

Planning Relief and Development Projects

(The Churches' Perspective)

By

Zelalem Mengistu

A thesis presented to
the University of Manitoba
in fulfilment of the
thesis requirement for the degree of
Masters of City Planning (MCP)
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PLANNING RELIEF AND DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS
(THE CHURCHES' PERSPECTIVE)

BY

ZELALEM MENGISTU

A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF CITY PLANNING

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PREFACE

Despite the dangers represented by recurring international crises many people are still in the halcyon days of modern civilization. I am surprised and disturbed by the intensity of such an attitude in the western world today. As time goes by, however, I am also learning to dread the effect unrestrained individualism has upon the mentality of modern man. I am even more perturbed over our collective failure to realize that we are all responsible for each other's well-being. It is the anguish I experience deep in my psyche in the face of this obliviousness that triggered the conception that formed the bases for this thesis.

In view of this pervasive attitude, what is the place of many publicized relief efforts aimed at the developing world? I don't claim that my work is comprehensive enough to fully assess the impact of relief and development programmes, but rather it will consider critically the process of dealing with their problems.

I am indebted to Dr. Mario Carvalho, a very knowledgeable professor on Third World planning issues, who gave me more insights during lecture hours (course # 36.715) on matters reflected in this work. I would like to quote from his paper presented at the National Conference of the Canadian Institute of Planners in July 1988 here in Winnipeg.

"Whether the world is divided into North/South, West/East, Developed/Underdeveloped or Developing or Less Developed as the jargon goes, is of little consequence. The genesis of the problem is the dialectic between the Rich and the Poor, the Have and the Have Nots and of the two mutually reinforcing philosophies enunciated in the 18th and 19th centuries. The philosophy of "self interest" leading to common good and "the survival of the fittest" leading to unrestrained economic individualism. This is what in essence demarcates the world - the nature of this differentiation and the conflict that such a division generates is central to our inquiry and of concern to us as planners."¹

1. Dr. Mario Carvalho, Professor, University of Manitoba:
at the National Conference of the Canadian Institute of Planners
- July 10-13 1988, Winnipeg, Manitoba

Under turbulent circumstances, where family responsibility coupled with frustrations arising from severe economic problems exert high pressure, writing a thesis of this kind is really a painful experience. I am indebted to numerous individuals and institutions here in Canada and abroad for providing me valuable information. First and foremost, I thank my advisor Professor B. Rotoff, for his continuous support and insightful directives during my carrier years and while writing this paper. He is a polymath professor that can understand so many things offhand and comes in with solutions which have far reaching implications. I have high regards for his wisdom.

On Being Critical

In this thesis the relief projects and programmes planned to avert starvation are critically discussed by citing some specific examples. I am aware that to name agencies would single them out for criticism and I hope both the donor community and the assistance agencies will not consider my remarks as particularly harsh to them.

The bulk of my criticism focuses around the exclusion from the decision-making process of the people the programmes are intended for - often creating more problems than they have solved. I hope, the work will be a contribution towards an effort to increase the incorporation of the target population and the wisdom they inherently possess into the planning and implementation of future relief and development projects.

Contents

Preface	i
Introduction	1
Chapter I	
A challenge to Foreign Aid and the Needs of The Third World	10
Introduction	10
AID and the Third World Poor	12
The Myths About Foreign Aid and the Consequence of Mass Relocation	12
The Myths About Foreign Aid and Its Disadvantages to the Recipient Country	14
The Myths about Population Growth and Resource Depletion	16
What Should be Done to Improve the Situation of Poverty	20
The Face of the Future	22
Conclusion	27

CONTENTS

viii

Chapter II

The Church and the Needs of the Third World	29
Introduction	29
What is the Christian Concern?	31
Trends in Contemporary Theological Principles	33
The Church and the North American Society	33
Perceptions of Poverty in the Third World	35
How Can the Church Help in Bringing a New Order?	37
Conclusion	40

Chapter III

The Dilemma of Relief Assistance	42
Relief Assistance and the Underlying Factors	46
What Factors Motivate the Churches' Intervention?	48
Relief and Development Projects vs. Government Programmes	50
What are the Considerations of an Outside Agency for Working with the Local Agencies?	51

CONTENTS

ix

Context of Planning Relief Projects	53
1) The Regional context	53
2) The Global Context	54
Assistance Forever?	55
Conclusion	56

Chapter IV

Relief and Development Strategies	57
Introduction	57
The Shift from Projects to Programmes	58
Planning in Times of Disaster	61
Types of Disaster	62
Traditional Responses to Disaster	65
Analytical Framework for Disaster-Prone Areas	67
The Material Realm	70
The Social Realm	70
The attitudinal Realm	70
The Dynamics of Vulnerability Analysis	71
a) Time	71
b) Interaction	72
c) Speed	73
d) Scale	74

CONTENTS

x

A Strategy for Project Intervention	74
Monitoring and Evaluation	76
Information Gathering	77
Duration of planning	78
Duration vs. capacity/ vulnerability analysis	79
Hiring Emergency Staff	80
Conclusion	82

Chapter V

Case Studies	
Rural Development and Relief Programmes in Gojam and Gondar Regions, Ethiopia	84
Organizational Background	85
The Problem	85
Analysis of Capacities and Vulnerabilities	88
Physical/ Material	88
Social/Organizational	89
Motivational/Attitudinal	90
Long term Objectives	91
a) Agriculture	92

CONTENTS

xi

Irrigation Projects	95
Miscellaneous Measures	95
b) Assisting Small Scale	
Self-help Ventures	97
c) Relief work	97
d) Health	97
i) Medical Needs	97
Curative care	97
Preventive Care	98
ii) Nutrional Needs	100
iii) water needs	101
e) Education	102
f) The Situation of Women	103
Prospects for the Future	104
Conclusion 2.	105

Chapter VI

Southern Sudanese Refugees

Settlement Project	107
Background	107
capacities and vulnerabilities analysis	115
Physical/ Material	115

CONTENTS

xii

Social/Organizational	116
Motivational/Attitudinal	116
The Project Planning In Light of Rural Development Strategy	117
Advantages of the Project to the Host Country	119
Conclusion	119

Chapter VII

The Settlement Project Revisited	121
The Problem	122
Solution	124
Computer Data Input	
Describing the Problem	125
Summerized Results for the Problem	125
The Construction Plan	126
The Problem	127
Solution	129
Intangibles	138
Evaluation and Conclusion	139

CONTENTS

xiii

Conclusion	141
To Experts and academics in the Third World	142
To Experts and academics in the West	143
To the churches	143
To the general reader	144
Appendix	145
Bibliography	151
Index	157

List of Figures

1.1	The Third World	11
5.2	Mender	89
6.3	Typical Homestead Layout	113
6.4	Front View of a Refugee Tukul	113
6.5	Village Support Centre	115
6.6	Settlement Layout for 400 Families	116
6.7	Typical Satellite Village Layout	117
8.1	Administration Building	146
8.2	Elementary School	147
8.3	Village Clinic	148
8.4	Workshop	149
8.5	Store	150

List of Photographs

7.4	UNHCR Field Office: Gambella, Ethiopia	127
7.9	Site Visit	133

List of Tables

1.2	World Wealth Distribution Ratio	19
3.1	Resources for Development and Relief Activities	43
3.2	Canadian NGOs' Revenue by Source	44
7.1	Initial Tableau (Application of Planning Technique Methods)	125
7.2	Final Tableau (Application of Planning Technique Methods)	126
7.3	Plan of Operation	128
7.6	Earliest and Latest Times	130
7.7	Slack of Events and Activities	131
7.11	Task Cost Entry	135
7.12	Project Table	136
7.13	Cash Flow Table	136

CONTENTS

xv

List of Maps

5.1	Drought Stricken Provinces of Ethiopia	87
6.1	Refugee Influx Route	108
6.2	Sudanese Refugees Settlement Area	110

List of Charts

3.3	Increasing Levels of Dependence of Canadian NGOs on Government Funding	45
7.5	Activities sequence	129
7.8	Initial Project Network	132
7.10	Schedule Chart	135
7.14	Task Timeline	137

INTRODUCTION

"There is not enough aid and aid is not enough"

Paul Gerin-Lajoie
Former CIDA president

"Adios Africa"

Our world is on the verge of a human catastrophe and economic disaster. The seemingly established order is weakening the Third World by squeezing them to undo what they have been doing in the past. Today, more than ever, there are more beggars in the streets of the Developing World. Disease is spreading and children are not being taught.

Over the past three decades, the urge for modernization by governments, international organizations and donor agencies have uprooted traditional ways of life in the Developing World and urged the population

to pursue what they call "a path of modernization." However, the intensity of the push is such that it seems as if all the pain and misery that people in the industrialized west experienced over 200 years has been compressed into a period of three decades.

Unfortunately, it was after many years of misery that elites in the Third World began to understand that mistakes were made, that the future is no longer bright as was expected, and that they should return to a way of life they have abandoned. Traditional wisdom is lost in the process - local knowledge is replaced by western style intelligence and social structure is no longer organized to sustain the previous existence.

On the other hand, it has been repeatedly said that the amount of economic and other aids to the Third World has been tripled over the past few decades. Then why is poverty stronger than ever today? Where did all the money we were told to have been given away to the poor countries go? A recent television programme was reporting that, in the 90's, infant mortality rate in Africa would reach 50% and among the children who are lucky to survive death, 10 million would not have the chance to see their

parents alive at the age of ten¹. These are terrifying statistics.

The Problem and the Problem to the Solution

Several scenarios have been proposed by many thinkers of our time to explain poverty in the Third World, but the following simple facts need no knowledge of high economic theory to understand why the poor grew poorer. Here are some examples:

"In 1960, 6.3 tonnes of oil could be purchased with the sale of a tonne of sugar. In 1982, only 0.7 tonnes of oil could be bought with the same amount of sugar.

In 1960, 37.3 tonnes of fertilizers could be bought for a tonne of coffee. In 1982 only 15.8 tonnes could be bought.

In 1955, the sale of 6 tonnes of jute fiber could buy a 7-8 tonne truck. By late 1982, 26 tonnes of jute fiber were needed to buy the same truck.

In 1955 one tonne of copper wire could buy 39 X-ray tubes for medical purposes. By late 1986 only three X₂-ray tubes could be bought with that same tonne.

-
1. Videon Cable TV Broadcast News Ltd. C. February (1991)
 2. Extracts from Fidel Castro's speech to the non-aligned summit
The Guardian Third World Review, p 229

A noted writer, by the name Robert McCan, narrates the problems in the Third World and the obstacles to the remedies as follows:

"Because hunger and poverty are deeply rooted in political and economic relations among nations, fundamental changes in the patterns of landholding, food production, trade and finance are needed so that the developing countries can break the cycle of hunger, poverty, stagnant agricultural productivity,³ unemployment, high birth rates and disease.

Objectives of the Research

The objective of this thesis is not to investigate why the poor are poor and the rich are not; but to gain a general understanding of the effect of relief and development programmes (known to be sponsored by the North American Churches) in the Third World. In an attempt to achieve this objective, the following subject areas are analyzed: 1) a challenge to commonly held myths about foreign aid and the needs of the Third World. 2) Response of the churches to world hunger 3) Lessons drawn from the past to plan relief and development

3. McCan, R., World Economy and World Hunger, p.4

strategies. In this context the study attempts to answer the following questions:⁴

1. How can church agencies provide emergency aid that meet immediate needs and, at the same time contribute to and support long term development?
2. How can the local people's participation and management capacities in the decision making and the development of strategies be increased?
3. How can we develop the habit of sharing knowledge; in other words how can we use, share and apply the local wisdom?

Methodology

The thesis adopts both a theoretical and pragmatic approach which involves primary and secondary sources of research. It encompasses qualitative and quantitative data gathered on site, personal interviews and group discussions.

4. Anderson, M. & Woodrow, P., Rising from the Ashes p.2

Source of Primary Research

The method of inquiry for the primary research essentially involves two main aspects:

a. Literature Review: A brainstorm exercise to explore some key concerns such as:

"Our world Needs Help!!!"

"Who provides help, the Church?"

"What are the problems encountered while helping?"

"Given that the Churches help and given the fact that the problems in the Third World have immensely increased what is the appropriate way to help?"

b. Case Studies: A detailed study to justify the hypothesis that if a relief project is innovative enough, it can accomplish its task in a developmental manner. On the other hand, if it is not, the risk of interrupting the ongoing development work is inevitable.

Secondary Sources

The investigation concentrates on a number of historical and contemporary happenings using various written materials, articles and the writers' personal experiences as sources of secondary research.

Analysis and Synthesis

The analysis is composed of an examination of the findings obtained from the literature review and the case studies. The synthesis establishes a basis for the policy implication of assistance to the Third World. It also helps formulate the guidelines for a new order that enhances local self-reliance and active public participation in decision-making. On the other hand, it reminds us (experts here in the west) of the essentials of developing the habit of sharing knowledge and respect for local wisdom.

Format

The Framework for analysing capacities and vulnerabilities used by Mary B. Anderson and Peter J. Woodrow is adopted throughout the thesis as a model for assessment and evaluation.

The researcher has made extra efforts to bring the graphics in the thesis to the level of a publication quality. The final product is published using a standard desktop publishing program format.

Research Outline

The investigation is based on the transactive planning paradigm that leans more towards a dialogue and the process of mutual learning than seeking for ready made solutions. However, the researcher will not shy away from a certain radicalism which may be reflected in the discussion of large scale social processes.

The first chapter of the thesis presents a brief overview and interpretation of foreign aid. Its main concern is to show that Third World countries are not benefiting from foreign aid. The second chapter attempts to weigh the sensitivity of the North American Churches to the needs of the Third World.

Chapters three and four focus on the dilemmas surrounding relief and development programmes and how to plan them in more effective and meaningful way. They demonstrate how the opportunity for using the emergency assistance for development work has been lost. They further show the current method of handling emergency work leaves people as vulnerable to the next crises as they were to the last. The research had, therefore, endeavored to answer the key question as how donor agencies can

provide emergency aid that has developmental impact.

The case histories presented are the project experiences of the writer. The first case examines experiences in providing emergency relief that has contributed to long-term development but didn't receive appropriate response from the international community. The second case, which is split into chapters six and seven, deals with similar experiences developed with full cooperation from the international community. However, the execution of its projects lacked technical advice and appropriate philosophical guidance.

The tables and figures shown in the paper are either taken from various books or are data directly collected from sites during the actual executions of the projects. Insofar as the assessment of relief and development programmes are concerned, the findings are believed to be of wider scope and relevance.

