrying the household responsibility          | 50        | 56.0    |
| the men affected by was                              | 6         | 6.0     |
| the community member depend on women for their needs | 1         | 1.0     |
| there is no money                                    | 1         | 1.0     |
| women are illiterate                                 | 1         | 1.0     |
| Total  | 94        | 100.0   |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-33 shows that 50% of women carryinout the household responsibility of the family inside and outside home, and 17% suffer from husband absence of them tacking the responsibility.



**4-34: important suggestions to encourage women to participate in humanitarian relief**

Table 4-34: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by important suggestions to encourage women to participate in humanitarian relief

| <b>suggestions to encourage women to participate in humanitarian relief</b> | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Participating in Development  | 25        | 25         |
| Participating in committees   | 15        | 15         |
| raising women awareness in their rights                                     | 33        | 33         |
| Participating in decision Making process                                    | 33        | 33         |
| Other   | -         | -          |
| Total   | 100       | 100.0      |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-34 shows that 33% of committee members suggest that to encourage women to participate by raising their awareness through knowing their rights and 30 % think those women should be encourage participating in committees

**4-35: important problems faced**

Table 4-35: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by What are important problems faced in the committee?

| <b>important problems</b> | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Financial problem         | 35        | 35         |
| social problems           | 25        | 25         |
| anti-opinion problems     | 40        | 40         |
| other                     | -         | -          |
| Total                     | 100       | 100.0      |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4- 35 shows that 40% of respondents mentioned the financial problems as the major problems, and 35 % mentioned the anti-opinion problems.

#### 4-36 : committees' future plans

Table 4-36: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by the committees' future plans

| <b>committees' future plans</b>            | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| More women participation in committees     | 33        | 33         |
| training support                           | 40        | 40         |
| Encouraging community towards women issues | 21        | 21         |
| Other                                      | -         | -          |
| Total                                      | 100       | 100.0      |

**Field survey 2018**

Table4-36 shows that 40% of the respondents encourage women training more forward for realigning women goals in the community.

4-37 : what are important assistances women are presenting in the committees.

**Table 4-37: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by important assistances women presenting in the committees**

| <b>important assistances</b>   | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| assisting in food distribution | 22        | 22         |
| assisting in organizing IDP's  | 32        | 32         |
| distributing food cards        | 40        | 40         |
| Other                          | -         | -          |
| Total                          | 100       | 100.0      |

**Field survey 2018**

Table 4-37 shows that 40 % of women would like to assist in food distributions and provision of food cards, while 32% of respondent assisting in organizing IDPs.

#### **4-38 : the future vision at these committees**

Table 4-38: Frequency distribution and percentage of respondents by future vision at these committees?

| <b>future vision at these committees</b>     | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| increasing committees members                | 24        | 24         |
| increasing the number of women in committees | 23        | 20         |
| increasing the training and awareness        | 52        | 52         |
| other  | -         | -          |
| Total  | 100       | 100.0      |

#### **Field survey 2018**

Table 4-38 shows that 52% of respondents like to have more training promote and awareness of women and community members in camps. While 24% like to increase, the number of women participates in committees

## **Chapter Five**

### **Results, Conclusions and Recommendations**

## Chapter Five

### Results, Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter presents the results, conclusions and recommendations of the research.

#### 5.1 Results:-

1. 66% present the age of respondents ranging between 31-50.
2. 40% of respondents are illiterate.
3. 75% of respondents are married.
4. 84% of respondents have no jobs.
5. 16% of respondents come from different areas.
6. 53% of respondents stayed in camps for 11 – 15 years.
7. 43% of respondents were in husband headed the houses before conflict.
8. 62% of respondents house headed by women.
9. 33% of respondents of women are became family heads.
- 10.30% of respondents working in NGO as committees members .
- 11.92 % of respondents participate in committees inside the camps.
12. 42% of respondents of the committees are working in health committees.
- 13.37% of respondents work in committees established before10 years.
- 14.48% of respondents committees the number of women present between 2-5.
- 15.82%of respondents work in committees the number of men between 9 and more.
- 16.73% of respondents work in committees established by civil society organizations.
17. 64% of respondents were women members.
18. 41% of respondents of the committees members were chosen by appointment.
- 19.97% of respondents were members in committees.
- 20.30% of respondents work to upgrade awareness.

