

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF RELIEF AID ON HOUSEHOLDS'
LIVELIHOODS IN DHOBLEY TOWN, LOWER JUBA, SOMALIA**

BY

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DECLARATION

Declaration by student

I hereby certify that this thesis is entirely my original work, and that it has not been submitted for this or any other degree or award. Therefore, no part should be reproduced except in fair dealings and academic discourse and reference/acknowledgement done.

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DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my parents, my wife Safia Mohammed and my children Sumaya, Tabitha, Hamza, Khalil and Zuheyla for bearing up with me when I could not be there for them. You are the epitome of God's faithfulness in my life.

My profound gratitude goes to all people who immensely contributed to the success of this study. All the assistance and support given is highly appreciated. May God bless you!!

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ABSTRACT

The question as to whether or not foreign aid enhances economic growth and efficiency in resource use has long been debated, but still no consensus has been reached among researchers and policy makers. The purpose of this study was to explore the socioeconomic effects of relief aid on households' livelihoods in Dhobley town, Lower Juba, Somalia. The research specifically aimed at analyzing socioeconomic factors contributing to relief dependency among households in Dhobley; examining the role of aid agencies on improving the livelihoods of vulnerable households in Dhobley town; determining the effects of humanitarian assistance on beneficiary households; and evaluating donor strategies on delivering aid to local communities. The study targeted 410 vulnerable households living in Dhobley town. A sample size of 132 household heads was chosen using McDaniel and Gates, (2004) formula. Purposive sampling procedure was used to select 10 town officers, 4 aid workers and 5 headmen as key informants. Interview questionnaires for household heads and interview schedules for government officers, aid agencies and headmen were used to collect data. The reliability was determined using test-retest method, with a cut-off point of 0.7. The data collected was both qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative data was analyzed using content analysis while quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive methods. This involved compiling data using MS Excel and SPSS statistical package. Data was presented by the use of frequency tables, graphs and pie charts. The study revealed that aid has mixed socioeconomic effects. On one hand, long-term provision of aid has created relief mentality, laziness and eroded local resilience. On the other hand, it improved the living standard of households through provision of basic services and promotion of local trade and investment in the short-run. The study indicated that aid agencies emphasized emergency life-saving programs than development interventions. The top-down approach of aid provision by donors ignores the underlying causes of poverty and local priorities. The study recommends relevant stakeholders to come up with relevant and practical strategies that can minimize aid dependency and emphasize long-term resilience of the target communities.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ADESO	Africa Development Society
AMISOM	Africa Mission in Somalia
ARC	American Rescue Committee
CBOs	Community Based Organizations
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DFID	Department for International Development (UK)
EC	European Commission
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization (UN)
FBOs	Faith Based Organizations
FSNAU	Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit
FTS	Financial Tracking Service
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
IDPs	Internally Displaced Peoples
IMF	International Monetary Fund
LDC	Less Developed Countries
NGO(s)	Non-governmental Organizations
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNHCR	United Nations Higher Commissions for Refugee
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
UNOCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Programme

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Capital asset	Include all kinds of property movable or immovable, fixed or calculating.
Coping mechanisms	The survival ways in which affected communities manages natural shocks (droughts) or man-made shocks (conflict).
Dependency syndrome	Is an attitude and belief that a group cannot solve its own problem without outside support
Humanitarian aid	Assistance provided for humanitarian purposes, typically in response to humanitarian crises including natural disasters and man-made disaster.
Livelihoods	A livelihood is a means of making a living. It encompasses people's capabilities, assets, income and activities required to secure the necessities of life.
Poverty	For the purposes of this study, poverty refers to a state of material and non-material deprivation which may be caused by socio-cultural, economic or political factors.
Resilience	The capacity to recover quickly from difficulties.
Sustainable Development	Widely understood as a form of progress that incorporates economic, social and environmental factors.
Vulnerability	The state of being weak to natural and man-made shocks.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This section analyses the background of the study, Statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, hypotheses, significance, scope, limitations and conceptual framework that form the basis of the study.

1.2 Background of the Study

Relief aid has long been a major topic of interest, both between governments and in academic studies. Official aid is often criticized for not have contributed to economic growth and poverty reduction. Relief aid is always presented as altruistic endeavor on the part of industrial countries, the motivate is to help the Third World nations in Africa, Asia and Latin America achieve progress and development similar to that of the North. However, the impact of foreign aid in the last half century is not impressive. If relief aid was extended to arrest famine, disease, malnutrition, pandemics, and societal disorder, its goal has not been met and its impact is meaningless. This is particularly true with respect to Africa (Tseggai, 2006).

There are many studies that have examined the effect of aid on growth. Some studies have found positive effects, some conditional effects and others no effects. Given the wide range of findings and the debates that they have prompted Burnside, and Dollar (2000) reignited the aid effectiveness debate when they found that while aid has no effect on growth on average, aid works in a good policy environment.

Does aid promote economic growth? Interest in this question has grown as large infusions of aid to developing countries have been recommended in recent years as a means of escaping poverty traps and promoting development (Sachs et al., 2004; Sachs 2005a, 2005b). Major efforts have been underway to mobilize resources for increases in aid (e.g., through an International Financing Facility). In contrast, some have argued that aid has historically been ineffective in promoting growth (Easterly, 2007a, 2007b) and large increases in aid are therefore undesirable. An intermediate position has been that more aid spurs growth under specific conditions, such as when countries have good macroeconomic policies (Burnside and Dollar, 2000).

Development aid in the world's poorest countries, particularly in Africa, make up a high percentage both of national incomes and of the government budgets and this study focuses on whether relief food supplies inhibits or encourages socio-economic development or reduction of poverty. A fear of creating dependency is sometimes used by aid agencies as a justification for scaling back relief entitlements in terms of coverage, the amount of aid provided and the timescale of provision, (Karim, 2006).

Duffied (2003), contends that in the Republic of Congo, in a study on relief dependency, non- governmental organizations were very concerned about food aid dependency and its effects on economic development. The study found out that humanitarian actors were engaged in was premature developmentalism. Food relief supplies and other forms of aids has often been seen as the most visible, if not the only form of international engagement in long running crises such as those in Uganda, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo (Macraw, 2001). In these contexts, there is tendency to criticize food

relief supplies for failing to improve the situation and enable a movement towards recovery development (Barret and Carter, 2002).

There is a protracted relief situation in some parts of Somalia. A history of receiving relief food supplies assistance is superimposed over the situation of deteriorating livelihood. The state of some of the inhabitants is characterized by the loss of coping capabilities, inability to lift out of situations of deep poverty and dependence on food aid accompanied by the situation of destitution observed in other parts of the horn of Africa (Dean, 2004).

The political situation in Somalia has been uncertain since civil war began in 1991. The lack of an effective central government has been one of the causes of worsening infrastructure, decline in basic health and social services, violation of human rights and one of the worst socioeconomic situations in the world. Humanitarian organizations' have referred to the situation in Somalia as "the worst crisis on the continent." (Karim, 2006).

Somalia is at the heart of one of the worst humanitarian crises in the world today. Twenty years of conflict and waves of drought have uprooted a quarter of the country's 7.5 million people. As the region faces its most severe drought in 60 years, the Somali exodus is growing fast. In the first half of 2011 alone, more than 83,000 Somalis fled into Kenya and over 54,000 into Ethiopia. In July, daily arrivals in each country ranged from 1,300 to 1,700. An additional 2,600 Somalis had crossed the north-western border into Djibouti by mid-2011 (UNHCR, 2010).

Somalia is judged as the most acutely failed state in the world (Foreign Policy, 2011). A failed state is a country characterized by poverty, insecurity, and a disregard for human rights. In introducing this year's current ranking, *Foreign Policy* wrote, "Somalia's unending woes are the stuff hopelessness is made of." The purchasing power parity adjusted Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of Somalia is \$5.4 billion, or a per capita income of \$600, given its population of nine million (World Bank, 2010). Somalia ranks at the bottom of the community of nations regardless of which index is used.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

A new study commissioned by the United Nations estimates 258,000 people died in Somalia as a result of food insecurity during a period of famine (FSNAU, 2013). The report continued to state that about 2.7 million people were still in need of assistance in Somalia. As a result, UN appealed for \$1.33 billion for three years 2013-2015 Somalia Consolidated Appeal Process (UNOCHA, 2013). Given these statistics, it is difficult to quarrel with the need for both humanitarian and development aid to Somalia.

The annual aid, including humanitarian, that reached Somalia was in the hundreds of millions of U.S. dollars. On September 2013, Donors had pledged 1.8bn Euros (\$2.4bn; £1.5bn) at a conference in Brussels to help Somalia end more than two decades of conflict. In 2015, a total of US\$602.6 million was reported as committed or contributed to Somalia. The US was the largest donor, giving over a third of the total (US\$221.1 million). The UK (US\$69.4 million) and EU (European Union) Institutions (US\$43.4 million) were the second and third largest donors in the same year (FTS, 2015). Yet the

main questions are: Is aid effective in Somalia? Does it focus on building the long-term resilience of Somali communities?

The question as to whether or not foreign aid enhances economic growth and efficiency in resource use has long been debated, but still no consensus is found among researchers and policy makers. In spite of numerous studies, there is little evidence of a significant positive effect of aid on the long-term growth of poor countries. Politically important results showing that aid works better when policy environment is conducive to growth have proven not to hold when data is expanded and/or new variables added.

Foreign aid is supposed to transfer resources and know-how from the richer countries to the less developed countries like Somalia in order to accelerate social and economic development. Unfortunately, foreign aid to Somalia has not produced the expected results. Long-term provision of aid to people in need of assistance in Somalia has been associated with fear of creating a dependency syndrome. The primary concerns are that beneficiaries will lose the motivation to work in order to improve their own livelihoods after receiving benefits, or that they will deliberately reduce their work efforts in order to qualify for the transfer.

This study therefore strived to answer the question of whether long-term recipients of aid develop a dependency syndrome, reducing their own efforts to improve their livelihoods, by analyzing the behavior and livelihoods activities of aid beneficiary households in Dhobley, where aid has been provided every year for over two decades.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The main objective of the study was to evaluate the socio-economic effects of relief aid on households' livelihoods in Dhobley town, Lower Juba, Somalia.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

- i. To analyze factors contributing to relief dependency among households in Dhobley.
- ii. To examine the role of aid agencies on improving the livelihoods of vulnerable households in Dhobley town.
- iii. To determine the effects of humanitarian assistance on beneficiary households in Dhobley.
- iv. To evaluate donor strategies on delivering aid to local communities.

1.6 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- i. What are the factors contributing to relief dependence among households in Dhobley town?
- ii. Which roles do aid agencies play on improving the livelihoods of vulnerable households of Dhobley?
- iii. How does humanitarian assistance affect beneficiary households in Dhobley?
- iv. How do locals evaluate donor strategies towards reducing dependency among local communities in Dhobley?

1.7 Significance of the Study

The results of the study are intended to add to the pool of knowledge on the fairly under researched area on influence of relief food dependency on household livelihood within Dhobley community. Similarly, the results will serve as an empirical basis for future policy-making in the area of food policy especially for Dhobley town. Finally, the results are expected to offer valuable insights to planners in NGOs and the government regarding the types of projects to initiate in pastoralist communities.

Given its dismal development records, Africa falls short of being able to provide its people with adequate resources, to have even the basic capabilities to feed its population and prepare suitable ground for development. The need for foreign aid in these countries seems indisputable. Particularly, today, with soaring fuel and food prices, aid to Africa has even become more essential and timely (Rena, 2008).

Nevertheless, this does not mean that, African nations should submissively accept any political conditions that could open the gate for foreigners to meddle in the internal affairs of the continent as an exchange for any sort of aid. Freedom of sovereign political decision should not be compromised for any charity in the name of foreign aid. Foreign aid can only be valuable, if the recipient country benefits from it in the reduction and elimination of poverty, inequality and unemployment through promotion of work-culture. It can only be realized by bringing cultural transformation to the existing deep-rooted dependency and parasitism, through helping people to help themselves. Aid should not be considered as a principal factor for development; rather it should only be regarded as a

necessary compliment to the domestic efforts nurtured by culture of self-reliance and hard work, because aid cannot be depended upon indefinitely.