Chapter I

A challenge to Foreign Aid and the Needs of The Third World

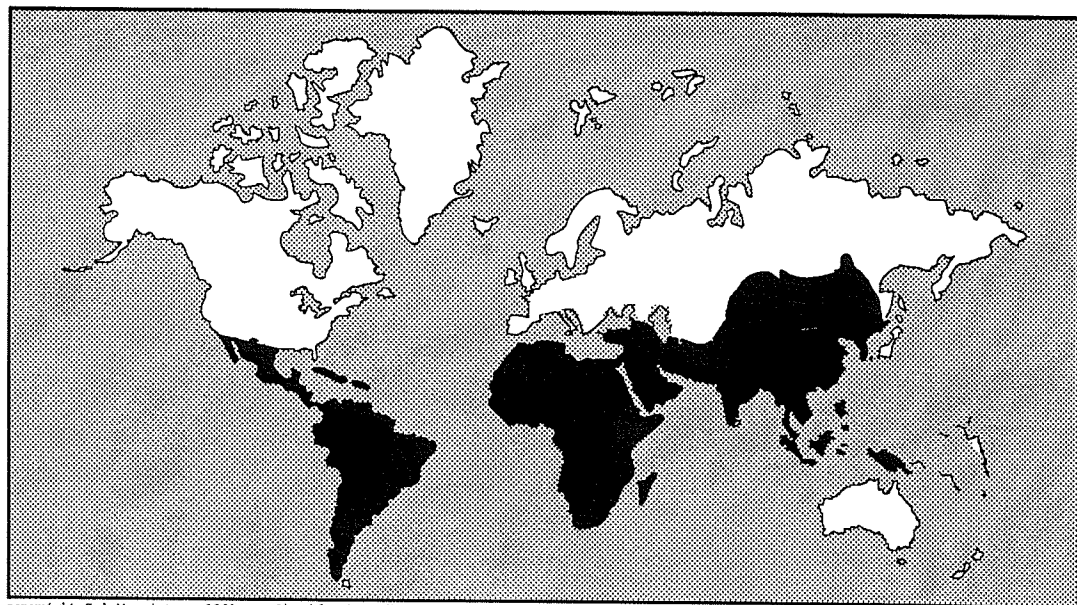
Introduction

This chapter presents a general overview of the commonly held myths about foreign aid and the needs of the Third World. It also gives an insight into the collective awareness for the understanding and care of our Earth, its peoples and life-forms in a responsible manner.

It further discusses what the "Foreign Aid" reality is, population growth in the Third World, its positive aspects and the striking facts

about the absence of an adequate linkage between population growth and poverty. The need to switch to renewable sources of energy to save the world's scarce resources is also discussed.

Throughout the thesis the terms "Third World" and "developing countries" are used interchangeably. Both terms generally stand for those countries which receive official assistance from the western industrialized countries through various international agencies. For illustration see the figure below.



copyright: Zel Mengistu, 1991

Adapted from the Canadian International Development Agency's 1984 release

■ Third World Countries □ Developed countries

Fig. 1.1 The Third World

Aid and the Third World Poor

Jack Nelson, in his book *Hunger for Justice*, explains aid as an instrument of foreign policy; and particularly the U.S. aid to developing countries as a new form of colonialism that creates a continued dependence on the United States. He further states "aid, in its variety of forms, is not and never has been to help the poor and hungry."¹

The Myth about Foreign Aid and the Consequences of Mass Relocation

There is no doubt that everyone acknowledges the humanitarian aspect of foreign aid. However, to create awareness in this area, it is also worth discussing the reality of the adverse effect such aid may have on the poor people of the developing countries. Mega-projects like hydro dams infringe upon the basic human rights of the local communities by initiating forced relocations of millions of people. Such projects deprive

1. Nelson, Jack, *Hunger for Justice*, p.16

the local population of their social and physical environments, that were in existence for many generations.

Societies whose particular economic, social, political and religious systems have evolved to suit their specific habitats have special attachment to the land and environment they have lived in for millennia. Social relationships tied to a particular region are more likely to be dissolved than transferred when relocation takes place. Agricultural techniques that have been evolved over generations in one region may inflict environmental havoc when applied to another region.

The case of the ten-year Energy Programmes of the Philippine Government, under which thirty one hydro electric dams were scheduled to be built in lands occupied by tribal minorities, provides a disturbing example of the extent to which foreign aid projects can be disruptive.² Major foreign aid donors participating in this programmes include the United States Agency for International Devel-

2. Adams, P./Lawrence, S., In The Name of Progress p. 34

opment, the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank. According to a well known source these programmes threatened a total of one and half to two million people³.

The effects of mass relocation are rarely documented in a systematic way by official sources. This is mainly because of the shroud of secrecy of governments who are reluctant to release information to independent researchers or human rights organizations. The human right abuse that occurred in the name of foreign aid in the Philippines is not the only incident. It occurs repeatedly all over the world, not excluding western countries like Canada and the United States of America.

The Myths About Foreign Aid and Its Disadvantages to the Recipient Country

The intention of donor governments to kill two birds with one stone, i.e. by giving the Third World their products while saving their domestic

3. Ibid, p. 30

economy from recession, is the other aspect of the myth of foreign aid that has to be watched carefully. On the surface the logic seems unsailable. However, since donor countries won't give foreign aid to recipient countries in the form of cash, there is no doubt that they tie it to the consumption of their goods and services produced by a system that is not compatible with the energy system of the Third World. From the Third World countries' point of view, however, such gifts that would otherwise not be chosen, can never be better than the cash required to buy them. Consequently, aid recipients pay close to 25 percent more than necessary for a development projects financed by donor countries with strings attached.⁴

The donation of several American Jeeps to the Ethiopian Government during the 1984 famine by the Caritas International can be cited as one among many case examples to be substantiated. These Jeeps consumed half a litre every kilometre on the Ethiopian highlands. By contrast, the more familiar vehicles in the area like Toyota and

4. Ibid p. 50

Nissan use up only a tenth of a litre per kilometre. In addition, Toyota and Nissan have a long established maintenance and parts' workshops with several thousand locally trained mechanics. Since American cars are not as competitive as the Japanese ones on the International market in general, and the Third World in particular, there is no demand for them in Ethiopia. Therefore, the Ethiopian Government had to establish an American-manipulated maintenance crew and also air-lifted spare parts at an extremely high cost. The same holds true for the case of Mercedes Benz cars donated by the Lutheran World Federation.

The Myths about Population Growth and Resource Depletion

The notion by some thinkers that the Third World with its billions of people is straining the world's resources is also unfounded and may in some cases be viewed as racist and unintellectual. On the contrary, there is a positive aspect to the population growth in the Third World.

Unlike the western life styles, where families often view more than one or two children as inconveniences, poor countries some times need more children to become less poor. In the rural areas of Africa and Asia, children join the labour force when they are as young as six years and help in tending livestock, carrying water and collecting firewood and other forms of energy. That means Third World children are quickly converted from liabilities to assets and therefore there is always an incentive to produce more children.

The popular view, prompted by bodies like the World Bank and the United Nations, holds that high population growth rates are to blame for poverty, famine and deforestation and other forms of environmental degradation. However, if we compare Africa's ten richest countries with the ten poorest countries, the former have virtually the same population growth rate as the latter. Kenya, with the highest population rate in the world, that is 3.6 percent, sustained an average yearly increase per capita of 2.8 percent over the

past two decades⁵. The fact is that like in Europe over the past century and in Japan and the Far East today, high birth rates and young work forces in Africa may actually be an incentive to economic development. Therefore, the evidence to support the so called popular view does not seem to justify a link between population growth rates and a drop in personal wealth.

Contrary to what some scholars think, it is the unproportionate use of the world's finite resources by the West that is depleting our planet. The Wall Street Journal on its August 27, 1984 publication, "Blaming the West for Third World Poverty," wrote that, if every one in the world used as much oil as the average North American, the world's remaining known reserves would last for only five years. According to the United Nations data, the wealthiest ten percent in the world consume approximately 40 percent of the world's resources. (See Table 1.2)

5. Ibid p. 74

Share of Consumption of World's Resources (%)	Wealth Level	Share of World's Population (%)
40	Very Rich	10
30	Rich	20
20	Poor	30
10	Very Poor	40

Source In the Name of Progress

Table 1.2 World Wealth Distribution Ratio

As the West has been exhausting its own supplies, and as standards to preserve the remaining wildlife and forests have become more stringent, it has been turning increasingly to Africa to make up the shortfall. Moreover, the search for exotic materials such as ivory, has eroded the wildlife of the poorest countries. The situation has reached crisis proportions in some countries where the demand for certain rare tree species such as mahogany and ebony is greatest. In West Africa for example, forests provide families with their fuel and food supplies. When outside claims are made on these resources, the communities that depend on them become dispossessed forcing them to use what is remaining more intensively. Thus the previously sustainable

systems turns unsustainable.

What Should be Done to Improve the Situation of Poverty

The solution to the global problem regarding poverty can be tackled effectively if, and only if, the depressed and stagnant rural areas can be turned to healthy economic centres. Above all, *rural electrification*⁶ based on a decentralized energy technology, together with the use of appropriate technology methods, should be given a paramount importance in promoting rural economies. A typical spin-off benefit of rural electrification would be agricultural and small-scale industrial development, which increases employment and, consequently reduces migration to urban centres.

Solar power technology has economic potential and is affordable to rural communities. Solar pumps are becoming so cheap and easy to operate that they could replace the millions of

6. Electrification of the countryside of the Third World. It serves as a catalyst for development that transforms apathetic rural villages into strong economic centres.

hand pumps being promoted to Third World farmers by the world's aid agencies.

There is no reason for the Third world to go through the traditional expensive, polluting and obsolete technologies used over the past century. To avert the forthcoming global economic havoc, we have to consider the concepts of developing various appropriate technologies. Such concepts have their roots in the rural areas of the Third World for over several generations and are therefore, vital to the sustenance of various communities. Up to now, researchers and scientists in the West have not given much attention to the traditional methods, since they can hardly be expected to understand the many factors behind such systems.

To mention but one of such systems: the use of the traditional charcoal stove in Africa. It is an appliance that often provides more than heat for cooking. In southern Ethiopia and Kenya, cooking evening meals is done outside using the stove. After dusk when the temperature drops, the stove - its coals no longer smoking but burning white

with heat – is brought inside to warm the home and boil water for coffee. When there is the need to preserve thatched roofing or repel insects in the home, the stove stays inside for some time while the coals are smoking. For a modern stove produced in the West to succeed in replacing this multi-purpose household appliance, it must provide most of these services. Therefore experts often make errors when for example, they assumed that they can fully understand what the Third World needs. Providing stoves that increase the efficiency of only one of the above functions like cooking at the expense of the other functions is not a good solution! Understanding village life and solutions to its problems is not that simple because it involves real assimilation into the life of the local people⁷.

The Face of the Future

As stated earlier in this chapter, the unproportionate use of the world's finite resource is among the principal proponents of poverty in the Third World. Even foreign aid, which is said to be given out to benefit

7. Extract from an audio tape lectures by a Dutch missionary and anthropologist who lived in one of the western provinces of Ethiopia for over 20 years locally known as Aba Phillipos.

the recipient, is not justified as a boon. From this, it seems abundantly clear that the conventional global economic system, which was intended to increase human welfare, is not taking the Third World in the right direction. Is anything wrong with the conventional economic order? Why is the Third World so poor? Is it because the givers of aid don't know how to give or what they give simply does not help achieve social and economic development?

The viability of the prevailing models of world development is being seriously challenged in every aspect. Today, the top-down, mechanistic development paradigm has polarized the Third World population into two extreme classes: namely those who are part of the intelligentsia which runs the technocracy and the overwhelming majority who are left out to design their own survival strategy. What such model of growth has brought to the Third World is unemployment, mountainous debt, famine, civil war, environmental bankruptcy and absolute poverty. We have reached the dead end of the conventional order. Therefore, we need a new paradigm to serve as a basis for a new order in which a developing country will be:

- Need oriented, that is, being geared to meeting human needs, both material and non-material.
- Endogenous, that is stemming from the heart of each society, which defines in sovereignty its values and the vision of its future.
- Self-reliant, that is, implying that each society relies primarily on its own strength and resources in terms of its members' energies and its natural and cultural environment.
- Ecologically sound, that is, the equitable access to resources by all as well as careful, socially relevant technologies.
- Based on structural transformations especially in social relations, in economic activities and in their spatial distribution, as well as in the power-structure.⁸

The aspects of the needed order will include the return to the human scale, local self-reliance, the bypassing of centralized power and active public participation and empowerment in decision-making. Paul Ekins in his book the *Living Economy* splits the above generalities into the following components:

a) the question of macro-micro articulation:

The question of macro-micro articulation reminds us the existence of the principle of contradiction. Any action intended to improve something has at least one negative consequence. An example may be a housing project for marginal urban dwellers which, while locally solving

8. Ekins, P. The Living Economy p. 44

a problem, will most probably accelerate the flux of rural-urban migration, thus worsening the housing problem as a whole.

b) the invisible sector:

The invisible sector is seldom called the informal sector. Even though, its output is not recognized by mainstream economists, it has a significant impact in the economic life of a country. For example, child labour in the Third World is not accounted for, but the survival of many families depends on it. Therefore, excluding such an important component from discussions about a nation's economy or living standards will give us a totally inadequate image of reality.

c) the concept of human needs:

The human needs concept described here represents a departure from the traditional strategy of basic needs satisfaction. It rather describes it as a system that within itself has components which are interrelated and interacting.

d) a reinterpretation of the concept of poverty:

The traditional definition of poverty is inadequate since it is restricted only to people below a certain income threshold. The proposed system should recognize poverty as any fundamental human need that is not satisfied.

e) the problem of critical System size:

The efficiency of a system should not be measured only in terms of its economic productivity, but also, in terms of its ability to contribute to the satisfaction of the fundamental human needs.

f) the aim of self-reliance:

This does not mean self-sufficiency. It is rather about what can be produced at local levels should be produced at local levels. The same principle holds for national and regional levels.

g) ecological constraints:

Fostering an ecologically sound concept for the satisfaction of human needs both for the present and future generations is essential.

h) the question of indicators:

Indicators such as the GNP are inadequate often distorting our perceptions leading us to policies and actions which are counterproductive. A more grassroots indicator that can be handled at a community level is important.⁹

9. Ibid p. 46

Conclusion

So far we have seen some major factors which contributed to poverty in the Third world. We have also discussed what "foreign aid" means to the Third World, its consequences and why it did not alleviate poverty. It seems the more aid is given to the Third World, the poorer it is getting. As explained in the introductory part of this thesis, the fact that the decrease in exchange value of commodities of the Third World over the last thirty years substantiates this strange phenomenon. Perhaps wishing to change this situation, western governments might have recently believed that re-directing "foreign aid" through the church would do the job better.

Whatever the case might be, now is the time to take a hard look at our attitudes towards the Third World. As Dr. Carvalho puts it, one wonders whether actions taken by us are motivated by fear, greed, self preservation, self interest, or by the egalitarianism of caring and sharing. It is not apparent. What is apparent, though, is the old adage "there is no such thing as a free lunch"⁹.

10. Dr. Mario Carvalho, Professor, University of Manitoba: excerpt from a paper at the National Conference of the Canadian Institute of Planners - July 10-13 1988, Winnipeg, Man. P.2

Many thinkers who consider themselves as genuine experts on Third World causes, believe that once capital and technology are in place, everything will be back in order. But the realities in the Third World today demand more than such utopian wishes - it takes hard thinking and decisions which are beyond old style relationships.