- 21.67% of the respondents mentioned that they have permanent place for the committees.
- 22.67% of the members mentioned that the committees have no specific place.
- 23.81% of the respondents received their income from NGOs support.
- 24.94% of respondents received training.
25. 17% of the respondents received improved stoves training .
26. 60% of the respondents think the training they received is not enough.
27. 44% of members they participate in decision making process.
28. 88% of the respondents mentationed that men are fully dominant in decision making.
- 29.96% of the respondents say that they communicate with each other.
- 30.60% of respondents communicate by using phones.
31. 65% of the respondents who are committee members focus on awareness. campaign to encourage women to participate in committees
- 32.94% of the women respondents are more effected by conflict than men.
33. 56% of respondents women carrying the household responsibility inside and outside the family.
- 34.30% of respondents of committee members suggest to encourage women to participate through raising women awareness of their rights.
- 35.43% of respondents mentioned the financial problems are major problems facing them.
- 36.40% of the respondents encourage women to drive the community towards women important goals.
- 37.40 % of respondents to assist in food distributions and food cards.
38. 52% of respondents like to increase training and awareness rising to women and all community members in camps.

## **5.2 Conclusion**

### **The study concluded that :**

1. Rural leaders, especially women benefit from training programs provided by different humanitarian organizations in promoting their abilities
2. It was found that personal characteristics play a main role in decision – making process and in involvement of women in development activities in the camps.
3. In addition, it was found that most of the women who joined the committees their age range between 35-45years.
4. Women were not able to identify their community problems needs.
5. Women did not face any problems during training and dealing with their communities.
6. The training received was not enough to upgrade their awareness and leadership in the community, so they need more training course to support them.
7. Finally, it can be concluded that personal characteristics have very important role in development of the women's decision-making process.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

The researcher had many suggestions follow as:

#### **1. NGOs**

- a- Should Improve women status of their participation in the working committees to ensure their full and active participation .it is found that women are not fully involved
- b- Most of development programmes in camps engineered by NGOs whether local or international. NGOs and local authorities focus needs to be maintained on capacity building programs to ensure that community members have received skills training and knowledge.
- c- The challenges for NGOs, donors agencies and all other actors should be involved in how to make genuine efforts to provide favorable conditions and appropriate forms of support for local initiatives and pay special attention to women.

#### **2. Government**

- a- The government should at least play the role of accord to national groups with to NGOs to ensure that every body and place is reached and served.
- b- Government support, decision making process to be communicated beyond tribal leaders and village elites to include all the community members.

#### **3. Women leaders**

- a- Empowerment needs women marginalized groups to strengthen their position within the community by enabling them to ensure that their specific needs were being addressed.



- b- Women should be encouraged by their communities to join the meetings and events.
- c- Women need to make more efforts for their capacity to ensure that they carry out their development activities and also they need to be provided by basic financial support.

#### **4. Local community**

- a- Encourage educated women and youth to participate in the committees.
- b- Communities should think increasingly in terms of developing self-reliance through all projects cycles.
- c- Establishment of relevant institutions to enable the target group to participate in their process of development at grass-root level.(NGOs, government. and IDPs)
- d- Development should be for people, by people and with people (people involvement in all stages of development from planning –up to evaluation).
- e- Community contributions financial or material, should be used to maximize the impacts of development interventions and community ownership.
- f- Development organizations, agencies in any interventions for rural development should start from where people are, as it is in multi- cultural places like camps. Community based organizations should be a model for bringing all together effective tools for mobilizing the diver's communities toward diverse democracy.

**g-** Communities face many difficulties to impalement many initiatives. This is mainly because of lack of fund and partly because many of the participants do not understand the concept of participatory development.

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# Appendix