1.8 Scope of the Study

The study focused on local communities who depended on relief supplies in Dhobley Town, Lower Juba region. The findings of the study were generalized to people living in southern and central parts of Somalia, Puntland and Somaliland regions as well; however, they can be used by other scholars to generate relevant information about other similar geographical areas.

1.9 Limitation of the Study

Security and accessibility to major parts of Somalia is a great challenge. The study was limited to Dhobley Town, which is near Kenya-Somali border and therefore more stable compared to other regions of South and central Somalia. Finally, the researcher had limited financial resources given the scope of the work to be done in the field and would have needed sponsorship or partial contribution of NGOs or donors interested in the research area. This made the study to focus on a given sample of respondents that was manageable.

1.10 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework is defined as the result of when a researcher conceptualizes the relationship between variables in the study and shows the relationship graphically or diagrammatically (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

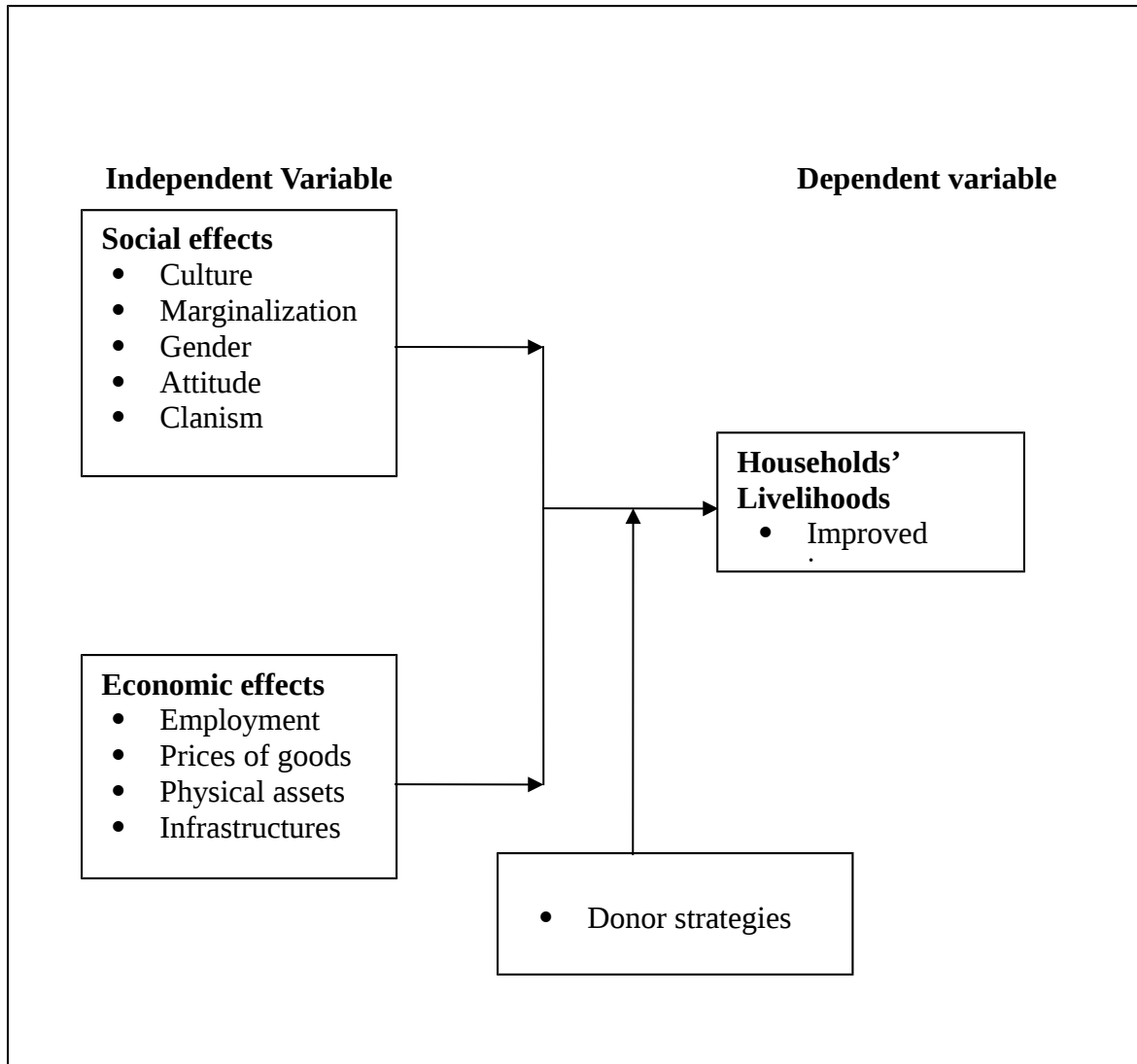


Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Author (2017)

The independent variable of interest in this case is social and economic factors of relief aid, which guides the dependence variable households' livelihoods. Donor strategies, government regulations and humanitarian access together have a great role on aid effectiveness.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

This chapter reviews empirical literature in line with the objectives of the study by analyzing the relationship between Aid and economic growth, the history of foreign aid in Somalia, the role of humanitarian aid in Somalia, aid dependency syndrome and donor strategies on delivering aid to target beneficiaries.

2.2 Foreign Aid and Socio-economic Development

There are many studies that have examined the effect of aid on growth. Some studies have found positive effects, some conditional effects and others no effects. Given the wide range of findings and the debates that they have prompted Burnside and Dollar (2000) reignited the aid effectiveness debate when they found that while aid has no effect on growth on average, aid works in a good policy environment.

Does aid promote economic growth and economic development? Interest in this question has grown as large infusions of aid to developing countries have been recommended in recent years as a means of escaping poverty traps and promoting development (Sachs et al., 2004; Sachs 2005a, 2005b). Major efforts have been underway to mobilize resources for increases in aid (e.g., through International Financing Facility). In contrast, some have argued that aid has historically been ineffective in promoting economic growth and development (Easterly, 2007a, 2007b) and large increases in aid are therefore undesirable. An intermediate position has been that more aid spurs growth under specific

conditions, such as when countries have good macroeconomic policies (Burnside and Dollar, 2000).

The relationship between foreign aid and economic growth and development has drawn great attention for years, but the empirical results are mixed. There is now a large literature on the relationship between aid and growth Hudson (2004) and McGillivray, *et al.* (2006).

The main role of foreign aid in stimulating economic growth is to supplement domestic sources of finance such as savings, thus increasing the amount of investment and capital stock. As Morrissey (2001) points out, there are a number of mechanisms through which aid can contribute to economic growth and development stated as follows: (a) aid increases investment, in terms of physical and human capital; (b) aid increases the capacity to import capital goods or technology; (c) aid does not have indirect effects that reduce investment or savings rates; and aid is associated with technology transfer that increases the productivity of capital and promotes endogenous technical change. According to McGillivray, *et al.* (2006), states that there are four main alternative views on the effectiveness of aid, these views are: (a) aid has decreasing returns, (b) aid effectiveness is influenced by external and climatic conditions, (c) aid effectiveness is influenced by political conditions, and (d) aid effectiveness depends on institutional quality.

McGillivray (2005) found out that aid to African countries not only increases economic and development but also reduces poverty. Furthermore, he points out that the continuous growing poverty, mainly in sub-Saharan African countries, compromises the Millennium

Development Goals (MDGs) main target of dropping the percentage of people living in extreme poverty to half the 1990 level by 2015.

Quattara (2006) in another study over the period of 1970 – 2000, focused on the interaction between aid and debt. The outcomes of Quattara's study indicated that; (a) a large portion of aid flows, approximately 41%, are used to finance Senegal's debt and 20% of the government's resources are devoted to debt servicing; (b) the impact of aid flows on domestic expenditures is statistically insignificant; and (c) debt servicing has a significant negative effect on domestic expenditure. Quattara therefore suggested that paper suggests that debt reduction could become a more successful policy tool than obtaining additional loans.

Addison, Mavrotas and McGillivray (2005) examined trends in official aid to Africa over the period 1960 to 2002. The authors largely emphasize the tremendous decrease in aid over the last decade which will have an impact on Africans living in poverty and the African economy as a whole. As a result of the shortfall in aid, the MDGs will be much harder if not impossible to be achieved. They conclude that aid in fact does promote growth and reduces poverty.

Karras (2006) investigates the correlation between foreign aid and growth in per capita GDP using annual data from the 1960 to 1997 for a sample of 71 aid-receiving developing countries. He concludes that the effect of foreign aid on economic growth is positive, permanent, and statistically significant.

A paper by Burnside and Dollar (1997) was emphatic that there is a correlation between aid and economic growth, but only when aid is applied in a good policy environment. The paper, using a sample of 56 countries and six four-year time periods from 1970 - 1973 until 1990 - 1993, shows that where aid coincided with good policies, its impact on growth was strong and positive.

Collier and Dollar (2001) also argue “aid is conditionally effective,” with conditions including policy environment, governance, rates of corruption and conflicts. Despite the support the Burnside and Dollar stance has amassed (Dovern and Nunnemkamp, 2007; John and Sackey, 2008), there are other studies that show no significant correlation between aid and growth.

In his research, Ram (2004) looks at the issue of poverty and economic growth from the view of recipient country’s policies as being the key role in the effectiveness of foreign aid. Nevertheless, in his paper the author disagrees with the widely-acknowledged view that redirecting aid toward countries with better policies leads to higher economic growth and poverty reduction rates. As a result, based on his research the author concludes that evidence is lacking to support the leading belief that directing foreign assistance to countries with good ‘policy’ will increase the impact on growth or poverty reduction in developing countries.

Burnside and Dollar (2000) and Brautigam and Knack (2004) find evidence for negative impact of foreign aid and growth, while Boone (1996), and Jensen and Paldam (2003) find evidence to suggest that aid has no impact on growth. It should be noted that, although Burnside and Dollar (2000) concluded that foreign aid has positive effects, this

conclusion applies only to economies in which it is combined with good fiscal, monetary, and trade policies.

A recent study by Doucouliagos and Paldam (2009), using the meta-analysis covering 68 papers containing a total of 543 direct estimates, it is found that the effect of aid on growth estimates scatter considerably and add up to a small positive, but insignificant, effect on growth. The zero correlation result has yet to be overcome.

The role of foreign aid in the growth process of developing countries has been a topic of intense debate. Foreign aid is an important topic given its implications for poverty reduction in developing countries. Previous empirical studies on foreign aid and economic growth generate mixed results. For example, Dowling and Hiemenz (1982) find evidence for positive impact of foreign aid on growth;

Development aid in the world's poorest countries, particularly in Africa, make up a high percentage both of national incomes and of the government budgets and this study focuses on whether relief food supplies inhibits or encourages socio-economic development or reduction of poverty. A fear of creating dependency is sometimes used by aid agencies as a justification for scaling back relief entitlements in terms of coverage, the amount of aid provided and the timescale of provision, (Karim, 2006).

Rostow (1990) sees foreign assistance – the “external intrusion by more advanced societies” – as a precondition for the take-off into economic success, Hayter (1971) argues it is a disguised form of imperialism and as such cannot result in any desired economic benefits. To her any benefit that could arise from aid would only be incidental,

not planned. These two divergent schools of thought in the aid/development literature are still present to date.

Easterly (2003) has pursued this argument further, stating that “the idea that ‘aid buys growth’ is an integral part of the founding myth and ongoing mission of the aid bureaucracy.” Another argument is that aid reduces the incentives to invest, especially when the recipient is assured that future poverty will call for more aid. This phenomenon is known as the Samaritan’s Dilemma (Gibson et al., 2005; *The Economist*, 1995). Aid can also reduce the recipient country’s competitiveness (Rajan and Subramanian, 2005), culminating in the Dutch disease (a condition that reduces competitiveness of the manufacturing sector due to overabundance of foreign assistance). The robustness of the many empirical studies have been tested but the fact remains that most scholars agree aid in real terms has not been effective as it has a “weak association with poverty, democracy and good policy” (Alesina and Dollar, 2000). While Sachs (2005) sees more aid as increasing the possibility “to end extreme poverty by 2025”, Wider effects of foreign aid programs on income inequality, however, appear for the most part to be negative or nonexistent. Doucouliagos and Paldam conclude that “after 40 years of Development aid, the preponderance of the evidence indicates that aid has not been effective,” and argue that ODA programs encourage an aid-related Dutch disease that affects poorer segments of the population more than richer ones.