The recent Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) data shows that 40 million people - half of whom are children - die every year from hunger and malnutrition. If we were to keep a minute of silence for every person who died this year, because of hunger, we would not be able to celebrate the coming of the second half of the next century because we would still have to remain silent.

Among the agencies which, for better or for worse, are engaged in delivering help to Third World countries, churches and religious organizations are particularly active. In the subsequent two chapters we will endeavour to answer such questions as: How do North American churches approach the helping function? and how is this being reflected in the consciousness of their flock? What is the extent of religious motivation in the present proliferation of church-related activities?

Chapter II

Churches and the Needs of the Third World

**"The Church is and desires to be the church of all,
but principally the church of the poor"¹**

Pope John XXIII, at the opening of Vatican Council II

Introduction

For over nineteen centuries, the helping function was one of the main thrusts of the activities of the Christian church. It has been engaged in dealing with the plight of the poor - feed the hungry, clothe the naked, shelter the homeless, care for the orphan, tend the old and the sick, and visit the prisoner.

After the Industrial Revolution, though, the traditional emphasis of the church on helping the needy

1. C.Boff and G. Pixley, The Bible, the Church and the Poor p.xii

lost its strength and much of the helping functions have been taken over by the state or other secular institutions. Since then the size of poverty on our planet grew immensely. According to the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements estimates, about one quarter of the world's population, lack adequate shelter².

Today, the question of poverty in the world is affecting every one. The church, which is considered by many as the guardian of the powerless, is once more expected to come to the rescue.

Nevertheless, missionary and other development agencies have three basic functions:

- 1) meeting humanitarian needs in poor countries
- 2) stimulating awareness and support for international development among the donor population
- 3) promoting public policies conducive to the creation of a more just and equitable world order³

This chapter highlights the above legitimate

2. Fuller, M., No More Shacks! p.33

goals of the church and its humanitarian agencies by raising such issues as the extent of relationships between the churches and secular governments in the West and on which way the West is going about to do away with poverty and hunger in the Third World. The chapter also discusses how the West itself is a serious obstacle to changes required to reduce inequity and the fact that churches are indirectly involved in the episode.

What is the Christian Concern?

The churches of our days feel compelled to respond to assistance for many reasons. Despite some of the obvious shortcomings, the humanitarian aspect of their intentions draws a compassionate response from various sectors of the society. Even though such activities as distributing relief assistance are important, it is an inadequate response in light of the Biblical teaching, specifically expressed in Luke: "The man with two tunics should share with him who has none, and the one who has food should do the same."⁴

Commitment of bringing God's blessing to the poor is more than the mere distribution of relief

3. Brodhead, T. & Copley, B., Bridges of Hope? p. 5

assistance. It involves seeking justice for all that leads to raising consciousness to influence systemic economic structure.

Many people believe that the church should keep out of the political arena. However, there is another school of thought whereby Christian thought is deemed necessary to shape the new society. According to the latter, the church should concern itself with the total life of society including politics and economic equity. The Christian principle should be applied with a deep awareness in which all men and women are brothers and sisters. A religious vision may greatly change the way our world is developing. It may be a mark of faithful witness to the love of Jesus Christ that fulfills the deep needs of the suffering humanity.

4. The Holy Bible, New International Version, Luke 3:11

Trends in Contemporary Theological Principles

Some thinkers of modern Protestantism believe that the Industrial Revolution brought in a great religious awakening that discovered the insufficiency of former religious concepts and stimulated the search for new ones⁵. Therefore, according to them, these new concepts would be adopted as part of the religious and intellectual outlook, harmonizing themselves with advancing knowledge.

Whether these concepts are true or not is largely academic, but what matters here is the fact that they have paved the way for an array of different theological philosophies which gave birth to different branches of the Protestant Church in North America.

The Church and the North American Society

North American society is a fragmented society with many religious institutions competing with each other. However, these institutions have certain special-

5. Scott, R and Vlastos, G., Towards the Christian Revolution, p. 27

ized roles which no other institution is expected to play. One such role is to preserve a threatened social order. Sociologists long ago discovered that religious spirit never ceases in the hearts of men, and that if Christianity or some other recognized religion does not embody this spirit, then the gap will be filled by other philosophies which will win the allegiance of modern man. This is a common argument used by religious and secular thinkers to explain the attraction of Fascism, Marxism or Communism in today's societies. Fred Graham in his book "Picking Up the Pieces" supported this argument by pointing out that Marxism, for example, has its Bible's equivalent (Marx's "Capital"), its chosen people (the proletariat), its omnipotent force (dialectical materialism), its Kingdom of "God" on earth (the classless society),⁶ and its revered Saints (Lenin, Mao, etc).

Such common fear could be one of the reasons, for both secular and religious institutions, to support the churches in North America today. However, both institutions face two sets of structural problems when they intend the struggle to overcome poverty and hunger. These are the inequity of economic and social relationships within nations and the inequity caused by unfair

6. Graham, W. Fred, Picking Up the Pieces, p. 80

structural relationships among nations. The institutions seem to have failed the latter and concerned themselves more with the former. From the church's point of view, this may be understandable as the relationships among nations is not something the church can tackle since many of them have ideologies different from that of the church.

Perceptions of Poverty in the Third World

McCan, in his book *World Economy and World Hunger*, said if a poll were taken among church people in North America on why so many million people of the world are malnourished and live in absolute poverty, many common responses would be underdevelopment, "laziness" or "racial inferiority."⁷ The Bible, on the other hand, indicates oppression as the cause of poverty on, at least 120 occasions. McCan compares the thinking of American church people with the Biblical perspective and noted the following:

First, in our approach to the poor, whether in our own slums or in the Third World nations, we need to stop justifying our privileges and start trying to discover and denounce the mechanisms of oppression that make and keep people poor.

7. McCan, R. World Economy & World Hunger, p.8

The Biblical prophets were genius at this. We need to enter into the depths of their social analysis and not content ourselves with the discovery of occasional messianic proof texts.⁸

As mentioned earlier, the compassion of the churches in North America seems to have been limited only to the inequity within the poor nations. They have no power over governments to condemn the fact that the rich nations have taken advantage of the material weakness of the powerless in order to prosper. They are unable to influence western leaders on the international economic disorder due to the work of transnational corporations which belong to very few rich countries but control one third of the gross world production and 40 per cent of all world trade.⁹

The Apostle Paul was speaking in a parable when he drew an analogy between the human body and its parts as a unit so is mankind with Christ:

The body is a unit, though it is made up of many parts; and though all its parts are many, they form one body. So it is with Christ. For we were all baptized by one Spirit into one body — whether Jews or Greek, slave or free¹⁰.

8. McCan, R. World Economy & World Hunger, p.8

9. Ekins, P. The Living Economy, p. 340

10. The Holy Bible, New International Version 1Corinthians 12:12-13

The analogy can be seen in the context of the global community. The destitute of the Third World are parts of the body of the global community. If they are not well, the whole world is not well in front of the Almighty God. More than ever, today, the words of the Apostle Paul are true - the world community is closer in many areas like communication, economic, education, culture etc. However, in breaching the gap between the poor and the rich the adversary seems to have the upper hand.

How Can the Church Help in Bringing a New Order?

As discussed in the previous chapter, the church and Western society have some tradition of working together. There is no doubt that the church can influence its congregation which in turn could help influence governments.

The mainstream Western denominations believe that the church should give the question of human need an absolute priority. It can preach in the biblical

context about human growth, social justice and ecological sustainability. It can still show leadership and concern for equity by encouraging the rich governments to accept the notion of the sovereignty of every state over its wealth, resources and economic activity.

Any concern for development, whether it is in the rich nations or poor, leads to consideration of the quality and quantity of trade; its impact on poverty and the extent to which it permits freedom of choice as to the path of development. The free trade by the rich economic powers, which is based more on their own political self-interest than on an altruistic desire to foster greater self-reliance, could benefit a number of developing countries if it were not structured to the detriment of the development of raw materials of the Third World¹¹. For instance many commodities produced by some of the poorest Third World countries are denied fair access to markets. Therefore, the church can work towards the general strategy of trade that should serve development and not the other way round - i.e it can help create a trading environment that should not dictate the choice of development strategy but ensures a fairer treatment for the poor.

11. Ekins, P. The Living Economy, p. 324

The international monetary fund agencies are controlled by five richest western countries with a very powerful voting strength. As a result of dramatic increases in oil prices and cost of manufactured goods, Third World countries desperately needed loans which naturally have strings attached to them. The attached strings are in the form of internal policies dictated by these monetary agencies. Usually the internal policies require the debtor nations take such steps as:

- devalue their currency to boost exports and limit imports;
- control the rate of expansion of the money supply to dampen inflation;
- reduce government spending, especially for human services;
- impose wage controls, while eliminating price controls;
- raise interest rates in order to encourage savings;
- increase taxes;
- reduce or dismantle barriers to foreign private investment and to free trade.

12. McCan, R. World Economy & World Hunger, p. 21

If we examine the above restrictions closely, cutbacks in government spending in areas like health and education hits the poor hardest. Encouraging exports often tempts farmers to produce cash crops instead of crops that feed local people. Wage controls without price controls help only owners of large manufacturing firms while hurting the working class. Such extremely self-centred tendencies have brought about the endemic poverty of millions of people. So far there is no worldly mechanism that controls human greed. The suffering and death of many is only because of the surfeiting appetite of the privileged few. But did the church work hard enough to persuade the banking agencies to smoothen their policies towards meeting basic human needs? The answer is: probably not!

Conclusion

This chapter has looked at the motivation of the churches of North America for providing relief to Third World countries and at the role they can potentially play in the betterment of human conditions. It also discussed some present cultural contextual limitation to their

activities.

Perhaps one need not quarrel much with North American Churches in terms of what they are doing. But one might register some dismay as to how they are doing it, and at what they are not doing.

The way the churches deal with situations in the Third World requires new enlightenment from the perspectives of understanding the causes of the problem. An evaluation of church-related programmes likewise should also stretch from relief and development programmes to educating their congregation, to the extent of lobbying efforts in the Western governments. The following chapter deals with this dilemma in the effort to understand and address the problem of immediate needs in the Third World.

Chapter III

**"The earth has enough for every man's
need but not for every man's greed."**

Mahatma Gandhi

The Dilemma of Relief Assistance

Funds of most humanitarian agencies primarily come from two sources: private donations and grants from governments. The volume of funds channelled to help the needy from the major donor nations is shown on table 3.1. The table indicates some interesting comparison. First the United States, Germany, United Kingdom and Canada are the major donor countries in the world even though there are a number of other countries such as Japan which are wealthy

1985	Private Contributions to NGOs		Official Government Grants to NGOs	
	US \$million equivalent	\$per capita	US \$million equivalent	\$per capita
Australia	52	3.30	13	1.7
Austria	18	2.38	13	1.7
Belgium	23	2.38	—	—
Canada	171	6.74	142	8.7
Denmark	16	3.13	7	1.6
Finland	13	2.65	4	1.9
France	65	1.18	43	1.1
Germany	424	6.95	174	5.19
Ireland	22	6.18	2	5.1
Italy	8	0.14	39	3.6
Japan	101	0.84	41	1.1
Netherlands	98	6.77	69	6.1
New Zealand	8	2.46	1	1.9
Norway	52	12.54	34	5.9
Sweden	78	9.34	41	4.9
Switzerland	54	8.27	41	13.6
United Kingdom	169	2.98	28	1.8
United States	1513	6.32	803	8.5
TOTAL	2885	4.13	1510	5.1

Source Bridges of Hope? p.25

Table 3.1 Resources for Development
and Relief Activities

but with relatively smaller interest in humanitarian assistance. Second the governments of the above mentioned countries generate the highest per capita contribution. Third, even though contributions from the private sector show considerable growth over the past decade and half, clearly they have not kept pace with the tremendous expansion of government funding. See table below.

Humanitarian Agencies' Revenue by Source (percent of total)			
Source	1975	1980	1984
Government	40.9	43.5	48.6
Private	59.1	56.3	51.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source Modified from Bridges of Hope? p.58

Table 3.2 Canadian Humanitarian
Agencies' Revenue by Source

It is not yet clear why there has been a shift in the relative importance of funding from the private sector to government funding. A number of scenarios can be proposed to explain why governmental funding is growing to the point of becoming the leading source of fund for overseas relief and development activities. One possibility is that non-government organizations (NGOs) are gradually being used by governments to fulfill their

interest for there are many things which governments would love to do but cannot do, or ought not to do. (NGOs are construed here basically as non governmental overseas agencies predominantly sponsored by churches). Such a situation naturally erodes their autonomy.

The most common way of government funding to the non-government organizations is through tax relief. This kind of support represents a substantial hidden contribution by the governments. As a result, the majority of humanitarian agencies receive more than half their funding, directly or indirectly, from government sources.

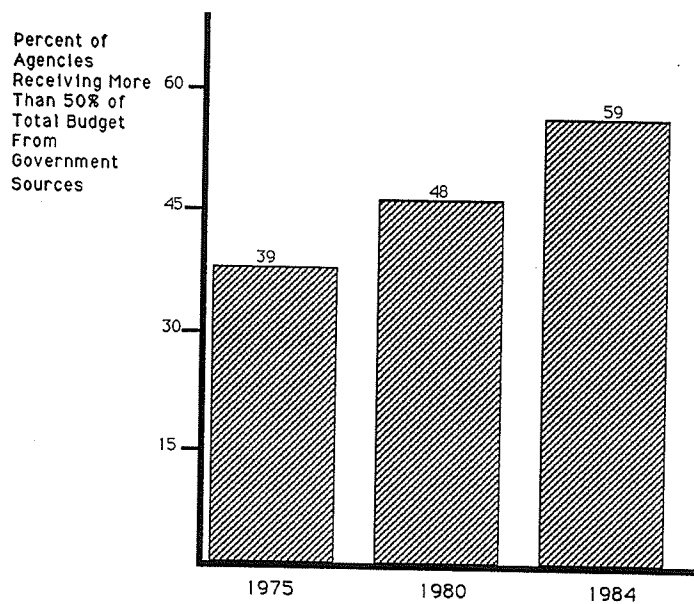


Chart 3.3 Increasing Levels of Dependence of Canadian NGOs on Government Funding

Relief Assistance and the Underlying Factors

More often than not, when we talk about disaster, famine, which is the major form of disaster, comes to our mind. The primary cause for famine in modern times is the erosion of the traditional sustainable mode of life. Therefore, famine does not come simply because there is lack of rainfall at a certain period of the year. The final catastrophe of famine occurs when more deep-seated problems of the community have aggravated to the extreme.

The fact that the West is quick to react on the matter is not attributed to humanitarian gestures only. In 1974, Dr. Henry Kissinger (the then Secretary of State) flew to Rome to address the World Food Conference with a policy that viewed food as a powerful tool of diplomacy to be used in much the same way the Arabs used oil, for America's economic and political benefit.¹

There is a distinct possibility that today, more than ever, there is an implicit political agenda lying beneath every relief effort. A good example is the recent success of the rebel forces in the drought stricken part

1. McCan, R., World Economy and World Hunger, p. 35

of northern Ethiopia. An Ethiopian political dissident who was once a senior member of the main rebel group, underscoring the consequences of Western aid, wrote the following story to the United Nations:

"Over the past 17 years, Western humanitarian agencies indirectly bolstered secessionist positions by feeding both the hungry population and the rebels as well. The rebels, not having to worry about the supply of food and logistics, worked in high gear to perfect their claims. In effect, they used relief supply trucks, medicine and money that came through the so-called cross² boarder operations to dismember the country."

A similar example of implicit interference happened in Kenya, in Ethiopia's neighbouring country. In 1984 Kenya experienced the worst drought in its history. The failure of that year's rain resulted in a failed maize harvest. The Kenyan government estimated the requirement of grain for that year, to compensate for the shortfall, to be 1.4 million tonnes. Since Kenya is very friendly with the capitalist world and its monetary agencies, over a quarter million tonnes of grain and money

2. Yayeh, Abraham., Open Letter to the UN, The Organisation for African Unity, The European Economic Community: London August 7 1991. p2

for purchase of half a million tonnes more was quickly made available³. It was widely considered that the favouritism Kenya enjoys in the west and the timely purchases averted famine. By contrast, communist Ethiopia had no friends in the west and had to face mass starvation!

In extremely complex and dimensionally vast situations like the African relief projects many unforeseen things can happen. However, that should not serve to excuse certain wrongs done in recent years. Some of what had happened in the recent past and what is happening now could hardly be construed as part of the package of "noble deeds of humanitarian excellence". Could there be a strategy which is less political and more humane, and which would allow for the design of projects which are free of controversy?

What Factors Motivate the Churches' Intervention?

Committed to humanitarian principles, church relief agencies generally work to alleviate human sufferings. But more than this, they are pressured to respond to disaster for a number of other reasons as well.

3. Walker, P., Famine Early Warning Systems, p.14

When the media carries horrifying stories of suffering and need, people and congregations suddenly start inquiring as to where their donations can be sent. At this moment agencies feel that they have to respond quickly in order to keep their names in public attention.

Pressure to act quickly comes from the international community because of the new awareness brought about through eye witnesses' accounts and media reports. It is important, though, to know how to respond to these pressures - even to say no if necessary - because some of them may cause the response to reach beyond the mere provision of relief and have an adverse developmental impact.

How can then an agency make a good decision about whether and how to intervene and not get overwhelmed by the pressures around it? Moreover, how can an agency be certain that it doesn't respond to some second agenda?

This is a hard question to answer since major donors do, in effect, have a considerable control and are in the position to exert pressures on most agencies.

Nevertheless, agencies should learn to reduce their own vulnerabilities to pressures that intimidate their planning. At the same time, they must learn themselves as well as educate the public, about the relationship and difference between relief and development.

Language and familiarity with local culture or experience may help facilitate the above, especially in terms of educating the public in the donor countries.

Relief and Development Projects vs. Government Programmes

Generally relief and development projects, apart from the distribution of daily needs like food and medicine, remain experimental. For example, food and medicine have been distributed in drought stricken parts of Ethiopia for the last 15 years, and yet today there are more starving people there than 10 or 12 years ago.⁴ This is mainly because overseas relief projects are not integrated into government programmes and policies, but set up parallel system in health, agriculture, education etc, which do not help improve (but sometimes even disrupt) the established structure. In fact such a choice, in the long run is particularly undesirable since it

4. Africa Rights Monitor, 1st Quarter 1988, p34.

demands to rely on continued outside funds.

In addition, most emergency projects funded by overseas agencies do not appear to be seriously accountable to anyone. Projects often show signs of financial mismanagement and suffer from unnecessary overhead expenses (see chapter VII). There is no one responsible for the outcome of such projects, since the overseas partner is usually not available on site after termination, the local partner usually finds it easy to put the blame on his counterpart and the recipient is not in the position to argue. Therefore partners must set a common criteria for monitoring, evaluating and bearing responsibility for the outcomes of projects they jointly execute.

**What are the Considerations of an
Outside Agency for Working with
the Local Agencies?**

The final burst of decolonization in the 60s largely reduced the role of the traditional missionary-style assistance. In the 70s most church agencies had already established relationships with local agencies either through direct funding or by developing a

partnership. However, to decide on the nature of relationship, one would ask the basic question: does such a relationship support local capacities and hence reduce vulnerabilities or not? (For analysis of capacities and vulnerabilities see chapter IV)

To assess the potential at the local level, the donor agency should endeavor to answer the following questions.

1. What is the developmental approach that should be taken to support the disaster work?
2. What is the proper response in the first place:
- developmental work or relief?
3. What has the local agency done so far?
4. Some local agencies have inherited great experience and wisdom in certain areas and weaknesses in others. How can we identify weaknesses and strengths and maximize benefits?⁵

A support agreement between the two parties should be one that builds on existing capacities. This can be translated into practice through assistance in the areas of training in organizational skills, technical assistance, material and financial support as well as

5. Anderson, M. & Woodrow, P., Rising From the Ashes, p.35

exchange of information.

Conversely, the local agencies may ask the following questions about the donor agencies:

1. What is the philosophy of the relief agency?
Is its political or religious agenda compatible with that of the donor agency?
2. Does the agency offer anything that enhances the capacity to work effectively?
3. What kind of information does the agency need to report to its constituents?
4. Do people of the donor agency treat expatriates with respect? etc.⁶

Context of Planning Relief Projects

1) The Regional context

Emergency relief assistance is very much influenced by the policy context set by the donor country. It is also influenced by the interplay between history, ideology, belief, environment and economy of the operational area or region. Relief and development agencies often work in climates where there are regional factions and opposing forces fighting each other. As noted

⁶.Ibid, p.37

earlier, in such circumstances the food and medicine they deliver can be used to manipulate the needy people. Therefore, agencies should craftfully operate in situations of political division with some kind of delicate arrangements between the warring parties.

2) The Global Context

Bi-lateral and multi-lateral agencies as well as the well known international agencies like CIDA and SIDA are all subject to various legislation and bi-laws that serve the interests of the donors more than those whom aid is intended for⁷.

For example some governments allow aid only to countries which are considered to be allies. Other donor countries subscribe procurement and equipment from specific sources, perhaps with some hidden motive behind it. The fact that donor agencies strictly specify when, where and how to use funds, limits the developmental potential of disaster work in many ways.

First, it gives the impression that relief aid cannot be developmental. Second it forces the planning process in giving priorities to distribution of certain

7. Carty, R & Smith, V., Perpetuating Poverty, p.75

items like food and medicine to the victims rather than focusing on finding alternatives by which people can acquire what they need. On the other hand, what is required is that agencies should have a clear understanding of what is needed based on assessments that support development.

Assistance Forever?

Mary B. Anderson and Peter J. Woodrow in their book *Rising from the Ashes* quoted an agency that had been working on development efforts for three decades in one town in Columbia. During this period the town had experienced devastating floods, earthquakes and fire.

A staff person from the agency reported proudly: "We have several families who have been with us for three generations. We first assisted the grandparents, then the parents, now the third generation is receiving our assistance!"⁶ Can this be called a long term commitment? Working with one family for three generations indicates something is seriously wrong with the assistance

6. Ibid p.59

strategy.

Conclusion

What we have seen so far prompts to ask the following questions: What factors motivate the churches to intervene? Is their intervention anti-developmental? In the first place who is responsible for the outcomes of relief projects? Very little has been written on topics that get to the heart of such matters. The next chapter will devise a pragmatic strategy that attempts to address such issues.

Chapter IV

Relief and Development Strategies

Introduction

The shifting pattern of values, concepts and theories over the years provides the best clues as to the nature and effect of church sponsored relief and development assistance in the Third World. In chapter two it was explained that the goals of missionary and other development agencies basically include meeting humanitarian needs, lobbying for support of international developments among the donor community and promoting the principle of creating a more just society.

Over time, however, the principle of achieving these goals has shifted and the nature of development programmes to fulfill the goals has likewise changed dramatically.

The following chapter defines disaster in its broadest sense. It begins by examining the first decisions that a humanitarian agency makes about disaster response—the decision of whether or not to provide assistance. It also discusses relief assistance and a possibility of how to hold fast to development aims while proceeding to address immediate needs.

Other issues like gathering information, speed, size and duration of responses are also discussed showing that they all are critical when planning a strategy for intervention that increases developmental impact.

The Shift from Projects to Programmes

Though there is no set standard that governs either relief or development, humanitarian agencies generally adopted a grassroots approach simply because of practical limitations imposed by uncertain funding,

manpower, bureaucracy etc. Consequently, missionaries and development agencies sought contributions in various forms from the indigenous communities in order to demonstrate community support and keep costs low. Such projects were therefore of small scale.¹

Until the oil crisis of the mid 70s, both relief and development by large followed this traditional path of direct assistance to individuals and families in need. However, with the coming of the oil crisis, faith in the traditional path of direct assistance began to be increasingly challenged. First, the economic uncertainties that followed the oil price rise, coupled by recession and soaring unemployment in the West, brought forward the question of whether the western industrial model was sustainable for the west itself, let alone viable for the rest of the globe. Second, people in the Third World countries began to gain consciousness by forming peasant associations, producer cooperatives, and community-based self-help groups demanding a greater say in what the objectives of the development would be. Third, and perhaps most importantly, humanitarian agencies themselves came to recognize the magnitude of the problem and concluded that an approach based on the traditional

1. Brodhead, T. & Copley, B., Bridges of Hope?, p. 5

and small scale method of assisting individuals and families is no longer adequate.

As a result of this, humanitarian agencies began to shift their objectives from projects to programmes: i.e from individualized care to a system and programming approach that within itself may contain small scale projects and appropriate technology. Therefore, the provision of material assistance (clothing, medical supplies etc) declined in relative importance. Donations of financial and material resources to individuals or groups was gradually replaced by programme funding. Consequently activities became more specialized and focused on international agencies such as the World Council of Churches (WCC) and the World Vision. Thus the role of humanitarian agencies in the donor countries became predominantly limited to fund raising. Of course this does not mean the proliferation of special funding arrangements through which some agencies like the MCC undertake certain kinds of projects directly in the Third World countries have been terminated.

Planning In Times of Disaster

People often misunderstand the term disaster. Some confuse it with famine and others see it as a natural disaster. A great many people see disaster as any thing that calls for an emergency situation. To clear the confusion over terminology and to come to some kind of understanding of the concept, it is worth defining disaster in its broadest sense.

Randolph Kent, in an analysis of international responses to disaster defines the term as follows:

A disaster occurs when a disaster agent exposes the vulnerability of a group or groups in such a way that their lives are directly threatened or sufficient harm has been done to economic and social structures, inevitably undermining their ability to survive.²

In the summer of 1988, it was said that there was a drought in Canada and the U.S.A. that reduced yield across the continent by several million tons. The governments of the two countries immediately took measures to compensate the farmers and as a consequence no disaster occurred that year in both countries. But in

2. Walker, P., Famine Early Warning Systems, p.5

sub-Saharan Africa, that was not the case.³

In 1984, food production in Ethiopia fell from around 6 million tonnes in the previous year to just over five million tonnes. Additional half a million tonnes were needed for minimal survival.⁴ Unlike Canada and the U.S., there was no government support to compensate the farmers for the loss. As a result over 400,000 people died. The death of people alone will not define disaster, it is the socio-economic phenomenon whereby the continuity of community structures and processes may be disrupted that what makes disaster to happen.⁵

Types of Disaster

The more common forms of disaster are famine, earthquake, flood and storm. All of the above except famine, affect fewer people and the way they affect them is often through famine itself. Therefore, what separates most disasters from famine is their specific nature and cause in both time and space. These forms of disasters are relatively short-lived whereas famine develops over a number of years, causing mass starvation.

3. Moser, Patric., On Famine's Brink, Africa Report Jan-Feb. 1988. P40

4. War and Drought in Eritrea, Research Information Centre on Eritrea (RICE), p.3

5. O'Neill, O. Faces of Hunger p.20

Many researchers go as far as denying that famine and hunger are natural disasters. Onora O'Neill depicts them as social rather than natural problems, produced by economic, political and ideological forces, rather than by biological and climatic constraints.⁶

In reality famine is a socio-economic process which causes the accelerated destitution of the most vulnerable, marginal and least powerful groups in a community to a point where they can no longer, as a group, maintain a sustainable livelihood. Ultimately the process leads to the inability of the individual to acquire sufficient food to sustain life.⁷

It was said that Ethiopia has been suffering from drought since the twelfth or thirteenth centuries;⁸ but its effect has never been as devastating as the recent one. Why is that so? Why is the disaster of our time so unprecedented and catastrophic? The answer to this has more to do with the unfair global distribution of wealth among nations: the haves and the have-nots or the

6. O'Neill, O., Faces of Hunger, p.20

7. Walker, P., Famine Early Warning Systems, p.6

8. Journal of Ethiopian Studies, July 1972. p.38

industrialized and the non-industrialized. Thus, on the international level, the imbalance has greatly damaged poorer peoples' capacity to manage their natural environment by making them each year less and less able to sustain the systems they have been used to for generations.

On the local level, modern civilization came with the greed of the rich which has greatly eroded the ability of the poor to withstand hard times. It made the local rich greedier than ever by letting them enter into a new international relationship. Traditionally, the local rich used to re-invest their wealth locally and more often shared it with the community in some sort of symbiotic relationship.

The "benefits" of industrialization also made people more dependant on technology whereby new necessities have arisen and old ways of survival have been lost. Here is an example: some 30 years ago, cooking oil was produced from sun-flower by farmers in Ethiopia⁹. Then cooking oil was ten times cheaper than its current price. In mid 60s however, modernization began to weaken the rural industry by erecting oil mills accross the country as a result

9. From the author's own childhood memories

eroding the sustainability of the farmers by killing their incentive to produce. When the farmers abandoned producing cooking oil, its price gradually rose to the present value.

Generally, the new climate or "economic opportunity", as it is often called in capitalist terminology, has crippled the poor by disassociating them from the traditional survival skills in a manner that does not allow them to protect their children's future.

Traditional Responses to Disaster

It is evident that famine is a slow process in which food shortage is only one factor. Local people generally perceive the phenomenon of famine as the breakdown of local life support structures. James McCann found that "the response to drought and subsequent famine is not chaotic, but is a process determined by pre-existing social and economic institutions."¹⁰ By contrast, relief agencies perceive the situation as a material failure rather than the social system.

These fundamentally different perceptions have

10. Walker, P., Famine Early Warning Systems, p.39

profound implications on approaches to problem-solving. Most communities suffering from famine have suffered a number of times earlier in their history. Therefore, they have cumulative knowledge and awareness of its consequence.

Despite the failure at the end, local communities are successful in terms of delaying or mitigating disasters. The Amhara communities in Ethiopia, for example, have a traditional way of supporting each other known as "Idir". Idir is a societal mechanism whereby in times of disaster, economic problems, illness and death, members coordinate their resources to assist the needy. At other times, they meet every Sunday at their local Coptic Church to discuss social matters. Usually a member of the Idir is expected to contribute a small amount, either in cash or in kind, for emergency cases in return of the societal protection he gets.