Despite the large literature on aid and growth, “the debate about aid effectiveness is one where little is settled” (Rajan, 2005, p. 54). Empirical evidence has been provided in favor of the argument that aid spurs economic growth unconditionally or in certain

macroeconomic environments (Burnside and Dollar, 2000; Guillaumont and Chauvet, 2001).

2.2.1 The History of Foreign Aid in Somalia

Since its formation in 1960 from the union of British Somaliland and Italian Somaliland, the Somali Republic was always dependent on foreign aid to balance its operations and development budgets. In each of the three years after independence, the Republic financed 31 percent of its budget with grants from its former colonizers: Britain and Italy. General Mohamed Siad Barre's socialist military regime of 1969–1991 heavily depended on financial and technical support from the U.S.S.R. until disagreement about the 1977–78 war between Somalia and Ethiopia disrupted the relationship. Due to Somalia's strategic location and the Cold War, Siad Barre was able to replace the financial loss caused by the departure of the U.S.S.R. with aid from the United States, Saudi Arabia, and countries in Western Europe.

The 1977–78 war and its aftermath caused the displacement of a large number of Somali-Ethiopians who sought refuge in Somalia. Siad Barre's regime received massive humanitarian support to resettle the displaced people in refugee camps in Somalia. However, most of the food was diverted to supplement the income of Somali soldiers or was used to fuel the Western Somali Liberation Front's war against Ethiopia. Siad Barre also received financial and military support from the U.S. and other countries in the West to repel armed and largely clan based movements against his regime. By 1990, just before it fell, Siad Barre's government was getting annual financial support of \$100 million (second only to Egypt and Israel) from the U.S.

During the 1990s, when violence and societal chaos reached its peak, several United Nations (UN) and US led missions were undertaken to establish a secure environment for humanitarian assistance for those trapped in civil war and famine, and in a later stage to restore peace and stability (UNISOM, 1997 & 2003). Unfortunately, the military intervention rather harmed the humanitarian operations by jeopardizing its notions of impartiality and neutrality. In the 1990's the cooperation between international military forces and aid agencies blurred the interpretation by Somali's of the intentions of humanitarians. This was the result of military explanations that justified their interference on the basis of the humanitarian imperative that was partly used to mask the true, conventional, motives of power and security (Leader, 2000). The failed interventions fuelled the conflict and resulted in an urban war in and around Mogadishu that received worldwide media attention after 18 soldiers of the US forces were dragged through the streets of Mogadishu (de Waal, 2003/2004).

More than two decades later, the needs for humanitarian food aid are still high in Somalia. Civilians suffer from land expropriation and/or occupation, looting of all public and private commodities (such as cattle), from harsh violence (rape, mutilations), severe human rights violations (atrocities), and from the plundering and destruction of cities such as Mogadishu (Bestemans, 1996). The violence and the food insecurity have led to widespread internal population displacement and created an extremely vulnerable population.

2.2.2 The Role of Humanitarian Aid in Somalia

Most of the foreign aid that Somalia currently receives is in the form of humanitarian aid. In 2016, aid agencies asked for \$885 million to help feed and shelter 3.5 million Somalis who depended on them (OCHA, 2016).

Official development assistance (ODA) for Somalia totaled US\$ 1.3 billion in 2016. With an ODA to GDP ratio of 21%, Somalia is highly aid dependent. Remittances are another key flow, estimated at US\$ 1.4 billion in 2016. Together, remittances and ODA are fueling Somalia's consumption-driven growth. Greater focus on enabling private sector investment and domestic revenue mobilization would lessen Somalia's long term dependence on aid.

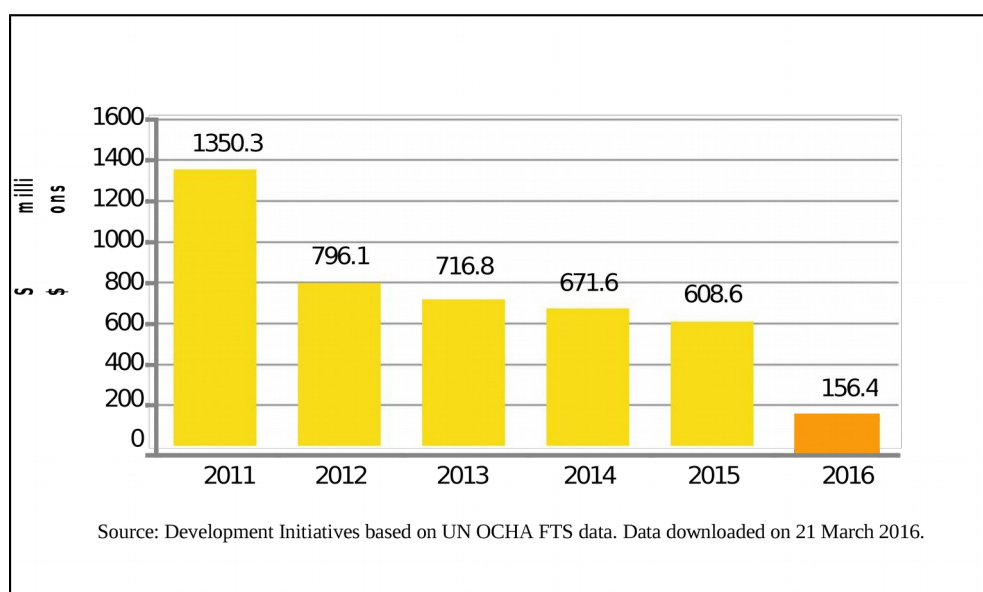


Figure 2.1: Humanitarian funding to Somalia, 2011–2016

Figure 2.1 shows, humanitarian funding to Somalia has decreased year on year between 2011 and 2016. In 2011, levels stood at US\$bn13.5; more than double levels in 2015 (US\$608.6 million). Over half of humanitarian funding to Somalia so far in 2016 was allocated to sector not yet specified (55%; US\$86.1 million). The food sector received

21% of all funding (US\$33.6 million), while coordination and support services received 7% (US\$11.5 million) (FTS, 2016).

Moreover humanitarian aid is expected to experience a spike in 2017 akin to the response to the 2011 famine, during which humanitarian aid surged to nearly US\$ 800 million. Development aid to Somalia continues to be stable, although a slight decline may be seen in 2017. Donors reported US\$ 613 million in aid for development in 2017, 11% decrease from the previous year's spending. The steadily increasing aid to Somalia seen in recent years has run counter to the trend of stagnating flows to low income fragile states at the aggregate level and high levels of volatility at the country level (OCHA, 2017).

However critics of the U.S. and U.N. aid to Somalia base their conclusions on the aid's general effect on Africa and the failure of the \$50 billion per year that currently goes to Africa to help improve the standard of living. George Ayittey believes that the U.S. and U.N. initiatives are unlikely to help because they are not *African* solutions. Dambisa Moyo argues that in the past sixty years, more than one trillion dollars have been transferred to Africa, but the lives of those living there have not improved. In fact, poverty levels have gone up and growth rates have gone down. Countries are trapped in a cycle of dependency, corruption, market distortion, and further poverty (Moyo, 2010). Some of the supporters of aid to Somalia are bothered by the fact that these foreign aid agencies are now located in Nairobi. This not only increases overhead costs, thus reducing the amount that ultimately reaches Somalia, but it also inhibits the transparency of the delivery system.

Matthew Jallow 2010 contends that foreign aid mostly benefits the ruling elites and enables corrupt governments. The majority of the funding does not reach the intended groups. Jallow cites a study in Uganda, which found that of money designated for schools, only 30 percent reached them. Jallow also uses the World Bank finding in Somalia in 1998 that concluded that aid undermined civil society because people became dependent on foreign food, which depressed local prices and reduced the incentive to grow food. These critics also argue that foreign aid is dictated by strategic and political goals. Other critics recommend cutting off humanitarian aid to Somalia and fighting terror (Harnisch, 2010). Chris Harnisch argues that humanitarian aid only strengthens terrorist groups that oppress the people.

2.3 Aid Dependency Syndrome

In development theory dependency has been associated with left-wing critiques of aid. In the 1960s and 1970s, dependency theory constituted an explicitly Marxist economic development approach. More recently, dependency has often been framed as the antithesis of development approaches that aim at empowerment, participation and sustainability. Dependency was a key term in early theories about the process of development (Gore, 2003). Dependency theory sees underdevelopment as the result of unequal power relationships between rich developed capitalist countries and poor developing ones. It comes from a Marxist tradition, and in mainstream development economics largely fell out of favor with the collapse of communism. However, its concerns about how international relationships are implicated in poverty processes live on in debates around globalization (Gore, 2003).

There are clear links to the ways in which countries can be seen as dependent on continuing relief assistance, to debates around the disincentive effects of aid and to the argument that food aid is inextricably tied up with unequal trade relationships (Oxfam, 2005), for instance (Oxfam, 2005), argues that food aid is a trade issue, and that new disciplines on food aid should be part of negotiations at the World Trade Organization. They argue that ‘food aid reflects the availability of surpluses, the desire of exporters to expand markets and the involvement of special interests seeking benefits from food aid programmes’ (Oxfam, 2005). Country level dependency can also be seen in terms of the debt burden of developing countries; according to this argument, greater debt relief is essential in order to allow countries to meet developmental objectives such as the Millennium Development Goals (Action Aid *et al.* 2004). When considering, for instance, the dependence of a destitute farmer in the Ethiopia highlands on food aid, it is important not to lose sight of global issues of trade and debt, which are arguably as important as relief, albeit less visible in creating dependency. A linked debate addresses the question of countries’ dependence on aid.

It is argued that once people become accustomed to receiving free commodities, the fear is that they will be less willing to make contributions to community development projects (Bush, 2004). The humanitarian interventions by government and other relief agencies are meant to save people from starvation and malnutrition. However, over dependence on relief food supplies may lead to economic underdevelopment and social degradation of the local community. Whereas the provision of relief food is based on very noble intentions, if not looked at from a sustainable livelihood support system, it could result in abandonment of economic activities by the local people (UNEP, 2000).

Possible consequences of abandoning income generating activities for relief food supplies are bound to arise consequently having negative effects on people. For instance, relief food assistance is rarely transparent or regular enough to be relied on. This may lead to starvation and of course death due to hunger. The uncertainty surrounding the amount of relief food supplies and timing of food aid deliveries are at times unpredictable (Little, 2004).

Karikari (2002) argues that development assistance has resulted in dependency as “it induces a lazy, slavish, dependent mentality and culture across society – from governments to villagers.” This, according to him, undermines the peoples’ faith in themselves and the fact that they can make it on their own. Other scholars also think development should be situated within the context of the country concerned. Prah (2002) for instance argues that “people can best develop from the foundations of their indigenous knowledge” which is embedded in the culture of the people, adding that imposing a notion of “modernity” on Africa will not yield desired results. This does not ignore what the people already know but rather integrates the new knowledge into it. He finds that it will be difficult for the African elites who are “surrogates for Western culture in Africa” to fashion indigenously oriented development plans.

Certain assumptions and meanings have been however in usage with the discourse of humanitarian aid where dependency has been seen as being responsible for creating relief risks hence dependency mentality or syndrome in which people expect continuous assistance. This undermines initiative at individual level and community level (Fireman, 2001). According to Chambers (2003), relief undermines local economies, creating a

conforming need for assistance and trapping people into ongoing or chronic food dependency on outside assistance. This dependency on external assistance is one of the features of extreme poverty associated with a sense of shame and defeat. This could be dependency of government at local or national levels, or aid agencies for relief sources.

Chambers, (2003) argues that a belief in the idle poor is common in many cultures and sometimes has its antecedents in racial ideologies of colonialism, and the view of native as improvident, lazy and fantastic. Oxfam, (2005) argues, that food supplies aid is a trade issue and that new disciplines on food aid reflects the availability of surpluses, the desire of exporters to expand markets and the involvement of special interests from food aid programmes. Country level food aid dependency can also be seen in terms of debt burden of developing countries. Greater debt relief is essential in order to allow countries to meet Millennium Development Goals (Action Aid, 2004).