Before famine strikes, the traditional mechanisms of resistance such as Idir have to break down first. In some areas where these mechanisms are strong, it takes years for famine to take its toll. The reasons that some socially more coherent provinces in Ethiopia were less affected by famine than the others could, in all likelihood, be attributed to it. This hypothesis is

apparent when one observes the effect of drought on the nomadic low-landers. The nomads in the low-lands of Ethiopia do not have developed societal mechanisms in times of disaster and therefore are more vulnerable and the first to be easily struck.

Analytical Framework for Disaster-Prone Areas

Prior to contemplating a strategy for intervention in relief projects, an analytical framework should be initiated for the purpose of interpreting incoming information about a disaster situation. Such a move enables the planner to identify the appropriate response and to set priorities among programme options. The key to such analytical framework is the ability to conduct effectively *vulnerabilities* and *capacities* analysis in times of disaster.¹¹

The analytical framework is a tool to help relief agencies design and evaluate relief projects. The nature of relief work is extremely complex involving people of various cultures and different agencies at international and local levels. Under such circumstance, it will be

11. Anderson, M. & Woodrow, P., Rising From the Ashes, p.9

extremely difficult to develop a generalized assessment that is valid in multiple situations.

The capacity-vulnerability analysis framework is created to map out the situation. It highlights the crucial factors and those that matter most to project effectiveness.

Vulnerability generally refers to the long term factors which affect the ability of a community to respond to events or which make it susceptible to calamities. By contrast, needs refer to immediate requirements for survival or recovery from a calamity¹¹. For example, those who suffer from famine may have needs for daily meals and medical attention in a feeding centre. Thus, needs arise from the crisis itself and are therefore relatively short-term. On the other hand, the vulnerabilities of the situation include many long-term trends and factors, some of which directly contribute to the suffering caused by drought; e.g. overgrazing, lack of rain fall etc. Other vulnerability factors do not relate directly to danger from drought, but do affect the ability of the community to respond to and recover from the crisis: poverty, illiteracy etc. Unfortunately, most disaster relief efforts have concentrated on meeting

12. Ibid p.10

needs rather than understanding vulnerabilities. That means they have no developmental impact.

Vulnerability analysis helps in two aspects. First it has an effect on post disaster circumstances by raising the awareness of the factors that contributed to the disaster, and of the precautions to be taken against future similar disasters. Second, it alerts relief workers to the possibility of their contribution to the disaster unwittingly by their intervention. One such example is the consequence of resettlement projects in areas which are relatively green, without considering the long term effect of soil degradation as a result of land overuse.¹³

Effective relief and development projects can be considered as a process by which vulnerabilities are reduced and capacities increased.

There are three visible areas worth noting when we talk of vulnerability. These are the material, the social and the attitudinal.¹⁴

13. The dictatorial regime of Ethiopia forcibly settled millions of people on the pastoral land of the Southern part of the country because of the secessionist war in the North. The International Community opposed this move since the long-term effects of such massive operations on the settlement pattern of the people and on the environment, were not thoroughly considered.

14. Anderson, M. & Woodrow, P., Rising From the Ashes, p.13

The material realm: This has basically to do with poverty. Since poor people in most cases have no savings or income options to support them in period of disaster, they are more vulnerable compared to the rich. The need for the distribution of clothes alongside of the food distribution process shows how much the victims are materially destitute, even though their problem is known as the absence of food to eat.

The social realm: Even poor communities with no savings or property, but with a cohesive and developed organizational setup, have a better chance of withstanding disasters and of recovering, than disorganized people. The case of the Ethiopian Amharas, discussed above, illustrates this fact very well.

The attitudinal realm: Communities or groups who share a strong ideology or belief have a far greater capability to achieve common social goals than divided people.

Secessionist movements in northern Ethiopia had a strong propaganda tool that put the blame for their poverty on the rest of Ethiopians. People in secessionist

controlled areas had a great trust in the insurgents, and therefore it was very easy to mobilize them both for constructive and destructive purposes.

The Dynamics of Vulnerability Analysis

a) Time:

The vulnerability and capacity analysis factors explained above are determined over a specific period. However, since society is dynamic and every situation changes as time goes on, the analysis can likewise be used over a certain time frame. The assessment also changes in order to plan project intervention in times of future disasters and later to evaluate the impact of the project. An example is the case of the nomads of the Sahel region of sub-Saharan Africa, who were struck by a drought that killed almost all of their cattle. An NGO-sponsored project was set up to settle these nomads. A few years later, these nomads were able to produce some agricultural products which led them to the transition from recipient to productive category. By the time the project was closed, the

project was closed, the nomads were already self sufficient and had learned how to rely on their resources. Several years later, when a severe drought struck again, the nomads were well experienced in this situation and the kind of tragedy they faced earlier did not occur again¹⁵.

An analysis of the Sahel nomad community reveals how, over time, capacities and vulnerabilities changed markedly. The agency that carried the project is now capable to see when and how its work had decreased vulnerabilities and increased capacities.

b) Interaction

Whenever there is some kind of activity, there will always be an interaction that affects the three visible aspects of vulnerability namely material, social and attitudinal. For example reductions in physical vulnerabilities is accompanied by increase of capacities in the social realm, which means in turn a transition from recipient to producer in the motivational or attitudinal realm. Therefore any intervention by

15. Anderson, M. & Woodrow, P., Rising From the Ashes, p.18

an agency will have an impact in all areas. Failure to understand the dynamics of the interactions can be a fundamental mistake that is likely to have negative consequences in terms of either efficiency or acceptance.

c) Speed

In almost all disaster responses speed is said to be of essence, a fact of which agencies are well aware. When we run against time or when time runs against us, our focus will be only on immediate needs and sufferings. Other considerations like capacities which are locally available will be secondary. When mandate is given to an agency to act quickly, it assumes all responsibility of relief work and distribution. However, it is obvious that, although there are many things which can be done by the victims themselves, they are often done by agencies instead. For example in Ethiopia women are the manager of all domestic activities including the preparation and allocation of food. But it is still a common practice at feeding centres to see women lining up and waiting to be handed food rather than taking part in the daily cooking chore.

d) Scale

The capacity-vulnerability analysis examined above can be applied to every category ranging from a small community to a whole nation and even as far as to a regional level. However as the scale of application increases, the scenarios examined become less precisely defined. Still, they are very useful to determine the major thrusts and directions for intervention strategies.

**A Strategy for
Project Intervention**

Agriculture is the foundation for the survival of drought-stricken countries. Unfortunately, it is also the weakest sector of their economies. It requires special efforts to stop a decline in agriculture.

A major strategy that may help alleviate the problem of starvation and enhance rural development is based on the proper use of the seasonally available surplus labour in the agricultural sector. The mobilised surplus labour can be used to:

- 1) bring more land under cultivation
- 2) raise yields on existing land, e.g. through

- land improvement projects
- 3) increase the cropping ratio, e.g., through small scale irrigation works
 - 4) improve the productivity of labour; e.g., by improving the quality and quantity of farm implements
 - 5) lead to the development of a local construction industry based on locally available construction materials
 - 6) encourage the establishment of small workshops and factories to process agricultural products, produce simple consumer goods used locally and provide inputs for further agricultural development.

Before considering project intervention in a manner explained above, an agency must identify the points of decision where the intervention affects the capacity and vulnerability and at each of such points, the analysis will assist in providing what choices to take.

We have to be aware though, that the vulnerability-capacity analysis is only a diagnostic tool. However, it is a tool that has a power to organize and systematize knowledge and understanding of a situation so that we can recognize important factors affecting people's lives, and more accurately predict the impact of our own

16. The Guardian Third World Review, November 9 1984, p.11

interventions on their internal resources¹⁷ .

Monitoring and Evaluation

Due to the struggle for organizational survival, most church sponsored relief projects are concerned about the availability of funds rather than their developmental impact. On the other hand, the donor public is more interested in whether or not the aid is getting through to the people who need it. Therefore, agencies use delivery of aid to families who have the greatest needs as a criteria for monitoring. While such criteria are useful in ensuring the distribution of scarce goods where they are needed most, they also remove control and responsibility from the local participants.

The vulnerability-capacity analysis provides a clue for evaluating the impact of relief projects on the local people. For example, goods provided as relief aid reduce immediate vulnerabilities. While this is the positive aspect, if the goods lower market prices by killing the incentives for local production, then they can result in increasing future vulnerabilities. On the other hand, when the assistance raises yields or creates

17. Anderson, M. & Woodrow, P., Rising From the Ashes, p.21

conditions for more cultivation, there may be an increase in capacities.

Evaluations of both relief and development projects are best made in consultation with the local people. Since they know better how a relief effort affects their lives, it would be wise to engage them in the process. Through reflections on successes and failures, such involvement can provide a new opportunity for increasing the capacities of all participants. In other words through such exercises, the local people will learn more about what does and what does not work.

Information Gathering

Information gathering is a critical component for the kind of clear understanding mentioned above. The local people know very well the causes of their problems as well as how to diagnose them; therefore, they are the main source of long time data needed in planning, programing and determining priorities.

Through proper training and guidance, local people can learn to organize and analyze what they know.

In the process of organizing and analyzing information, they can identify cause and effect, on the basis of which options for decisions can be evaluated. Thus the local people can acquire an increased understanding of their own situation and become active partners or participants in the execution of projects, instead of becoming mere recipients.

Duration of planning

It is commonly believed that long term planning of projects results in developmental impact. An effective project usually has good media coverage and, therefore, raises more money by staying longer in the public's eye. This, in turn, increases the agencies' reputation for achieving humanitarian goals.

Employees of a project, from their perspective, would not like the early termination of their projects because they want to maintain the benefits and additional privileges employment with an agency confers upon them in the host country. Therefore most agencies leave staff on site long after they executed the initial project.

The longer a project stays on in a disaster area, though, the more danger there is of an increased vulnerability and of decreasing local capacities. Here is how this occurs:

1. Local people, by nature, prefer to come to project offices and ask for advice wherever possible. This kills their ability to make local decisions and hence increases their dependence on the project office.

2. The local staff who are employed by the project are usually very poor and have no alternative available to them if the project is terminated. They would not like the closure of the project and therefore would not hesitate to prolong the project by increasing the dependency of the local people on the project.

Duration vs. capacity/ vulnerability analysis

It is true that development takes longer to achieve than the usual life span of a medium sized project. However, it is not at all clear whether long term projects have a greater developmental impact than the short term

ones and vice versa. On the contrary, as we have seen above, the longer the project lingers on in an area, the more it reduces the local capability, by taking over many aspects of the community's activities, including the very important role of local decision making.

The duration of a project should, therefore, not exceed the point where the local people have been given sufficient momentum to take the responsibility for their own development¹⁸. The fine line between taking responsibility and perpetuating dependency on an outside agency should clearly be drawn.

Hiring Emergency Staff

The personnel to be employed in a relief project is an important factor in determining its developmental impact. The qualification of the staff to be hired and the roles it should play are also equally important. The duration of the employment is a factor as well.

In the recruitment process, the agencies are facing a dilemma. They have to find individuals who know the disaster struck area very well, and who have a previous

18. Ibid p.55

experience in disaster response. But, if such people are found, there is the additional problem of, whether or not they are available at the time they are needed.

For their part today's donor agencies prefer their expatriate staff to consist of people who can provide public education about Third World problem when their service stint is over. Others assign people who are capable of performing additional tasks such as furthering the political aims of the donor country, an activity which is not at all related to the relief program.

Given the above circumstances, who should really be employed to get the job done? Experience has proved that projects which had the strongest developmental impacts relied more on locally-hired staff than on expatriates. Expatriate staff, in addition to their area of expertise, can be effective in providing a cover to the local staff wherever there is a fear of political persecution. In addition, expatriates who respect the capacities of local people, are extraordinarily important in promoting the developmental impact of relief work. Therefore it is important to have a successful balance between expatriates and the local leadership.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have seen that:

1. A relief project either supports or undermines development.
2. Local agencies are in a better position to respond to a disaster than outside agencies.
3. Agencies should not intervene in a disaster situation unless their activity supports local capacities.
4. Misguided relief efforts have been known to do more harm than good.

Thus, given the above conditions, in many situations doing nothing is better than doing something badly, especially where the capacity to handle the crisis exists within the stricken society. These points are illustrated in the subsequent case studies which examine a series of relief and rural development efforts in Ethiopia. They describe planning and implementation of the projects under examination in light of the analytical framework methodology explained earlier in this chapter. It is believed that by carefully pursuing these projects a generalizable lesson for future planning of similar projects can be drawn.

The case histories are catagorised into two:
a) relief/development operations with grassroots approach
b) refugee resettlement projects carried out by international development agencies. Both approaches constitute developmental impact but with marked differences. It is hoped that more salient lessons on the application of relief and development strategies can be learned from this diversity¹⁹ .

19. The writer of the thesis, as the Secretary of ROFE support Committee in Winnipeg, Canada, for two years and a physical planner for the Southern Sudanese Refugees Settlement Project in Ethiopia, takes a special pride in presenting the studies which are largely based on his own experiences.

**Rural Development and Relief
Programmes in Gojam and Gondar
Regions, Ethiopia**

The following case study constitutes a grassroots *rapprochement* where the role of the church (in this case the local church) complies with local capacities. Even though some Western church organizations have attempted to take part in this project, their influence did not go beyond financial assistance and expertee advice. This is largely due to the strong influence of the Ethiopian Orthodox Church in the area and its long time resistance to the intrusion of other denominations.

ROFE's primary objective is to increase local capacity so that people can easily cope with situations should a future crisis occur. To achieve this, ROFE devised a small-scaled low-tech development scheme.

Organizational Background

The Relief Organization for Ethiopia (ROFE) was founded in 1984 in the Sudan by concerned Ethiopians. ROFE is a Humanitarian non-profit organization whose aim is to promote programmes of small-scale rural development, agricultural and health service projects, as well as provide relief assistance.

The Emanuel International of Canada also known as Fellowship for African Relief in the Sudan, started working with ROFE in a number of relief and development programmes since 1986. There are other similar agencies in Europe namely, Food for All in Germany and Norway who supported ROFE by distributing information materials and collecting money for its projects.

The Problem

Following Nigeria, Ethiopia is the second most populous country in Black Africa. With a population of over 50 million, Ethiopia adds one million new mouths to feed every year, on top of the current six to seven million people annually dependent on relief assistance. Even in the best of years, over a million people annually expect food rations from the government, individuals or

international agencies.