Development aid in the world's poorest countries, particularly in Africa, makes up a high both of national incomes and of government budgets, and discussion has focused on whether this dependence on aid inhibits or encourages economic growth and poverty reduction (Collier 1999; Lancaster 1999): Lensink and White (1999) propose a neutral definition of aid dependence as 'a country needing aid to obtain an objective in the foreseeable future'. Using this definition, aid dependence is no longer automatically defined as a bad thing; 'seeing aid dependence as bad is to confuse aid dependence with "bad aid"'. Studies have similarly argued that dependency debates often confuse relief dependence with bad relief. The debate on aid dependence also includes concern with whether or not high levels of aid create a lack of ownership among recipients, and

therefore contribute to undermining governance in highly aid-dependent countries. This debate may help to inform the understanding of the impact of regular inflows of relief assistance on politics and economics at a national level. De Waal (1997) argues that international relief risks undermining political contracts between the state and its citizens (De Waal, 1997).

The term dependency is often used in the context of debates around the problematic idea of a transition between relief and development. Often, relief is seen as intrinsically undesirable because of its tendency to create dependency and is contrasted with more developmental interventions, which have objectives such as sustainability, self-reliance or empowerment. These approaches are seen as combating dependency. In the linking-relief-and development debate, relief is often assumed to automatically lead to dependence, and dependency is therefore used as an explanation for moving towards development processes as soon as possible. What these transitions often mean in practice is that dependence is simply shifted, from the dependency of individuals on relief transfers provided by aid agencies to government dependence on international aid to provide basic services such as health care and education.

There has been a long running debate in the western social policing about welfare food dependency. This has been an intensively political debate, with the right wing attacking the food welfare dependency and arguing that the provision of long term welfare creates dependency and the left wing challenging the view of the poor that implies and arguing for the maintenance and extension of food supplies and welfare policies. Most recently, these clear lines have become blurred in places like United Kingdom, with a third wing

rhetoric focusing on rights and responsibilities of citizens (Dean, 2004). Behind this debate on food supplies and welfare dependency lays a history of attitudes towards the poor. One common feature of food supplies dependency is to stigmatize those groups that are labeled as dependants. In the United States for instance, a particular target who have been single mothers, often described as food dependence mothers (Fireman, 2001).

It appears as though most African countries are so dependent on aid that without it almost half of their yearly budgetary commitments cannot be fulfilled. For example in 1992, aid is said to have accounted for 12.4% of gross national product (GNP), over 70% of gross domestic savings and investments in Sub-Saharan Africa and over 50% of all imports (Ampaw, 2000).

2.4 Donor Strategies to Deliver Aid

The involvement of donors, either foreign governments or international agencies, in recipient country political processes has been shown to reduce the quality of governance (Knack, 2001). It reduces leader accountability; the government is “playing to two audiences simultaneously”- the donors and the public (Hayman, 2008). This means the direction of accountability is between government and donor rather than the public, risking government legitimacy and delaying the progress of political reform and development (Bräutigam, 2000). This is particularly damaging in countries where the need for aid stems from political upheaval or civil unrest such as the Democratic Republic of Congo or Zimbabwe, which have a lengthy history of aid dependence (Moss et al., 2006). The risk here is that donors have political leverage, thus decisions and

planning become reliant on donor involvement whose motivation and values may not necessarily align with those of the public or government.

Furthermore, 'earmarking' is a strategy favored by many international donors who fear corruption in recipient governments, therefore 'earmark' direct sector or programme funding rather than general government budget support (Foster and Leavy, 2001). This not only shifts the agenda-making power to donors who have the authority to set priorities and direct funds accordingly, but also creates patchy and unsustainable development where some sectors outperform others.

Even though needs for aid are high, there are certain standards within humanitarianism along which many humanitarian organizations strive to operate. In fact, most humanitarian organizations operate along the line of four basic humanitarian principles (humanity, impartiality, neutrality and independence) once designed by Henry Dunant and thereafter institutionalized into by the ICRC (Pictet, 1979).

A top-down, uniform approach to policy implementation by donors also has logistical barriers whereby local infrastructure is incapable of carrying out donor projects effectively and producing satisfactory results. A good example of this is the widely-disseminated policy encouraging syndrome management of sexually transmitted diseases, which was coercively incorporated into aid channels in Mozambique, despite the clear lack of the technical expertise and human resource capacity that such a robust policy requires (Cliff et al., 2004). This then perpetuates aid dependency because donors do not receive satisfactory project results and may consequently reduce funding without actually solving the problem, thus the poverty cycle continues and aid is required once again.

Eyben (2006) argues “aid is a matter of relationships,” and that aid can be more effective when donors develop relationship-building skills. Using complexity theory, she shows that “relationship management is as important for effective aid as money management.” Eyben adds that thinking of aid as a catalyst means the donor can “get involved” without being affected by the aid relationship. This does not auger well for aid effectiveness as it makes the donor remain an outsider who is interfering. Apart from the political correctness of donors who fail to tell when recipients are going wrong.

Furthermore the most devastating consequences of aid to Somalia were the corruption, mismanagement, and lack of accountability and transparency that it fostered (Maren, 1997). Michael Maren, who went to Somalia as a food monitor for USAID in 1981, was taken aback by the level of corruption in food aid distribution. As documented in his book *Road to Hell*, he found that two-thirds of the aid was stolen by the military right from the docks in Mogadishu or from the refugee camps. The reported number of refugees was also inflated in order to receive more aid. But he also found that relief organizations were not concerned at all about whether the food was going to the victims because their primary goal was to remain financially solvent.

Calderisi (2006) believes internal rivalry and conflicting objectives of the World Bank, IMF and UNDP have led to some confusion in the policy advice they give to Africa. He therefore thinks a merger of these agencies will make aid more effective. Merging the World Bank and IMF seems quite practical but same cannot be said about the UNDP since in the first place its criteria for measuring ‘development’ differ in some respects

from that of the World Bank and IMF. However, this idea of a possible merger underlies some aspects of the literature that speak to donors being a hindrance to development.

Browne (2006) argues aid does not match development need because its “size and direction is subjectively determined by donors” – institutions and agencies which must serve the interests of their paymasters in the ministries involved, mostly non-developmental interests such as commercial, geopolitical, strategic and historical. Browne believes development is a domestic affair and that developing countries should be more committed to it, as donors also commit more funds to global public goods that will serve a greater purpose.

Lancaster (1999) thinks Africa’s developmental problem is mainly due to “the failure of the region to grow,” including low rates of savings and investment, while Ayittey (2002) argues it resides in “bad leadership and the enabling role played by the West.”

The 2006 review of operation lifeline Sudan for instance, noted that the agencies had frequently justified reducing rations on the grounds that it would stimulate communities to reestablish production and income generating activities. Rather than enabling war affected communities to rebuild their lives, this strategy had the effect of making people more vulnerable to being forced into exploitative working conditions and reducing their access to food supplies and increasing their exposure to violence. It is concluded that, the idea that the reduction of food supplies would reduce aid dependency and encourage income -generating activities is deeply flawed (Apthorne, 2006). A review of united

humanitarian consequences on humanitarian action in Algeria found that reduction in relief food aid supplies have tended to reinforce the reliance of the displaced on exploitative labor contracts. Trying to reduce food aid supplies therefore runs the risk of furthering other more negative forms of dependence (Duffied, 2003).

Ending or preventing aid dependency is contingent on affirmative action from both donors and recipients. Botswana is a key example of recipient-led aid policy that effectively resulted in rapidly reducing aid and therefore dependency. Botswana began receiving aid shortly after gaining independence in 1966 (Bräutigam and Botchwey, 1999). Of primary importance here is that Botswana largely decided the direction and use of funding; areas of priority were identified and donors were matched accordingly, thus avoiding reliance on donor ideas and agendas. Only projects that the predicted government capacity could absorb once aid was reduced in the long-term were undertaken, which ensured sustainability. In contrast, the relative 'success story' of Taiwan can be explained by donor-led project planning. Taiwan received much aid from the US in the early 1960's which focused mainly on building infrastructural capacity-docks, railways, factories-with the aim to increase trading systems and boost the economy.

According to World Food Program (WFP), (2003), in the long conflicts such as in Somalia and Southern Sudan, it is often unclear that the risks faced by people in their struggle to survive change over time. Dependency discourses in these contexts represent a way of justifying a strategic shift from the provision of food relief aid to more

developmental approaches. A review of consequences of humanitarian assistance in Sudan found that attempts to introduce more developmental approaches were part related to a fear of creating dependency and premised around attempts to promote self-sufficiency. But the report failed to recognize the political roots of the displaced and the real nature of their inability to become self-sufficient, then political and social marginalization, impoverishment and exclusion.

When foreign stabilization efforts in a failed state are pursued through a state-building initiative, humanitarian access can quickly become the target of political battles. This can occur for a number of reasons. First, humanitarian access is particularly vulnerable when the transition government becomes a party in renewed civil war, a setback that frequently occurs in fragile post-conflict accords. State-building and humanitarian enterprises are in that instance unavoidably at loggerheads, as humanitarian actors prioritize neutrality to avoid the security risks that emerge when they are seen as having 'taken sides' in a war. Second, humanitarian access can be compromised when the transitional government is weak yet donors pressure aid agencies to work through the state to legitimize it and enhance its capacity. Transitional governments emerging from wars are almost always weak, making them an inefficient or even dysfunctional partner for humanitarian actors, for whom efficient response is a top priority to save lives. Third, when transitional governments are not only weak but

venal and predatory, humanitarian access can be compromised by governments seeking to divert relief aid towards their own constituencies or into private pockets (Menkhaus, 2007).

A content analysis also revealed that donor countries have in the last years shifted their aid strategies to stabilization, peace and state buildings. Security expenses increased in relation to humanitarian assistance. A fear of creating dependency is sometimes used by aid agencies as a justification for scaling back relief entitlements in terms of coverage, the amount of aid provided and the timescale of provision, (Karim, 2006).

In this situation of political deadlock in Somali's conflict, where the needs of civilians are high, delivering humanitarian aid is difficult. Not only do aid workers find themselves in the midst of warring factions, but they also influence conflict dynamics by delivering food aid. The fact that external forces such as aid influxes influence the internal conflict in one way or another can be perceived as an endangerment of the status quo (Leader, 2000).

2.5 Implications of the Literature Review

The implications are therefore obvious: The relationship between aid and growth dominates aid. Nonetheless, it remains inconsistent that relief aid is still highly significant across regressions. This leads researchers to continue thinking about how to improve the effectiveness of aid. Reforms in are certainly necessary, not only for recipients but also for donors, especially multilateral aid agencies. Aid is more effective when it's delivered based on local priorities and development agendas, not as conceived by donor

communities. Aid should be internalized, not imposed by outsiders. What aid does is «to help good governments to survive long enough to solve the problems» (World Bank, 1998). Aid agencies should appreciate that different context need different way of engagement. Countries may learn from the successful experiences of others, but need to tailor appropriately their own action plans. Aid is more effective and viable if it builds the capacity of local institutions and then nature local coping mechanisms.

Therefore, instead of cooperating, they are normally stepping on each other's toes by undertaking different approaches. As a result, the overall aid effectiveness on the improving the livelihoods of vulnerable communities most of the time fails to succeed, even though many aid projects are assessed effectively.

In the final analysis most of the literature on the impact of foreign aid is highly generalized and guided by the statistical interpretations of World Bank and UN institutions. There is hardly any literature based on the local representations of the socio-economic effect of aid on the livelihoods of beneficiary households. This study was situated in this niche, with special focus on the responses of the actors in the aid matrix in Dhobley town of Somalia.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

This chapter presents the research methodology and design employed in the study. In doing so, the following areas are discussed: research design, location of the study, target population, sample size determination and sampling techniques, research instruments, pilot study, validity of instruments, reliability of instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis and Ethical issues and considerations

3.2 Study Area

Dhobley is a Somalia border town that is located 18kms to the east of Liboi town which is saturated on the Kenya. The town has an estimated population 21,000 people. The area holds an estimated 3000 internally displaced people (IDPs) from conflict-affected parts of the region. The town is ravaged by continuous civil wars since the fall of Somalia Central Government in 1991. The town locates within Afmadow district, Lower Juba region and controlled by Jubaland State of Somalia with the support of African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM).