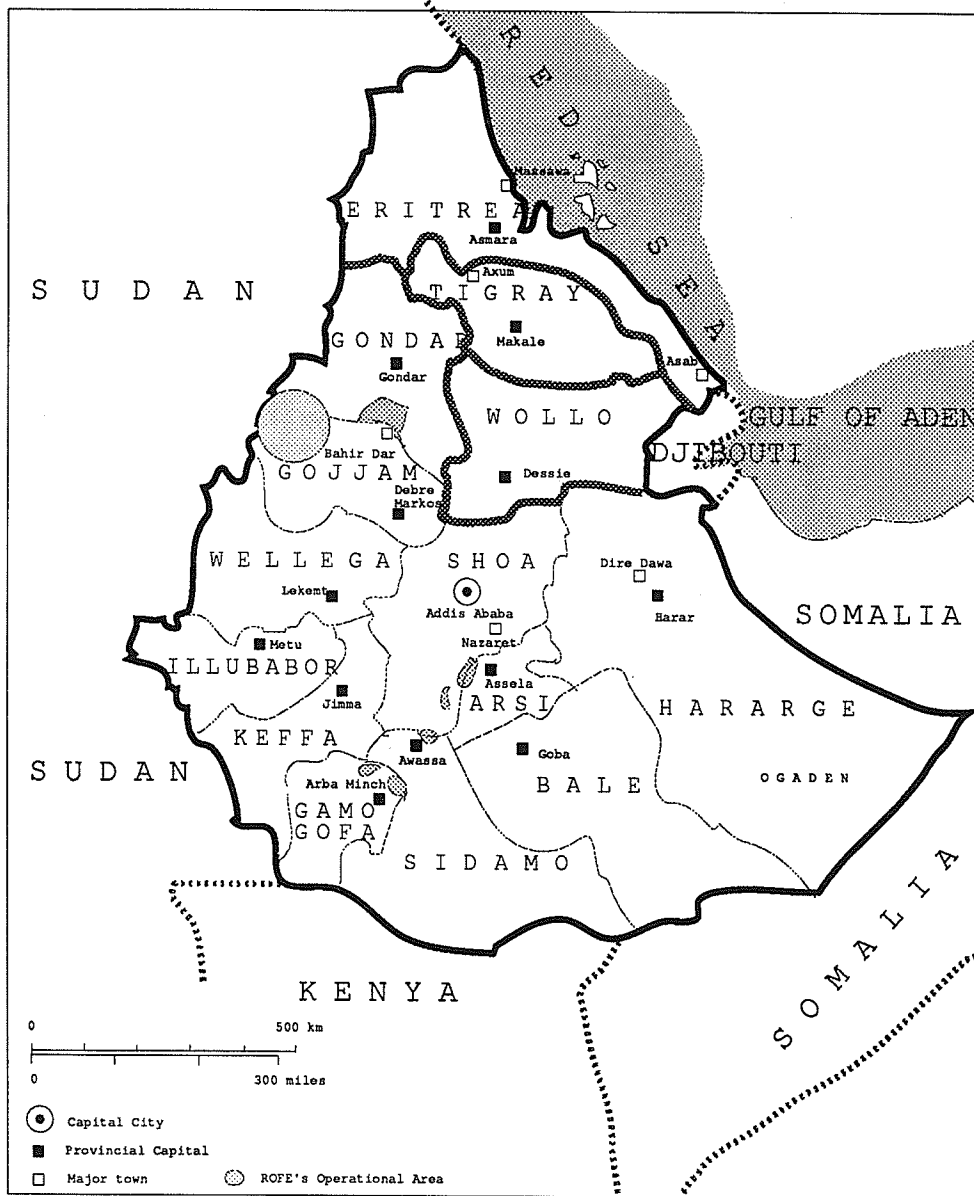
Although Ethiopia has never been colonized in its three thousand years old history, the legacy of absolute rule and feudal socio-economic structure left the country as one of the poorest on our planet.¹

In 1974, a popular revolution brought to end the existence of the feudal system of land tenure and the accompanying class structures. Land was given to the peasants and the newly created "Peasants Associations" were assigned to administer it. While the revolution has reduced social inequities, poverty has remained widespread.

At least seven of the 70 main tribes in Ethiopia live in the ROFE project area. Among these are the Amharas, the Gumuz, the Agew, the Shinasha and Falashas (the Ethiopian Jews or Bete Israel). Some of these groups have never benefited from aid given by the international donor agencies or the government. The Gumuz are considered as the most primitive group and have traditionally been looked down upon by the Amharas, remnants of feudalism.

1. Jansson, K. , Harris, M. , & Penrose, A., The Ethiopian Famine P.89

ETHIOPIA



copyright Zel. Mengistu, 1991

Map. 5.1 Drought-stricken Provinces of Northern Ethiopia

Due to a lesser ability to stay in control of their life properly, these people often become indebted to the more culturally advanced tribes eventually becoming slaves. The ROFE project was designed to change this, by encouraging the disadvantaged to plan and live a sustainable way of life.

The ROFE operational areas are not controlled by the Ethiopian government and therefore, are subject to attacks by government soldiers any time. Such attacks can change life overnight. The people take their most valuable belongings and abandon their villages to flee from the destructive power of government forces. The atrocities put an additional strain on ROFE's developmental efforts, often forcing them to be interrupted.

Analysis of Capacities and Vulnerabilities

Physical/ Material: The population of rural Gojam and Gondar provinces live on rain-fed subsistence farming and some animal husbandry. There is no sufficient infrastructure set in place to support the appropriate technology needed to improve the quality of life. Overcrowding,

inefficient farm practices and overgrazing are destroying the environment by increasing the physical vulnerability of the region. Since some of these people, by virtue of their cultural tradition, are opposed to any form of collective agricultural policies, it is clear that they are not likely to cooperate with an across-the-board application of centrally planned agricultural efforts.

Social/Organizational: The survival strategies in

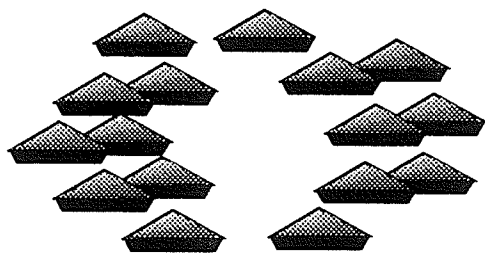


Fig. 5.2 Mender

times of disaster are based on mutual aid within the family and the community which is grouped in *mender* or cluster of homesteads made of thatched roof hamlets. It is important to

note that being grouped in communities like *mender* is a natural settlement pattern and should not be taken as a structure that came to existence as a result of Marxist collective agricultural activity.

Peasants believe the family has better chances of survival if it remains as a unit. The contribution of each adult member becomes critical to the survival of the family as hard times approach. Men play the role of

seeking casual wage employment in the urban centres in order to save some cash while the women assume additional responsibility of looking after the family while the men are away from home. As the situation worsens, the women may even leave home to beg.

Previously set up government structures have collapsed. However, the people have organized themselves into peasant associations and other mass organizations for women and the youth. Perhaps the most important organized body, that has existed for millennia in the country, is the Ethiopian Orthodox church. During times of famine the church was the centre for a heightened awareness and coordination of local assistance. Even today, priests are serving as relief workers in distributing food in areas which are not accessible to transportation and which are physically beyond the reach of international donor agencies. The church building itself is often used as relief distribution and staging centre.

Motivational/Attitudinal: If we observe the routine activities of the average peasant during normal seasons, we will discover that his aim is to ensure his family

against hardships and death. The decision to consume only a particular kind of crop or farm animal and to sell the others is, first and foremost predicated on the need to ensure economic security, crisis anticipation or survival, should an unexpected situation arise. Dessalegn Rahmato, in his book Famine and Survival Strategies, notes that peasants have anticipatory survival strategies which have elements of disaster preparedness built into their farming systems and exchange relations.²

The fact that, when compared to other parts of Ethiopia, the project area is backward and relatively inaccessible to development has weakened initiatives for generating ideas and solving problems. However, once some support projects are in place, it is hoped that the people can regain their interest and initiative.

Long Term Objectives

Chapters three and four have dealt with the strategic planning issues that confront Third World relief-development, in particular how to hold fast to long term development aims while proceeding to address

2. Rahmato, D., Famine and Survival Strategies p.5

immediate needs. The long term objective of ROFE is based on such principles. It intends to increase local capacity to the point the people in the area can cope with any natural crises that occur in the future. To achieve this, ROFE's primary objective became to concentrate on small-scaled low-tech development work.

a) Agriculture

The long dry seasons coupled with lack of fertile fields do not allow for a diversified agriculture. Vegetables which are the sources of a balanced diet are not grown in this area and therefore are not known by the people. Agricultural methods are very primitive and sticks are used to trace furrows and plant seeds. One of the tasks of ROFE was to encourage these people to use oxen for farming to increase yield and diversity. Even though the people were impressed, most were unable to use oxen simply because they are too expensive to buy. For the better off who are able to own them, the problem of cattle diseases such as rinderpest arises. ROFE would have to buy vaccines and distribute them freely. The other difficult aspect is that vaccines need to be refrigerated and refrigerators are expensive, difficult to transport and require energy.

As was mentioned above, the peasants in the project area are opposed to any form of collective farming. These peasants have the tradition of individual land ownership. Therefore, they spoke very negatively about their experiences with the government's land reform policy to introduce communal farming. It seems that it takes a very long time to convince these people of the advantages of cooperative farming.

People fleeing the Ethiopian Government's villagization policy increased dramatically during the policy's implementation. The constant influx of people created serious difficulties for ROFE in ensuring decent life conditions. An increasing population puts a heavy strain on scarce resources like land, food and drinking water.

Even though ROFE's effort in the agricultural field has had some successes, it has been handicapped by the lack of funds and materials. Given the overall backward development in this sector and the disparity which exists amidst the people (some having several oxen

and others none), ROFE has focused on the improvement of the condition rather than attempting grandiose projects.

Specifically, ROFE plans:

- to put an end to the "shuluka" (method of farming only by hand) by supplying oxen to peasant families and by using tractors to farm for others
- to distribute improved seeds (drought resistant types) and new types of seeds
- to launch pilot irrigation farms with special attention to influencing the nutritional habits of the people
- to encourage animal husbandry and poultry farms both to generate income and to improve the diet of the people;
- to protect the environment (forest, wild life and fishery).

The use of tractors in the fertile low lands decreases the need for oxen and also helps to increase productivity. ROFE has already tried this idea by farming some 200 tractor hours for Gumuz farmers in the Metekel lowlands. The combined use of tractors, oxen and supply of farming equipment will contribute immensely.

Irrigation Projects: pilot irrigation farms are given great importance by ROFE given the fact that there is ample land which could be utilised by irrigation. The aim of the project is to actualise diversified production and to introduce to the people the usefulness and effectiveness of irrigation measures.

According to a study made by ROFE it is possible to establish two substantial pilot irrigation farms at the AIMA and GELEGU rivers. ROFE personnel intends to monitor the projects, while the work will be provided by the farmer's associations which will be the direct beneficiaries.

Miscellaneous Measures: In connection with poultry farms, ROFE plans to give chicks, hens and cocks to selected Gumz, Agew, Bete Israel and Amhara families. This is intended to encourage the commercialisation of eggs which are neither sold nor consumed in sufficient quantities at present.

In matters regarding the protection of the environment, it is noted that ROFE has launched, with the cooperation of the Farmers' Associations, a successful campaign to protect the environment. In this respect the effective ban on killing endangered wild life such as lions, elephants, gazelles, etc. has been achieved. In addition, sufficient awareness has been generated in the locality to stop using a poison called "Birbira"³ in rivers and ponds for fishing purposes. The banning of indiscriminate burning of farm lands and forests has also some merit of its own.

Fostering awareness and enacting prohibitionist measures alone is not sufficient - people should be provided with alternatives to the things they are required not to use. In this respect ROFE is attempting to secure fishing nets, solar cookers and other appropriate-technology items which would reduce the environmentally damaging practices.

To launch a campaign of re-forestation, ROFE is engaged in a search for seedlings not only of a drought-resistant variety but also of a kind suitable for the colder highlands.

3. A tree with poisonous seeds. The tree and the seed are used synonymously. The former is used for construction, furniture making, etc whereas the latter serves as a fish intoxicant.

b) Assisting Some Small Scale Self-help Ventures

Helping and assisting artisans and craftsmen contemplating small scale self-help ventures is also among the major concerns of ROFE. In this respect, special emphasis is given to helping national minorities, mainly the Gumz, the Agews, the Bete Israel, by encouraging them to initiate self-help projects at individual and village levels and to promote the marketing of the produced items.

c) Relief work

Besides natural causes like drought, there are certain man-made problems which necessitate relief assistance. During its military campaigns, the government would leave behind destroyed and burned huts. In such circumstances and others, ROFE had to appeal to the international donor community for help for relief assistance.

d) Health

i) Medical Needs: Medical work is the main area of activity. Here ROFE attempts to work on two levels:
Curative care: On this level, ROFE's principal thrust is the building of stationary clinics and the support of

mobile medical teams. The project goes hand in hand with the training of health workers. In this respect, ROFE plans to focus on the following:

- a) setting-up of mobile clinics;
- b) training of basic level personnel or paramedics;
- c) refresher courses to the already trained;
- d) training of more mid-wives;

Mobile clinics go along with the training of paramedics and midwives. To train 100 paramedics and some 30 mid-wives for 45-60 days requires at least \$8,000 US. ROFE must cover lodging, the purchase of grain and other materials.

In all cases, the realization of such a project calls for the supply of medicine and basic equipment. While conditions do not help in the actualisation of an effective preventive campaign, it is still possible, to undertake educational measures vis-a-vis basic health care and sanitation.

Preventive Care: This aspect consists of organizing educational programmes in the area of primary health care

such as hygiene, sanitation and nutritional advice.

According to findings by a team from Emanuel International, the diseases that are very common in the project area are as follow:

- Malaria (endemic in most of the lowlands)
- Hook worms, Round worms, etc.
- Measles
- Meningitis
- Schistosomiasis (bilharzia)
- Onchoceriasis (River blindness)
- Anemia
- Tuberculosis
- Kwashiokor
- Amoeba and Giardia (dysentery)
- Leishmaniasis (kala-azar)
- Gastrointestinal infections
- Urinary tract infections

The cause for many of these illnesses are the lack of clean water, hygiene and balanced diet. Environmental factors affecting health and sanitation, such as defecating in rivers, were avoided by educating the communities on how to use pit latrines. This is

particularly important since the area is infested by parasite generating environment.

The heavy work load of women also contributes to their lack of resistance which further exacerbates the problem leading to early deaths. It is also worth noting that problems are highest during the rainy season since the people who are in a weak condition to begin with, must work long hours in the fields preparing the land and planting seeds.

Medicines used to be sold haphazardly in market places with no concern for expiry dates or the proper use of the drugs. Since the ROFE clinics started to operate, people's understanding of the nature of illness and the use of drugs have started to change very dramatically. As a result the demand for medical care has increased but, unfortunately, ROFE's limited supply of medicines does not permit it to match the demand.

ii) Nutritional Needs: As has been pointed out earlier, the diet of these people is very limited. Their principal ingredient for cooking is sorghum. Those who have some extra money may buy beans. Even though every one has some

chicken at home no one eats them. Chickens are for sale as a source of cash. As stated earlier, there is no tradition of growing vegetables in the area and therefore, there are many health problems due to lack of minerals and vitamins.

With the view of improving the diet of the people, ROFE supplied the farmer associations with improved seeds like the desert type lentils which have already proved to be a success.

iii) water needs: Recently most rivers in the project area have been drying-up completely during the dry season. In search of water, the people are obliged to dig down into the riverbed. A small collection area is formed where the ladies come to scoop out the water to carry home. In many cases, the water tends to stagnate forming a perfect breeding ground for insects and mosquitoes.