The town has one general hospital that is not functioning due to limited medical supplies and several Mother and Child Health (MCH) centers which are active. Climatically, the district is a semi arid one, with an average rainfall of less than 200 mm per year. The rainfall is erratic making the entire district susceptible to draught. The deadly combination of livestock diseases, Rift Valley Fever, and persistent draught killed tens of hundreds of livestock herds in 2011 eliminating the mainstay of the bulk of the

population. This subsequently caused a massive movement of nomads into towns without any source of income.



Figure 3.1: Map of Dhobley town

Source: (Google map, 2017)

3.3 Research Design

The study used a descriptive survey design where both qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed. The descriptive survey was used to collect information on proximate effects of relief supplies on socio economic development of local communities. Creswell, (2002) postulates that descriptive survey is the most appropriate design in the behavioral sciences as it seeks to find out factors associated with occurrence of certain events and conditions of behavior. It enables the researcher to collect in-depth information including sensitive and personalized experiences concerning the issue being investigated. The descriptive survey design allowed the researcher to study variables as they exist. For this study, the researcher was not able to manipulate such variables as relief aid and socioeconomic of the local people.

Kerlinger (2003) and Mouldy (2003) concurs that the survey design is used to gather data from large population at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of the current situation. Orodho (2004) says that descriptive survey design, despite being used for exploratory and preliminary studies, allows the researcher to summarize and interpret information for the purpose of clarifying the issue under study.

3.4 Target Population

The estimated total population of Dhobley town is 21,000 people (3,500 households). The study targeted 410 destitute households, who continuously receive relief aid in Dhobley town. The study also targets relief aid committees consisting of 4 aid agencies representative, 10 town officers and 5 headmen.

3.5 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size Determination

From the target population of 410 households, a sample size of 132 household heads was chosen using McDaniel and Gates, 2004 formula.

The sample size for the study was determined using precision rate and confidence level approach. With a population of 410 and a precision of 2% with a 95.5 per cent confidence level the sample size n , is given using the following formulae:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 \cdot P \cdot q \cdot N}{e^2(N - 1) + Z^2 \cdot P \cdot q}$$

Where N is the population, e is the precision, z is the value of the standard variant for the given confidence level of 95.5%, n is the size of the sample, p is the proportion of the population and q is $1-p$.

$$\text{Therefore } n = \frac{(2.005)^2(0.02) (1-0.02) (410)}{(0.02)^2(410) + (2.005)^2(0.02) (1-0.02)}$$

$n = 132$ household heads respondents

The sampling unit was Dhobley town, which was purposely selected based on convenience of the researcher in terms of time, allocation, available funds, accessibility and other logistics. Patton (1990) has proposed convenience case of purposive sampling saves time, money, and effort. Stratified random sampling was used to involve destitute people in four camps of the Dhobely town: namely, Kutur, Kowad, Bosnia and Waberi. The four camps formed the strata, where 33 households were randomly selected from each stratum. |

3.6 Research Instruments

The researcher used interviews and questionnaires to obtain data from the respondents.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

The household questionnaire had both open ended and closed questions. The questionnaire was designed by the researcher to suit the data required for the study. The questionnaire had both closed-ended and open-ended questions. In the closed-ended questions definite responses were expected, while in the open-ended items indefinite responses with some description for clarity was expected from the household heads. The research questions guided the construction of the questionnaire items so that all areas are addressed in the questionnaire. This ensured completeness of all the areas covered by the study. A description of the questionnaire for household heads is as follows: The questionnaire had three sections: Section (I) was a letter to the respondents and introduction of the study to the respondents and the reasons for carrying out the study. In this section ethical values upheld by the researcher were explained to the respondents and their security and confidentiality of the information that they gave was assured.

Section (II) was socio-demographic information of the selected household. In this section the questionnaire was used for collecting information such as gender, highest education level and experience in dealing with the relief aid. In section (III) the questionnaire was used for collecting data in accordance to research questions on evaluation of socioeconomic effects of relief aid on household's livelihoods in Dhobley.

3.6.2 Interviews

Interview schedules were developed for key informants. This allowed the researcher to make follow up of the respondents answers, to obtain more information on and clarify vague statements. The researcher hence used this method to seek clarification to some of the responses pertaining to socioeconomic effects of relief aid on households' livelihoods. The researcher also sought information on possible ways and means of improving the socioeconomic lives of the households. The interview schedule allowed room for interpretation of statements to a language that the respondents could understand.

3.7 Reliability and Validity of the Research Instruments

3.7.1 Validity of the Instruments

According to Cox (2010), validity shows whether the items measured what they were designed to measure. For this study, piloting was conducted to assist in determining accuracy, clarity and suitability of the research instruments. Validity for this study was established through consultation with experts in the field. After consultations with these experts, the research structure and variables in the questionnaire were modified and shaped to improve the content validity. This approach is supported by various scholars including Creswell (2002) who pointed out that validity of a study can be assessed using expert opinion and informed judgment. The questionnaires were designed on the basis of previous theoretical and empirical researches into the evaluation and selection of forecasting methods and pre-test discussions with the large regions. This procedure aims

at ensuring the content validity of the study. The researcher took every precaution to make sure that the instrument used to collect data adequately sought answers to the research questions and achieves the objectives of the study.

3.7.2 Reliability of the Instruments

Reliability is concerned with the accuracy of the actual measuring instrument or procedure. A pilot study was conducted in order to pretest the reliability of the data collection tool. Reliability was operationalised as internal consistency, and was calculated using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951), the cut-off point being 0.70. To measure the consistency of the scores to be obtained, and how consistent they were used for each individual from one administration of an instrument to another and from one set of items to another, used Cronbach's alpha (a measure of the internal consistency of the questionnaire items) using data from all the respondents. Separate reliability tests for each of the variables were also computed.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher obtained a letter from Moi University that authorized him to collect data. A permit for data collection was obtained from the District Commissioner. The researcher visited the area to familiarize himself with the administration especially with Aid agencies staff as well as town officers because of the interview schedules before the actual data collection in order to make respondents feel free and open to issues. The questionnaires and interview schedules were administered. Questionnaire targeted household heads and interview targeted aid representatives, government officials and

headmen. The methods used were personal face-to-face visits. This technique was preferred because it was easy to explain some of the questions which were not easily understood by the respondents. This follow-up process improved the response rate substantially. Ethical issues and considerations were put in place by the researcher to ensure that all respondents participated with informed consent.

3.9 Data Analysis Techniques and Presentation Methods

The data collected were both qualitative and quantitative. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive methods. This involved compiling data using MS Excel and SPSS statistical package and presentation of the data using tables. After data collection, the questionnaires were checked for completeness and the data compiled, edited and coded before data input. The data were then coded and edited for completeness using SPSS package. Descriptive statistics in the form of percentages, means and measures of dispersion were used to describe, organize and present quantitative data for ease in data interpretation. This involves the use of tables. A range of inferential statistical measures will also be used.

Qualitative data was analyzed using content analysis. Content analysis is the systematic qualitative description of the composition of the objects or materials of the study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). This was done through grouping quotations from the respondents by categories and coding of the particular common responses were done so that the quotations from particular themes were presented in thematic forms according to research questions. In each case of analysis of data from a research question the

researcher sought to determine the strength of the association between the independent variables and dependent variable (Orodho, 2005).

3.10 Ethical Considerations

The respondents were assured of identity anonymity and confidentiality of the data they gave. A permit for data collection was obtained from the District Commissioner. The researcher pre-visited the study area and established rapport with the respondents. A piloting exercise was conducted during the first week of field study. This process fine-tuned the data-gathering method. The interviewees and participants were given a clear indication of the purpose and outcomes of research. The participants were also given confirmation that the data collected would be used in complete confidentiality and shall purely be used for education purpose. Privacy and confidentiality was observed all through. The researcher adhered and respected the time schedule agreed upon with the government officers, aid agencies and headsmen.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides data analysis and discussion of results. The chapter is divided into two sections, which includes presentation of profiles of the respondents; household heads, Aid agency representatives and headmen who formed the sample for the study. The analysis combined data obtained through household questionnaires and in-depth interview. The results were presented in the form of description statistics, percentages and frequencies (descriptive statistics) for household questionnaires. While the interview result is presented in narrative forms with quotations, summaries and paraphrases, texts that are quoted are those that I deemed to be the most concise and useful.

4.2 Response Rate

Out of a total of 132 questionnaires that were administered, 113 were returned. The interview respondents included 5 aid workers, 10 government officials and 4 headmen. This represented 87.43 percent of response rate, which is considered satisfactory to make conclusions for the study. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), a 50% response rate is adequate, 60% good and above 70% rated very well. Basing on this assertion, it implies that the response rate of 87.43% was very good.

4.3 Characteristics of Household Heads

This section described the basic characteristics of the respondents included in the study and showed how and why they were appropriate as study samples. The study looked into

the gender of the household respondents in order to establish whether gender had a significant effect on influence of household attributes. The responses are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Demographic information of household heads

Demographic information items	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	62	51
Female	56	49
Age ranges in years:		
25-30	8	7
31-35	31	28
36-40	38	34
41-45	14	13
46 and above	22	18

Source: Researcher 2017

Table 4.1 illustrates that 51.5 % of the respondents were male and 48.5% of the respondents were female. The study finding implies that women equally played a significant role as household heads in Dhobley town. Majority of the household heads were between the age brackets of 31-40 years however the study captured various age groups in Dhobley.

4.4 Characteristics of Key Informants

The study sought to know the gender of the town officers and aid representatives in order to establish whether gender had a significant effect on influence of household attributes. The responses are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Demographic information of key informants

Demographic information items	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	15	79
Female	4	21
Designation		
Traditional elders	5	27
Department officers	6	32
Administrative officers	4	21
Area manager (Aid worker)	2	10
Project Manager (Aid worker)	2	10
Age bracket in years:		
25-30	3	15
31-35	6	32
36-40	5	27
41-45	1	5
46 and above	4	21
Number of household Served		
1 – 500	8	42
501 – 1000	4	21
1001 – 1500	5	27
1501 – 2000	1	5
2001 – 2500	1	5
2501 and above	0	0
Qualifications		
None	5	26
Diploma	11	60
Degree	3	14
Training on Aid		
Yes	19	100
No	0	0

Source: Researcher 2017

Table 4.2 illustrates that out of the 19 key informants 15 (79%) were male and 4(21 %) female of. The finding implied that the responsibility of aid distribution was male dominated. Among the key informants interviewed were 5 (27%) traditional elders representing various clans, 6 (32%) technical officers, 4 (21%) administrative officers, 2 (10%) area managers, and 2 (10%) project managers. Except the headmen, majority of

the key respondents were between age brackets of 31-40 years. Eleven (60%) had a diploma while 3 (15%) had a degree and 5 (27%) of the respondents had no academics qualifications. The areas of training include public health community development, refugee law, hygiene, project management and monitoring and evaluation. Key informants were required to indicate their titles in order to establish their role in aid interventions. The study revealed that 8(42%) of the key informants served between 1-500 households followed by 5(27%) between 1001-1500 households and 4 (21%) between 501-1000. This represents that informants had significant responsibility in the aid management.

4.5 Factors Contributing to Aid Dependency among Households in Dhobley

The study probed the social and economic factors contributing to relief dependence among the communities in Dhobley town. The findings are documented as table 4.3 and 4.4 below.

Table 4.3: Economic factors contributing aid dependency

Economic factors	Frequency	Percentage
Government policies	4	4
Unemployment	29	26
Expensive imported goods	11	10
Lack of capital assets	69	60
Total	113	100

Source: Researcher 2017

As indicated in the Table 4.3, lack of capital assets such as livestock and farmland was the leading factor that makes the people of Dhobley more likely to depend on food aid as shown by 69 (60%) of the respondents. This is followed by unemployment 29 (26%) and expensive imported goods 11 (10%).