The need to protect these water sources or find an alternative way of fetching water is extremely important. It is common knowledge that most of the tropical diseases listed above are caused by the lack of safe water to drink. Digging water wells as needed solves

most of the health related problems through the preventive health care method.

e) Education

ROFE has opened several schools and is engaged in running them. In conjunction with the primary education programme, basic literacy programmes were set up enabling 10123 people to learn to either read or write in 1989⁴ alone. However, the limited resource of ROFE can't cover school supplies such as blackboards, books, writing pads, pens, pencils, etc. for which there is a great need.

Assisting traditional Coptic Church schools to function fills the gap created by ROFE's inability to open and run as many schools as are needed by the people in the area. It also helps in the continuation of the tradition, such as preserving the Geez⁵ language, etc...

In this respect, assisting the continuation of Coptic schools or helping in the launching of new ones

4.ROFE 1990 Project Proposal

5.The language spoken by the ancient Semetic inhabitants of Northern Ethiopia. Geez to Ethiopians is what Latin is to the Europeans.

involves mainly financial support to the priests who run such schools. ROFE aims to give the priests 150 Birr⁶ per month so as to cover their expenses partially. This includes the purchase of ecclesiastical books like Psalms of David, etc.

f) The Situation of Women

In most Ethiopian rural communities, marriages are arranged between the parents by the time the children are 9 years old. After having moved to their husband's home, women start the inevitable work load. They have to get up early in the morning to begin the tedious job of cooking all meals, collecting fire wood, fetching water from the river and grinding sorghum. By the time the women are 18 years old many are physically worn out and are often dead by the age of 35. Therefore, the need to decrease the work load of the women is of a paramount importance. One way of doing this, for example, is to encourage small-scale commercial activities such as setting up community owned grinding mills.

The Emanuel International experts found during their field trip that in some areas up to 50% of women die while giving birth to children. In the rural areas

6. The official Ethiopian Currency equivalent to 50 cents. It is about 20 cents on the black market

there is no tradition of midwives and the health service ROFE is able to provide is not yet extensive enough to support the training of midwives. In some tribes, the woman who is in labour must go alone into the forest to give birth and is not allowed to return until the afterbirth has passed. Among the Falashas (Jewish community) the isolation of women is even worse. A woman that is menstruating must stay in special huts at the centre of the village. No one is to touch her or her utensils or even talk to her for seven days, after which time she goes to the nearest river and cleanses herself before re-entering the community life. A pregnant woman undergoes a similar isolation for up to 60 days! Such backward discriminatory practices are fought back by education and raising consciousness.

Prospects for the Future

Improving health conditions through sanitation and hygiene is very important. While putting emphasis on educating people on health matters, it will be essential to implement hydrological projects that satisfy the demand for clean water. One possibility is providing hand-dug wells wherever necessary. It would also be

beneficial to construct a protective casing for the shallow wells in river beds to keep them from getting dirty or being otherwise polluted.

In respect to agricultural productivity, it will be essential for the tribes who do not know how to till the soil to teach them farming. All tribes are keen to learn but may lack the financial capability to buy oxen. Therefore, those who are interested in acquiring agricultural skills should be provided with the required materials.

Conclusion

This chapter has illustrated how local churches and agencies can work together in a more meaningful manner. ROFE, an Ethiopian organization which shows in action the principles of self-reliance, is less bureaucratic and has virtually no overhead expenses – it reaches the people it is intended for in the most direct way.

ROFE should be supported since it encourages people to stay in Ethiopia instead of going to the Sudan as refugees and easily become dependent on food aid.

The strength of ROFE lies on its conviction that its projects should involve the grassroots, avoiding high-tech requirements which reduce the people to mere spectators by making them dependent on a handful of experts operating gadgets. We have seen that ROFE's projects are linked to the needs of the people. They are motivated by the implementation of small scale but meaningful measures that will affect positively the lives of the destitute.

The joint experience of ROFE and the Ethiopian Orthodox Church prompts us to conclude that the best way to reduce vulnerability and increase capacity in crises situations is to exploit locally available means. In the next chapter we will examine a similar project intended to be for the grassroots but with no local church participation. The project pursued the usual top-down, mechanistic approach as a result risking unnecessary overhead expenses and delay.

Chapter VI

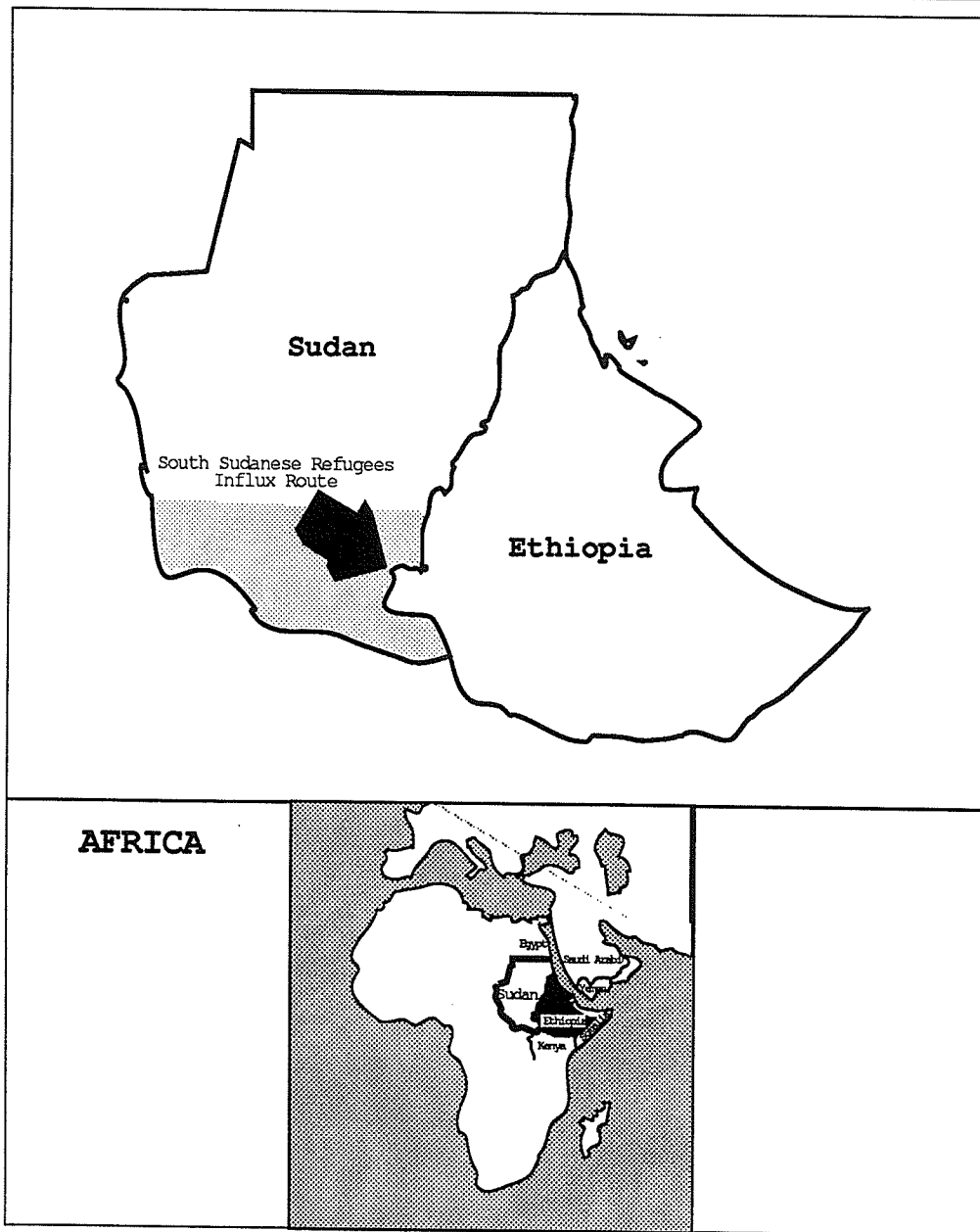
Southern Sudanese Refugees' Settlement Project

Background

The Southern Sudanese Refugees' Settlement Project has been implemented under the auspices of the United Nations High Commissioner For Refugees (UNHCR), the Lutheran World Federation (LWF) and the Relief and Rehabilitation Commission for Ethiopia (RRC) to provide refugees with basic necessities for life such as adequate shelter, food and sanitation together with the accompanying support facilities.

The declaration of Islamic law in Southern Sudan and the economic backing of some Arab governments to impose this law forcibly triggered an exodus of some 400,000 refugees into South west Ethiopia. (See fig. 6.1)

To put the Southern Sudanese Refugees' Settlement project into its proper perspective, it may be

ETHIOPIA, SUDAN

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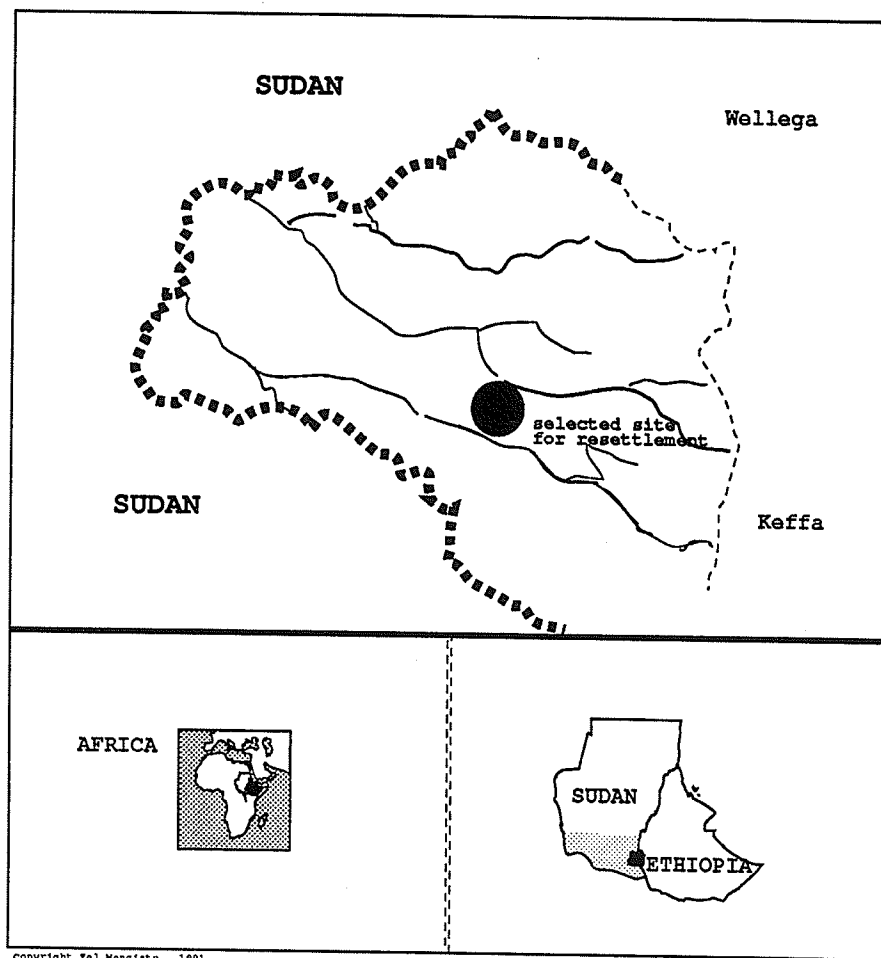
Map 6.1 Refugee Influx Route

appropriate to examine the international responses to the refugees' problems in general and the factors influencing the alternatives available to these refugees.

According to the United Nations High Commission for Refugees, the mandate the international community took regarding refugees is to see that those who become refugees cease to be refugees within a reasonable time. There are three scenarios leading to this goal: voluntary repatriation, resettlement in a third country, or settlement in the country of first asylum. The voluntary repatriation scenario is ideal but so long as the problem that drove out the refugees is not resolved, it remains the least preferred option. The second scenario, resettlement of refugees in a new country, is a type of programme in which the Employment and Immigration Canada is taking part; it is a very costly and time-consuming process often depending on the limited generosity of very few governments willing to do so. The last scenario, which is a permanent settlement in the country of first asylum, is regarded as a poor alternative but it is the only practical one so far. This case study examines a project planned and executed on the basis of this latter scenario.

The broad objective of the project was to reduce the burden the refugees place upon the Ethiopian Government, while creating a favourable atmosphere for the refugees that is, at the same time, in harmony with the socio-economic setting of the indigenous people in

and around the project area. Thus the main thrust of the Southern Sudanese Refugees' Settlement Project was to organize village-based activities that involved several schemes in support of the appropriate technology strategy. This project is generally considered as low-tech and therefore did not require high level of training to manage services.



Map 6.2 Sudanese Refugees
Settlement Area

The project was initiated by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). The actual implementation programme was taken over by the Lutheran World Federation (LWF), hence, it became known as "the joint UNHCR-LWF project". The role of the Relief and Rehabilitation Commission of Ethiopia (RRC) – the agency that has the mandate to coordinate all relief and rehabilitation efforts in Ethiopia – was to facilitate matters with the Government of Ethiopia especially in matters regarding land acquisition (See map 6.2).

Settlement in the country of first asylum often involves very sensitive social, economic and political issues. Above all, host countries have few surplus resources available to divert to the refugees. Ethiopia, in this case, a country that was torn by its own internal political problems and by those resulting from the drought, was not expected to do more than to donate land for the settlement project. Conceptually at least, the international response to the problem was that the burden on the countries that give asylum would be shared; and they shouldn't pay heavy prices in terms of their stability and development.

Upon arrival of the refugees in Ethiopia, the UNHCR erected temporary camps on the land donated to meet, as much as possible, the most urgent basic needs like food, clothing and medicine. Having accomplished these immediate tasks, the UNHCR had to find a way for the displaced people to cease being refugees.

Thus the project endeavored to address the concerns of refugees and was designed in such a way that the refugees themselves would be involved in certain decision making areas as well as in the construction process.

The physical planning involved the setup of 13 villages over a period of five years, consisting of about 400 families each. Each village has several homesteads clustered together to form a clan unit¹. A clan unit is composed of either 12 or 16 homesteads. (See fig. 6.3 and 6.4).

1. A clan unit is similar to Mender, ref. p.89

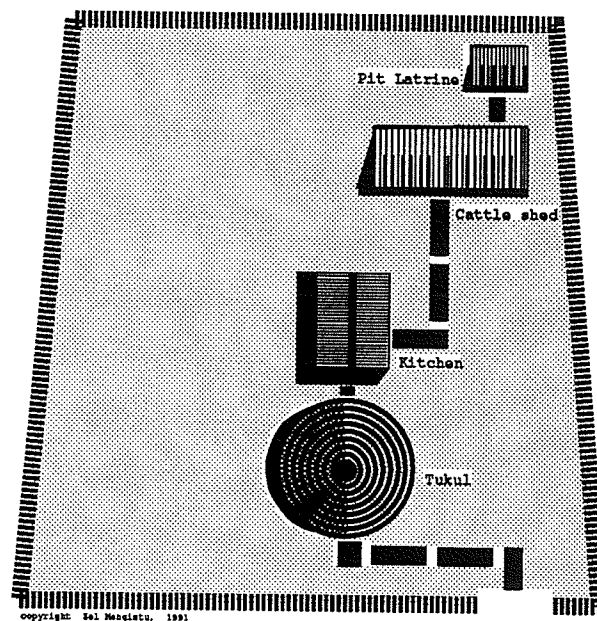


Fig. 6.3 Typical Homestead Layout

The central unit of each homestead is a Tukul — a thatched roof circular dwelling, used as the main living space by each refugee family.