Table 4.4: Social factors contributing to aid dependency

Social factors	Frequency	Percentage
Culture	2	2
Family size	13	12
Women headed households	5	4
Clanism	25	22
Community attitude towards aid	68	60
Total	113	100

Source: Researcher 2017

As illustrated in Table 4.4 community attitude was the leading factor as pointed out by 68 (60%) of the respondents followed by clanism 25 (22%) and family size 13(12%). The later implies that extended families are more likely to receive aid than small families. These findings concurred with Chambers, (2003) who argued that a belief in the idle poor is common in many cultures and sometimes has its antecedents in racial ideologies of colonialism, and the view of native as improvident, lazy and fantastic.

Table 4.5: Reasons for receiving aid

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Conflict	16	14
Drought	20	18
Poverty	59	52
Marginalization	2	2

Female headed households	5	4
Availability of relief aid	11	10
Total	113	100

Source: Researcher 2017

According to Table 4.5 above, 59(52%) of the respondents stated that poverty is the main reason of receiving aid followed by draught 20 (18%) and conflict 16 (14%). Availability of relief aid were also mentioned by 11 (10%) of the respondents. Dhobley is accessible to humanitarian agencies and therefore more humanitarian supplies are available as compared to surrounding areas in the region. The finding were in line with the findings of Dean (2004) who indicated that a history of receiving relief food supplies assistance was superimposed over the situation of deteriorating livelihood. The state of some of the inhabitants was characterized by the loss of coping capabilities, inability to lift out of situations of deep poverty and dependence on food aid accompanied by the situation of destitution observed in other parts of the horn of Africa.

Some respondents also revealed factors leading to Relief aid were lack of physical assets, lack of access to basic services, poor resource base and lack of government support. One of the said:

Majority of the households that receive relief aid in Dhobley are the ones who lost natural coping mechanisms to preserve their main economic activities. This is supplemented by the inability of the government to deliver basic services and improve economic infrastructures (B3).

4.6 Role of Aid Agencies on Improving Livelihoods of Vulnerable Households

The study examined the role of aid agencies on improving the livelihoods of vulnerable households. The study also analyzed relief aid programs implemented in Dhobley town, partners involved in relief aid and community facilities supported by aid agencies. Figure 4.1 below illustrates relief aid programs in Dhobley town.

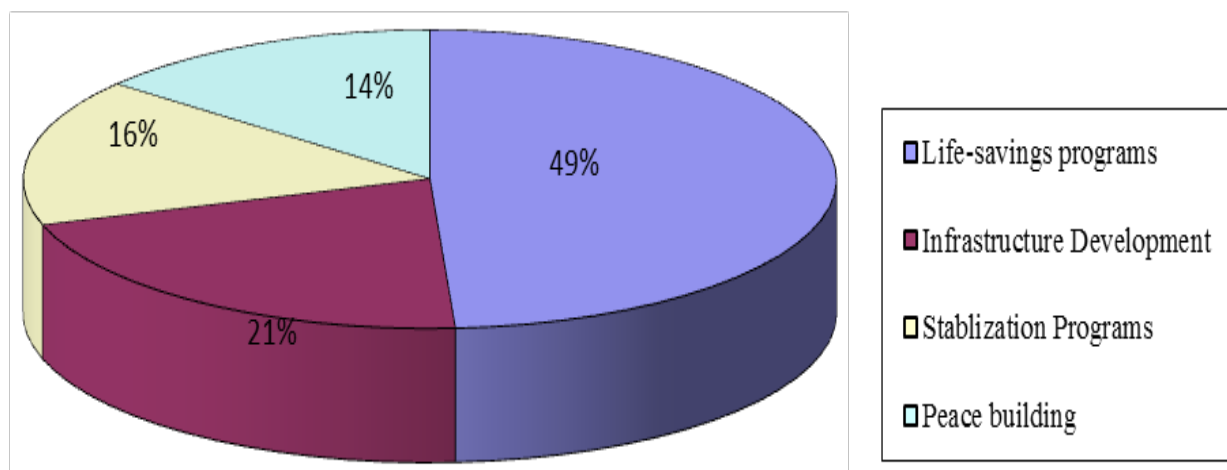


Figure 4.1: Relief aid programs

Source: Researcher 2017

According to Figure 4.1 above, 55 (49%) of the respondents indicated that relief programs implemented in Dhobley town were emergency life-saving activities, meaning that donor aid is more of humanitarian emergency in nature than development oriented. This was followed by social infrastructure 24 (21%), stabilization programs 18 (16%) and peace building initiatives 16 (14%). Infrastructure development includes drilling of boreholes, constructions and rehabilitation of schools, health facilities and roads among others.

4.6.1 Aid agencies in Dhobley Town

Donor communities do not directly implement humanitarian programs but through aid agencies. Local NGOs and CBOs play a crucial role in aid services due to security and

access challenges faced by UN agencies and International NGOs. Dhobley is relatively accessible for humanitarian agencies as compared to other parts of south and central parts of Somalia.

Several UN agencies have programs in the town including United Nations Higher Commissions for Refugee (UNHCR), United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA), World Health Organization (WHO), World Food Programme (WFP) and International Organization for Immigration (IOM). Some International NGOs like America Rescue Committee, Save the Children, Solidarities International, Norwegian Refugee council and more than a dozen local NGOs have both programs and physical presence in the Dhobley. Nowadays Dhobley is a hub for humanitarian supplies due to it is strategic location and accessibility.

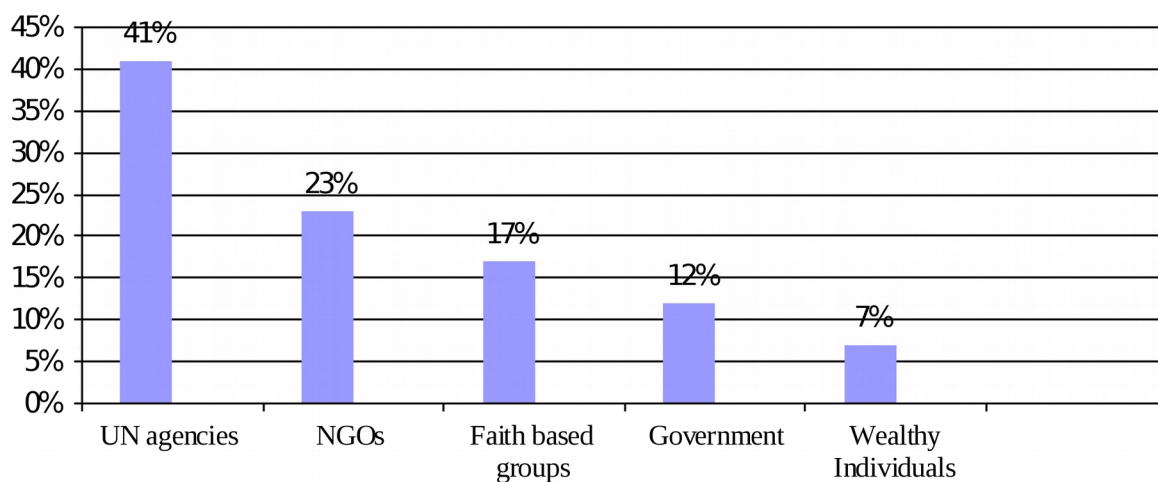


Figure 4.2: Partners involved in aid in Dhobley

Source: Researcher 2017

In Figure 4.2 above, 47 (41%) of the respondents indicated that UN agencies were the main partner involving in humanitarian aid delivery while 26 (23%) indicated NGOs. Other actors include faith based groups, government and wealthy individuals as evidenced by 19 (17%), 12 (12%) and 8 (7%) of the respondents respectively.

4.6.2 Facilities Supported by Aid Agencies

According to table 4.6 above, construction and rehabilitation of water sources was the leading facilities supported by the aid agencies as indicated by 58 (52%) of the respondents. This was followed shelter 25(22%) and health facilities 16 (14%). Only 8(6%) of the respondents mentioned the role of aid agencies on school facilities. Access to formal education is limited in Dhobley due to a lack of formal learning institutions. Children normally attend only Madrasas and Kuranic schools.

Table 4.6: Facilities supported by aid agencies in Dhobley

Facilities	Frequency	Percentage
Schools	8	6
Health facilities	16	14
Markets	4	4
Roads	2	2
Water sources	58	52
Shelter	25	22
Total	113	100

Source: Researcher 2017

4.7 Effects of Humanitarian Aid on Beneficiary Households

The study investigated both the positive and negative effects of humanitarian assistance on beneficiary households in Dhobley town. The study further examined the alternative economic activities practiced in Dhobley.

Table 4.7: Alternative economic activities practiced

Economic activity	Frequency	Percentage
Pastoralist	65	58
Subsistence farming	7	6
Charcoal burning	13	12
Small scale trade	15	24
Total	113	100

Source: Researcher 2017

Table 4.7 revealed that 65 (58%) of the respondents mentioned that livestock and livestock products was the leading economic activity. Other economic activities mentioned were small-scale trade 15 (24%) and charcoal burning 13 (12%). Moreover substance farming 7 (6%) is the least economic activity practiced in Dhobley.

Table 4.8: Positive effects of humanitarian aid on beneficiary households

Impacts	Frequency	Percentage
Employment creation	22	20
Health improvement	18	16
Improves standard of living	61	54
Raises education level	9	8
Improves trade	3	2
Total	113	100

Source: Researcher 2017

According to Table 4.8 above, 61 (54%) of the respondents pointed out that aid improved the standard of living of vulnerable households while 22 (20%) indicated that it created employment to locals people. Respondents who agree that aid improved health facilities were 18 (16%). Those viewed that aid increased the education level and improved trade were 9 (8%) and 3 (2%) respectively. This implies that aid has benefits in the short-term by providing basic services to drought and conflict affected people in Dhobley and promotes local economies.

The finding concurred with As Morrissey (2001) points out, there are a number of mechanisms through which aid can contribute to economic growth, including (a) aid increases investment, in physical and human capital; (b) aid increases the capacity to import capital goods or technology; (c) aid does not have indirect effects that reduce investment or savings rates; and aid is associated with technology transfer that increases the productivity of capital and promotes endogenous technical change.

While appreciating the challenges related prolonged provision of aid, some key informants also reported that aid benefits local people of the targeted communities. One of the participants said:

Aid agencies create jobs for youth both skilled and non-skilled. Aid contributes to local economies through provision of open tenders on purchases of locally available supplies to promote local trade. Majority of local venders and small-scale companies rely on aid operations as their main clients (B2).

Table 4.9: Negative effects of humanitarian aid on beneficiary households

Effects	Frequency	Percentage
Leads to stigma	3	3
Leads to laziness	15	13

Diversion from livelihood activities	30	26
Creates relief mentality	55	49
Lowers prices of local products	10	9
Total	113	100

Source: Researcher 2017

Arising from Table 4.9 above, 55(49%) of the respondents stated that humanitarian aid created relief mentality, 30 (26%) indicated it diverted beneficiaries from engaging in alternative livelihood activities and 15 (13%) said it led to laziness. This shows that continuous provision of aid makes households too lazy to be productive and explore alternative sources of livelihoods but rather to rely on what they receive from relief agencies.

Karikari (2002) also argues that development assistance has resulted in dependency as “it induces a lazy, slavish, dependent mentality and culture across society – from governments to villagers.” This, According to Karikari, development assistance undermines the peoples’ faith in themselves. Other scholars also think development should be situated within the context of the country concerned. Prah (2002) for instance argues that “people can best develop from the foundations of their indigenous knowledge” which is embedded in the culture of the people, adding that imposing a notion of “modernity” on Africa will not yield desired results. This does not ignore what the people already know but rather integrates the new knowledge into local knowledge. He finds that it will be difficult for the African elites who are “surrogates for Western culture in Africa” to fashion indigenously oriented development plans.

Burnside and Dollar (2000) and Brautigam and Knack (2004) also found evidence for negative effect of relief aid on growth, while Boone (1996), and Jensen and Paldam (2003) found evidence to suggest that aid has no impact on growth. It should be noted that, although Burnside and Dollar (2000) concluded that relief aid has positive effects, this conclusion applies only to economies in which it is combined with good fiscal, monetary, and trade policies.

In addition to the above findings key informants mentioned that relief aid is eroding local coping mechanism to natural and artificial disasters and creating dependency syndrome.

A respondent indicated:

Relief aid is ruining our coping mechanism and makes us vulnerable to natural shocks. It is diverting us from our normal livelihood activities (A1).

Somali communities have strong social support including transfers from the Diaspora, donations from well-wishers and income from social networks, among others (A4).

4.8 Donor Strategies on Delivering Aid

The study sought to determine strategies used by donor communities in delivering aid. Basically, this was to test if these strategies strengthen local resilience or adversely increase dependency. The study also scrutinized level of satisfaction of local people on how aid is delivered, managed and distributed. It also explored practical and context based interventions, which could be more sustainable in improving the livelihoods of the local communities and reducing dependency.

Headmen were not happy on how humanitarian aid is planned and the strategies employed by donor communities and the lack of government regulations on aid sector.

Some headmen pointed out that:

Aid providers rarely consult us in designing and planning of humanitarian interventions. Aid delivery is a top-down process and not in line with local priorities. Locals need support but according to their priorities, not what aid agencies perceive (A2).

Since the collapse of the central government in 1991, Somalia does not have a strong government that regulates and coordinates relief aid. Aid agencies enjoy a wide liberty in determining their strategic directions. They even introduce projects which are not feasible but just a simple replication of those conducted from other geographical areas without considering local context (A4)

NGOs sometimes introduce irrelevant income generating activities, farming techniques or animal husbandry. Aid delays during dry season when people are in dire need, only to appear when it rains (A1)

This finding were in agreement with the findings of Foster and Leavy (2001), who pointed out that ‘Earmarking’ is a strategy preferred by many donor agencies that fear corruption in recipient governments, therefore ‘earmark’ direct sector or programme funding rather than general government budget support . This not only shifts the agenda-making power to donors who have the authority to set priorities and direct funds accordingly, but also creates patchy and unsustainable development where some sectors outperform others. Also Little (2004), asserts that uncertainty surrounding the amount of relief food supplies and timing of food aid deliveries are at times unpredictable.

Table 4.10: Strategies of aid agencies Vs dependency

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	56	49
Agree	30	26
Undecided	13	11
Disagree	9	8

Strongly disagree	5	6
Total	113	100

Source: Researcher 2017

According to Table 4.10, almost have the respondents 56 (49%) strongly agreed that aid strategies used by donors has increased dependency while 30 (26%) agreed. Those who strongly disagreed were 5 (6%) and those who disagreed were 9 (8%). This provided evidence that donor strategies and approaches used by aid agencies and donor community increased dependency among local people than building resilience. The increased dependency means more aid is required on regular bases, thus the poverty cycle. Continuous provision of the same aid without parallel strengthening of local resilience has caused donor fatigue and a reduced funding.

Aid representatives highlighted that there were always a response gap as the number of people in need of assistance outweighs available supplies. An Aid representative said:

Inadequate food aid supply is due to shortage of funding, access challenges and poor road conditions are the factors influencing aid delivery. Donor agencies are less coordinated which also creates duplication of efforts and wastage of resources (B1)

Calderisi (2006) believes internal rivalry and conflicting objectives of the World Bank, IMF and UNDP have led to some confusion in the policy advice they give to Africa. He therefore thinks a merger of these agencies will make aid more effective.

The researcher further probed the level of satisfaction of local people with how aid provision is planned and implemented.

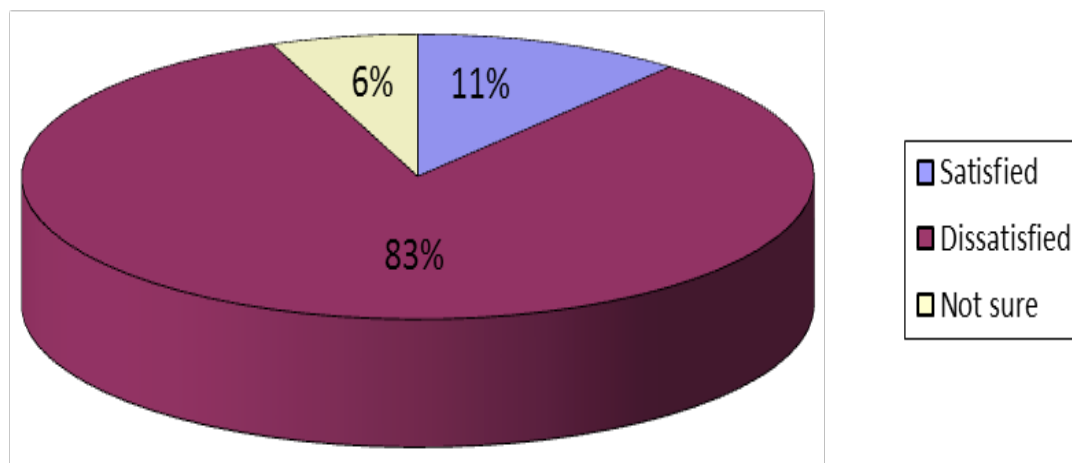


Figure 4.3: Level of households' satisfaction on aid management

Source: Researcher, 2017

Figure 4.3 above shows that 94 (83%) of the households were not satisfied on how humanitarian aid is managed, 12 (11%) were satisfied and 7 (6%) were not sure. Some respondents mentioned institutionalized malpractices in the aid sector among them clanism, nepotism and corruption. They also pointed out that aid and politics are one and the same. This compromises universal humanitarian principles such as humanity, neutrality, impartiality, accountability and transparency. This was highlighted by a respondent who said:

Mismatched priorities, irregularities in aid delivery, lack of transparency and accountability has paralyzed the humanitarian responses. Irregularities mainly happen in the process of beneficiary selection and during aid distributions (A5)

Most local NGOs lack necessary capacities and are clan-based. They have political agendas using relief assistance to further their political and economic agendas (A3)

Leaders use aid assistance to enrich their political motives. Powerful individuals and clans dominate aid distribution prioritizing their kinsmen while ignoring vulnerable households, minority groups and people with disabilities (A1)

Little (2004) also indicated that for instance possible consequences of abandoning income generating activities for relief food supplies are bound to arise consequently

having negative effects on people. For instance, relief food assistance is rarely transparent or regular enough to be relied on. This may lead to starvation and of course death due to hunger. The uncertainty surrounding the amount of relief food supplies and timing of food aid deliveries are at times unpredictable (Little, 2004).

According to McGillivray, et al. (2006), four main alternative views on the effectiveness of aid have been suggested, namely, (a) aid has decreasing returns, (b) aid effectiveness is influenced by external and climatic conditions, (c) aid effectiveness is influenced by political conditions, and (d) aid effectiveness depends on institutional quality.

Dependency relates not only to aid commodities but also technical expertise and skills which donors often bring to specific aid schemes and projects, which when not appropriately coupled with education create an over-reliance on donors (Thomas et al., 2011).

Participants have suggested alternative ways that can be useful to build local resilience. Somali communities have other ways of survival apart from food aid which include transfers from the Diaspora, donations from well-wishers and income from social networks, among others. So there is a need to encourage better utilization of resources generated through these means.

Donor aid should target riverine communities of Juba River where most of the IDPs flee from. Introducing best farming practices, provision of farming tools, fertilizers, pest sides and insecticides could improve food availability and reduce displacement along riverine area (C4)

Interventions should encourage innovations and empower local people especially women to avoid relief dependence. They should build the capacities of local people to engage in trade and investment (C10)

A review of secondary literature shows that Jubaland has the largest livestock population in Somalia and therefore sustainable aid programs targeting this sector would not only improve the living standards of the people in the region but also other parts of Somalia and neighboring regions of Kenya. It was recommends aid agencies to come up with relevant and applicable programs to improve the living standards of nomadic people. Interventions should include livestock restocking for pastoralist dropouts who lost their herds, exploring livestock market opportunities, veterinary programs and provision of basic social services in nomadic areas.

Core life skills training as well as vocational trainings on sectors with potential demand were highly needed. These include masonry, plumbing, electromechanical, tailoring, dressing, computer skills, and beekeeping among others. Construction industry has been identified as one of the most important drivers of the economy in urban areas across Somalia and its contraction or expansion has a direct effect on the behavior of the labor market. It's an industry that employs thousands in the urban areas of Jubaland.

Capacity development of government agencies and local government structures contributes effective aid management and better delivery of aid supplies. Local authority respondents mentioned many challenges they face in realizing peace and providing social services. Lack of resources or incapability to mobilize local resources hampers government response to local needs.

Donor aid should support us in institutional building and stabilization programs aiming at enhancing security sector, inclusive politics and good governance **(C10)**

Donor agencies should support peace-building programs through open dialogue and community reconciliations **(C9)**

They should build our capacity to establish effective public financial management and revenue collection mechanism **(C6)**

However aid representatives highlighted a strategic shift from emergency interventions to developmental ones.

The aim is to build local coping mechanisms to natural shocks and to reduce dependency. Cash interventions particularly are sought to stimulate local markets by increasing the money in circulation **(B3)**

Unlike food aid, cash relief is more flexible as it gives households the freedom to spend as per family priorities. This has sensitized local markets and improved living standards for many households **(B1)**

Long conflicts such as in those in Somalia and Southern Sudan, it is often unclear that the risks faced by people in their struggle to survive change over time. Dependency discourses in these contexts represent a way of justifying a strategic shift from the provision of food relief aid to more developmental approaches (WFP, 2013)

In 2012 the estimated budget of the agency consisted of \$168 million, with allocations for security issues amounting to more than \$142 million. At the same time, military assistance has been redirected from local actors to more reliable regional partners through the African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM). Since 2007, the overall contribution of the largest donor, the European Union, amounted to 414 million Euros, supporting costs for troop's allowances, civilian and logistic components. In September 2012, a further 82 million Euros were allocated to allow the mission reach its planned strength of 17,731. The same assumption is valid for US assistance: in 2011, AMISOM should absorb more than 70% of the proposed USAID – Somalia (USAID, 2013).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the findings of the study in relation to its main objectives and the theoretical framework, and draws conclusions. It also covers limitations of the study, direction for future research and implications for management policy and practice and then for management theory. The chapter goes further to make recommendations on ways of developing sustainable livelihoods away from dependence.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The study revealed that community attitude towards aid 68(60%) and clanism 25 (22%) are the main social factors contributing to aid dependency. Lack of capital asset 69 (60%) and unemployment 29(26%) were also the main economic factor contributing to aid dependency. The study findings established that the reasons for receiving aid by people in Dhobley were mainly as a result of poverty 59 (52%), droughts 20 (18%) and prolonged conflict 16 (14%).

The study exposed that majority of aid interventions emphasized emergency life-saving activities as shown by 55 (49%) of the respondents followed by infrastructural development 24 (21%). UN agencies, NGOs Faith Based Organizations were partners involved in humanitarian aid delivery as indicated by 47 (41%), 26 (23%) and 19 (17%) of the respondents respectively. According to the respondents, construction and

rehabilitation of water sources was the leading facilities supported by the aid agencies 58 (52%) followed by shelter 25 (22%) and health facilities 16 (14%).

The study found out that humanitarian aid had both positive and negative effects on beneficiary households. About 61 (54%) of the respondents indicated that in the short-run aid improved the living standard of vulnerable households, 22 (20%) pointed out that it created employment opportunities and 18 (16%) stated that improved access to health facilities. The negative effects on beneficiary households were that it created relief mentality, diverted households from alternative livelihood activities and led to laziness as indicated by 55(49%), 30 (26%) and 15(13%) of the respondents respectively.

According to study findings, aid agencies used top-down implementation strategy without prior engagement with the local communities. Beneficiaries are rarely consulted in design and planning phases of humanitarian interventions. Majority of the respondents strongly disagreed agreed that current aid strategies pursued by aid agencies decreases dependency. About 94 (83%) of the households were not satisfied on how humanitarian aid is managed, 12 (11%) were satisfied while 7 (6%) were not sure. The finding also showed that institutional malpractices, corruption, mismatched priorities and lack of transparency and accountability are paralyzing aid effectiveness. Lack of government policy and regulation on relief aid programs has aggravated the situation.

5.3 Conclusions

Lack of capital assets (land, livestock and housing), low educational attainment, precluding access to productive employment, ethnicity or caste, age and gender all contribute aid dependency. Prolonged conflict, recurrent droughts and rampant poverty

have also eroded local coping mechanisms and increased vulnerability levels among local communities.

Over the years humanitarian agencies have emphasized emergency life-saving programs than development interventions. Aid agencies support basic social services including health facilities, education and provision of clean water supplies which utterly enhances the living standards of the local people. However the sustainability aspect and local ownership of these interventions derails short-term aid benefits.

According to this study, relief aid has mixed socio-economic effect. On one hand, aid creates relief mentality, laziness and erodes local resilience. Thus poverty cycle perpetuates and more aid is required after each shock. On the other hand, it improved the living standard through provision of basic services like education, health and clean water supplies. It has also positive impact on local trade and investment. However this positive side of aid is not sustainable as it does not equally promote local coping mechanism and it creates dependency syndrome.

The strategies used by donor agencies in reducing aid dependency ignore both the causes of poverty and local priorities. Donors do not achieve satisfactory project results and may consequently reduce funding without actually solving the problem. A top-down uniform approach by donors also has logistical barriers whereby local infrastructure is incapable of carrying out donor projects effectively and producing satisfactory results. Mismanagement and irregularity in aid sector compromised key humanitarian principles such as humanity, neutrality and impartiality. Somalia government does not have strong role in regulating aid sector giving donors and aid agencies more space to determine their

own strategic directions.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

Based on the above findings, the researcher would like to recommend the following.

1. The finding indicated that lack of physical assets, low educational attainment unemployment, ethnicity, age and gender all contribute to aid dependency. Therefore the government and aid agencies should empower households through greater access to physical assets, resources and opportunities. The promotion of empowerment is predicated upon the increased organization and participation of households in decision-making, the mobilization of social energy, and the development of capacities at all households, especially among the poor and vulnerable groups.
2. The finding indicated that aid creates relief mentality, laziness and erodes local economic activities. Aid should strengthen households' resilience to natural and man-made shocks. Aid agencies should come up with more relevant and applicable programs to improve the living standards of households by emphasizing local economic activities.
3. Building the capacity of local authority in realizing peace and providing social services is important. Donor aid should support institutional building and stabilization programs aiming at security sector, inclusive politics and good governance.
4. Participatory development-oriented interventions should be used as a vehicle for greater empowerment of household economies and reducing dependency.
5. There is a need to conduct more sustained research and international to introduce policies and strategies that can reduce aid dependency

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Interview schedule for key informants

This study intends to investigate the socio-economic effects of relief-dependency on households' livelihoods in Dhobley town. As an officer involved in relief supplies your resourcefulness is very important. The research is being conducted purely for academic purposes. Kindly respond to below questions.

Gender :	Nationality :
Designation :	Qualification :
Age :	Aid related trainings :

1. How many households do you serve?
2. What type of supplies do they get?
3. What are the factors influencing relief supplies among the locals?
4. Which bodies are involved in relief supplies?'
5. What benefits do the local people get from the assistance?
6. In your view what are the disadvantages of relying on aid?
7. In your opinion, how does relief dependence affect socio-economic development?
8. What is the main economic activity practiced in Dhobley?
9. Which suggestions can you give to reduce relief dependence?

APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRES FOR HOUSEHOLD HEADS

i. Introduction

This study intends to investigate the socio-economic effects of relief dependency on households' livelihoods in Dhobley town. As a household head your resourcefulness is very important. The research is being conducted purely for academic purposes. Kindly respond to the questions. There is no correct or incorrect answer for each question. Therefore, please answer as honestly as possible to the best of your knowledge. All information provided will be treated with anonymity and confidentiality. The survey result will strictly be used for academic purposes only.

ii. Demographic information

Gender: (a.) Male [] (b.) Female []

Age: (a.) 25- 30 years [] (b.) 31 – 35 years [] (c.) 36 – 40 years []

(d.) 41- 45 years [] (e) 45 years and above []

iii. Research questions

1) Which bodies are involved in supplies?

On a scale where 5- to a very great extent, 4- to a great extent, 3- to a moderate extent, 2- to a lesser extent and 1-to no extent respondents were required to indicate the extent to which bodies involve in supplies.

Actors	1	2	3	4	5
NGOs					
Government					
Faith based					
Wealthy individuals					

2) What are the facilities supported by aid agencies?

On a scale where 5- to a very great extent, 4-to a great extent, 3-to a moderate extent, 2-to a lesser extent and 1-to no extent respondents were required to indicate the extent to which the following facilities are supported by aid agencies?

Facilities	1	2	3	4	5
Schools					
Hospitals					
Markets					
Roads					
Water sources					
Housing/Shelter					

3) What is the main alternative economic activity practiced in Dhobley?

On a scale where 5- to a very great extent, 4-to a great extent, 3-to a moderate extent, 2-to a lesser extent and 1-to no extent respondents were required to indicate the extent to which the following main alternative economic activities are practiced in Dhobley

Economic activities	1	2	3	4	5
Pastoralist					
Subsistence farming					
Charcoal burning					
Small-scale trade					

4) What are the economic benefits of relief aid in Dhobley town?

On a scale where 5- to a very great extent, 4-to a great extent, 3-to a moderate extent, 2-to a lesser extent and 1-to no extent respondents were required to indicate economic benefits relief aid?

Economic benefits	1	2	3	4	5
Economic freedom					
Health improvement					
Improve standard of living					
Raises education level					
Improves trade					

5) How does relief aid effects on households' livelihood?

On a scale where 5 - to a very great extent, 4- to a great extent, 3- to a moderate extent, 2- to a lesser extent and 1- to no extent respondents were required to indicate the extent to which relief aid effects on households livelihoods

Effects of relief aid	1	2	3	4	5
Leads to stigma					
Leads to laziness					
Creates relief mentality					
Diversion from livelihood strategies					
Lowers prices for local products					
Improves trade					

6) What are the reasons of receiving relief aid?

On a scale where 5- to a very great extent, 4 - to a great extent, 3- to a moderate extent, 2- to a lesser extent and 1- to no extent respondents were required to indicate the extent to which the variables were the reason for people in Dhobley to receive relief aid

Reasons of receiving relief aid	1	2	3	4	5
Political instability					
Poverty					
Drought					
Marginalization					
Female headed family					
Availability of relief aid					

7) What are the economic factors that cause relief aid dependency?

On a scale where 5- to a very great extent, 4-to a great extent, 3-to a moderate extent, 2-to a lesser extent and 1-to no extent respondents were required to indicate economic factors that cause aid dependency?

Economic factors that cause relief aid dependency	1	2	3	4	5
Government policies					
Unemployment					

Expensive imported goods					
Lack of physical assets					

8) What are the social factors that cause relief dependency?

On a scale where 5- to a very great extent, 4-to a great extent, 3-to a moderate extent, 2-to a lesser extent and 1-to no extent respondents were required to indicate which social factors that cause relief aid dependency?

Social factors that contribute relief aid dependency	1	2	3	4	5
Culture					
Family size					
Women headed households					
Clanism					
Community attitude					

10. Do current aid strategies of aid agencies increase dependency?

Aid strategies increase dependency	1	2	3	4	5
Strongly agree					
Agree					
Undecided					
Disagree					
Strongly disagree					

9) Are you satisfied on how aid is planned and managed?

1) Satisfied 2) Dissatisfied 3) Not sure

10) Please suggest ways of improving social and economic lives of households in

Dhobley.....

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APPENDIX 3: LETTER TO RESPONDENT (INTRODUCTION LETTER)

14th January 2016

Mohammed Aden Ismail
Moi University
P.O.BOX 3900-30100
ELDORET

Local Authority Officials, Representatives of Aid Agencies and Headmen
Dhobley, Jubaland, Somalia

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH

I am a student at Moi University Nairobi Campus undertaking Master of Science in Development Studies. As part of course requirement, am required to undertake research on a topic relevant to my field of study. To this effect am researching on “**Socio-economic effects of relief aid on households’ livelihoods in Dhobley town, Lower Juba, Somalia**”. You have been selected as one of the respondent. Attached open ended questionnaire seeks your opinion on various issues, would be grateful if you could complete the form as best and honestly as possible. The information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and no single response will be reported on its own, but as assumptions of all responses.

If you wish to receive the outcome of the research please email mohammeddeq@hotmail.com

Yours faithfully,

Mohammed Aden Ismail

APPENDIX 4: PERMIT FOR DATA COLLECTION

**DOWLAD GOBOLEEDKA JUBALAND
EE SOOMAALIYA
WASAARADA QORSHEYNTA
& IS-KAASHIGA CAALAMIGA
Xafiiska Dhobley**



**JUBALAND STATE OF SOMALIA
MINISTRY OF PLANNING
& INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION
Office of the Dhobey**

**دولة إقليم جوبالاند الصومالية
وزارة التخطيط والتعاون الدولي
مكتب الوزير**

Ref: DH/00X00151

Date 22nd Jan 2016

Mohammed Aden Ismail
Moi University
P.O. Box 3900-30100
ELDORET

Re: Research Authorization

Following your application to carry out research on "Socio-economic Effects of Relief Aid on Households' Livelihoods in Doble Town, Lower Juba, Somalia," I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to conduct the research in Doble for a period ending 25th Feb 2016.

On completion of the research, you are required to submit two copies of the research report to our office.

**Abdinasir Mohamed Abdi
Humanitarian Coordinator**

Cc

District Commissioner



**APPENDIX 5: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER FROM DISTRICT
COMMISSIONER**

DOWLAD GOBOLEEDKA JUBALAND
EE SOOMAALIYA DHOBLEY



دولة إقليم جوبالاند الصومالية

JUBALAND STATE OF SOMALIA
DHOBLEY

Ref: Dh00110

25th Jan 2016

To whom it may Concern

Ref: Research Authorization - Mr Mohammed Aden Ismail

This is to confirm that Mr. Mohammed Aden Ismail has been authorized to carry out an academic a research on “Socio-economic effects of relief aid on Households’ livelihoods in Dobley Town, Lower Juba, Somalia,” for a period ending on 25th Feb 2016.

Any assistance given to him is highly appreciated.


Thank you

Siyad Mohamed Hassan

District Commissioner



APPENDIX 6: LETTER FROM THE UNIVERSITY



MOI UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Tel: (053) 43153 Fax: (053) 43153	P.O Box 63056-00200 NAIROBI KENYA
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MU/NRB/SHRD/SA/01 10th June 2015

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
 Utalii House
NAIROBI

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: REQUEST FOR RESEARCH PERMIT
MOHAMMED ADEN ISMAIL – SHRD/PGD/030/13

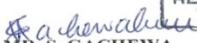
This is to confirm that the above named is a bonafide postgraduate student of Moi University, School of Human Resource Development, Department of Development Studies. The student is pursuing a Master of Science in Development Studies offered at Nairobi campus.

The student successfully defended his proposal and is due to proceed for his research data collection.

The research Title is – “Socio-Economic Effects of Relief on Households’ livelihoods in Doble Town, Lower Juba, Somalia.”

The student is in the process of obtaining a research permit to enable him visit the identified research centers. The University shall highly appreciate any assistance accorded to him

Yours faithfully,


MR. S. GACHEWA
DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
NAIROBI CAMPUS

COORDINATOR
SCHOOL OF HUMAN
RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
NAIROBI CAMPUS

APPENDIX 7: SYMBOLS USED TO INDICATE SOURCES OF DATA

A1	Interview with a headman from one of the local clans
A2	Interview with a headman from one of the local clans
A3	Interview with a headman from one of the local clans
A4	Interview with a headman from one of the local clans
A5	Interview with a headman from one of the local clans
B1	Interview with an area manager from one of the LNGOs
B2	Interview with an area manger from one of the INGOs
B3	Interview with a project manager from one of the LNGOs
B4	Interview with a project manager from one of the INGOs
C1	Interview with a senior administrative officer from the Authority
C2	Interview with a senior administrative officer from the Authority
C3	Interview with an administrative officer from the Authority
C4	Interview with a head of department from the he Authority
C5	Interview with a head of department the Authority
C6	Interview with a head of department from the Authority
C7	Interview with a head department from the Authority
C8	Interview with deputy head of department from the Authority
C9	Interview with a deputy head of department from the Authority
C10	Interview with a deputy head of department from the Authority