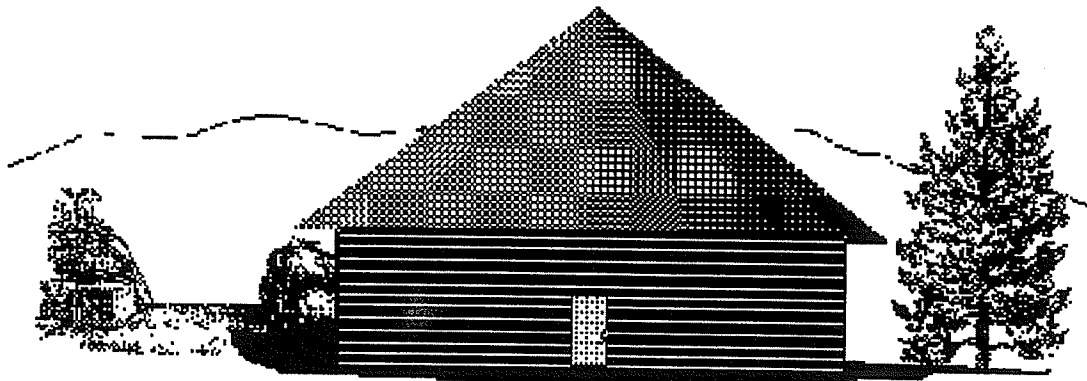


Fig. 6.4 Front View of a Refugee Tukul

A typical Tukul is made up of mud or bamboo wall linings with a support post at the centre. In the case of the latter, spacing of the linings vary from place to

place depending on the climatic condition of the area. On a relatively humid site, they may be as far apart as 10 millimetres to secure proper cross ventilation.

As far as the structure of a Tukul is concerned, its conical roof is the most perfect roof known. A band of locally available rope tie the roof rafters to the circural wall. This takes care of thrust perfectly by transferring the outward thrust of the roof to vertical stresses on top of the wall².

Unlike the rafters, the grass on the thatched roof is not tied. This is probably because of a precaution against fire. In cases of fire hazards, village people can easily lift off the grass on the roof out of the fire path.

From the resettlement project, the government of Ethiopia had hoped to gain, in the long run, the infra-structural facilities established by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the Lutheran World Federation on its soil. To mention one among many of such facilities, the village support centre (Fig. 6.5) is where the administrative and training facilities are located. (See figures 8.1- 8.5 for additional details)

2. Dancy, K., A manual of Building Construction, p.246

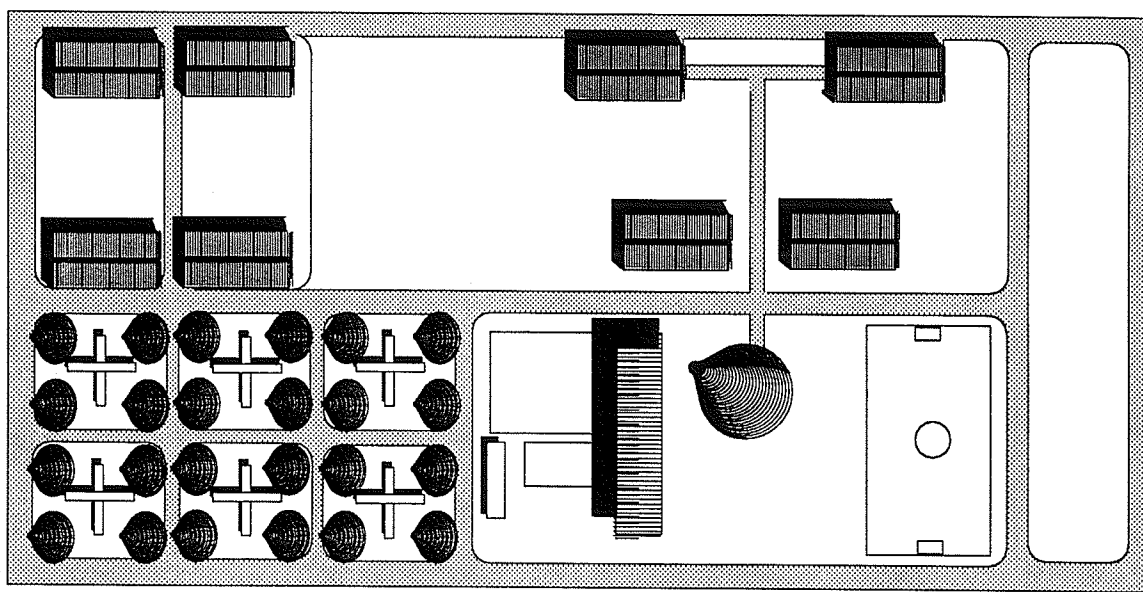


Fig.6.5 Village Support Centre

Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis

Physical/Material: After the immediate needs of the refugees such as food and temporary shelters were met by the UNHCR, the Lutheran World Federation took over most of the activities on site and began the process of discussing prospects for long-term solutions with the refugees and other concerned agencies in the area.

The project concentrated on devising a sustainable model for agricultural and cottage industry that could be perpetuated with no additional input from the UNHCR or the Lutheran Church apart from the initial expenditure. The expected physical benefit of the project

was predominantly an income from the agricultural scheme by selling maize and sorghum.

Social Organizational: The long term social/ organizational vulnerabilities of the Sudanese refugees is very different from that of the drought stricken Ethiopians.

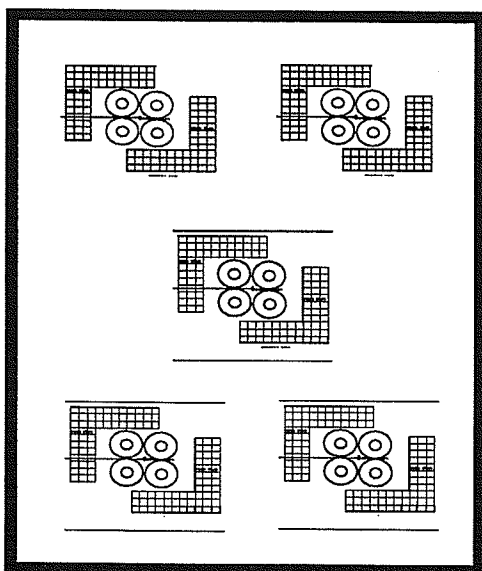


Fig. 6.6 Settlement Layout
for 400 Families

In the case of the latter the famine has broken-down all the societal structures for surviving disaster while that of the Sudanese refugees is still intact. As soon as the temporary shelters were erected, a consultative committee among the elders was formed to work with the international agencies.

Motivational/attitudinal: The agricultural process encouraged the attitude that the refugees could once again begin to provide their food needs outside their home-land. As the income and living conditions stabilized, it was expected that the dependency pattern will eventually be replaced by independence and productivity.

The Project Planning In Light of Rural Development Strategy

Since the majority of the Sudanese refugees were

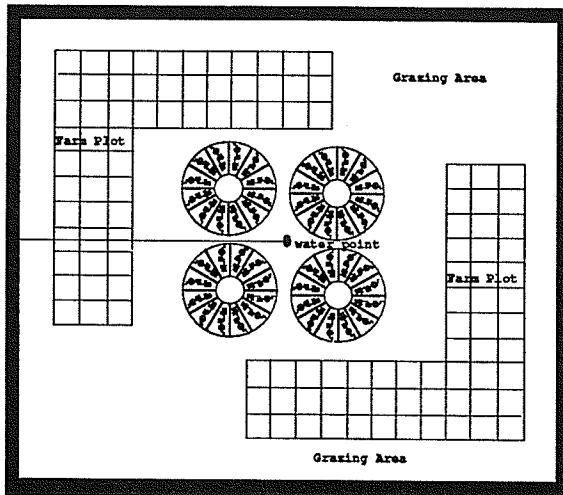


Fig. 6.7 Typical Satellite
Village Layout

from the countryside, the appropriate technology development concept was taken as the best strategy to implement the project. The strategy left most of the decision making to the refugees themselves. For example, in the case of shelter construction, the physi-

cal layout was carried out in a cluster of twelve and sixteen families based on the choice of tribal hierarchy instead of the usual grid iron pattern. Ofcourse, this was done after consultation with the elders' committee. (See figures 6.6 and 6.7)

The two main arguments in support of the appropriate technology strategy were:

- a) the ability to use a technology which is in harmony with the socio-economic environment of the area.
- b) the ability to use a technology that is not capital intensive and does not require a

high level of training to manage services and repairs; also one that could utilize locally available material.

Such flexibilities considered during the planning stage were to allow the refugees to retain and practice their traditional mode of life, making the new environment very much like back home. The localized patterns of layout were designed to maximize the efficiency of popular participation in recognizing the values and knowledge of the local artisans, carpenters and masons. Therefore, it reduced the work load on the project office merely to assisting in the supply of materials and to provide some general technical advice.

In addition to the construction sector, other activities followed the same principles. For example, in the agricultural sector, it was implied that while the project office would provide material assistance and advice, decision making and actual production of food and cash crops were to be the farmers' responsibility. This strategy didn't intend to eliminate the role of mechanized farming, but made it secondary in order to ensure that the transition in agricultural production be gradual, so that it kept pace with the socio-economic needs of the surrounding area.

Advantages of the Project to the Host Country

Although, generally, the Ethiopian Government has been bearing the burden of caring for the refugees fleeing the Sudan up to now; it has nevertheless benefited from the settlement project. In the short run, the hard currency invested on the project came to Ethiopia when it was desperately in need. It is estimated that the UNHCR would be allocating a total of 12 million US dollars for all the three phases of the project. In the long run, when the problem will be resolved, the infra-structures erected in the settlement schemes will be transferred to Ethiopia.

The project is established in a relatively undeveloped area of the country and if repatriation succeeds in the near future, large acreages of developed land, as well as various health and educational facilities will be left behind for the benefit of the local population. Moreover it will be a nucleus for a long term development strategy in the area.

Conclusion

So far, we have examined briefly the political consequences of the declaration of the Islamic Law in the

Sudan and the accompanying effort made by the international community to save the lives of thousands of fleeing refugees. Even though it was not enough, given the magnitude of the problem, the effort has averted the possible catastrophic death that would have happened to the refugees in one of the remotest places in the world. In addition, it has greatly reduced the burden of a country that is already suffering from its own chronic problems.

There were certain discrepancies, though, that were observed during the project implementation process. Corruption, lack of interest and shortage of materials were believed to be the causes of these discrepancies. However, after the researcher took planning techniques II course recently, he found out these as only the effect but not the cause of the problem. His findings indicate that the problems of inefficient execution and project mismanagement in Ethiopia arise from the lack of proper project management tools. At the end of the course, he re-examined his proposal for the refugees' settlement project and the result was profound.

The following chapter re-visits the Southern Sudanese Refugees' Project mostly from the physical planning perspectives by using the above mentioned management tools.

Chapter VII

The Settlement Project Revisited

(Alternative Approaches)

This case reviews the Southern Sudanese Refugees' Settlement Project in light of the expertise the writer has acquired after completing graduate studies at the University of Manitoba. Were he required to do the planning of the project today, he would apply more refined methods of analysis and project management, but also would insist on the inclusion of other less tangible but very decisive factors. This is the way this writer would go from the physical aspects of the plan:

As stated above, the civil war in the Sudan forced some 80,000 refugees to abandon their home and flee to Ethiopia. In 1986 the joint United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and the Lutheran World Federation (UNHCR-LWF) project office decided to settle

these refugees on three large plots donated by the government of Ethiopia. Due to financial limitations, the number of families to be settled was limited to 3200. It was estimated that the largest of the three plots can accommodate 1,500 family members while the remaining two can accommodate 1,000 family members each.

Consultations with the elderly among the refugees has revealed that of the two kinds of tribes seeking settlement, one was composed of clans of 16 families while the other is composed of clans of 12 families. Due to cultural values, traditions and rituals of these tribes, it had been found useful to design shelters and support facilities layouts according to the grouping of clans. (See Figures 6.6 and 6.7) How should the shelters layout be arranged to maximize the number of refugees to be settled on the given plots?

The Problem:

The most intractable problem of both government and NGO projects in the Developing World is to devise optimal methods for their execution, and a failure to do so often results in the failure of the projects themselves. Inefficient project management leaves loopholes for corruption and delays (See also page 78).

To avoid these pitfalls, and to achieve efficiency and cost effectiveness, project planners generally have to resort to techniques which give priority to the time element. The most popular technique for pursuing the objective of time minimization is the use of the critical path method model (CPM) and the Progress Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT). Today, with the use of computers, planners, engineers and economists can optimize efficiency using the above techniques. Both give the total minimal time to execute a project and the order of critical activities which maximize efficiency.

At the implementation stage of the resettlement project, it was found that progress lagged behind schedule beyond a reasonably acceptable time frame. It was also discovered that the project's cost over the target five-year plan would have been considerably higher than the initial estimates. At some point, the author was wondering why were quantity surveys invented in the first place, since paper work and "real work" were that far apart. Many people were sharing this anxiety. As a matter of record, in many project offices of Ethiopia there has not been a single case where estimates matched actual costs. Project cost estimates are being done simply to fulfill

the procedural requirements. The actual cost at the end of projects is usually double that of the initial estimates.¹

Solution

Linear programming method for modelling and optimization is used to solve this problem.²

Decision Variables: X1 and X2 individual homesteads to be allocated on plots I, II and III.

Objective function: Maximize the number of homesteads per plot
Maximize $16X1 + 12X2 - - - (1)$

Constraints: 4 functional constraints exist

Subject to the constraints:

$$X1 + X2 \leq 1500$$

$$X1 + X2 \leq 1000$$

$$X1 + X2 \leq 1000 - - - (2.1)$$

$$16X1 + 12X2 \leq 3200 - - - (2.2)$$

-
1. The above statement is based on the experience and observation of the writer while working as a project manager in Ethiopia for 5 years.
 2. For further application of linear programming techniques the reader is advised to read the following books:
 - Krueckeberg, D.A. & Silvers, A.L., Urban Planning Analysis Methods and Models. (1974)
 - Wagner, H.M., Principles of Operations Research, Prentice Hall, 1978
 - Hiller & Lieberman, Introduction to Operations Research

Computer Data Input Describing the Problem

Number of Decision Variables: 2

Number of Functional Constraints: 4

Max $Z = 16X_1 + 12X_2$

subject to

$$16X_1 + 12X_2 \leq 3200$$

$$1X_1 + 1X_2 \leq 1500$$

$$1X_1 + 1X_2 \leq 1000$$

$$1X_1 + 1X_2 \leq 1000$$

and

$$X_1 \geq 0, \quad X_2 \geq 0$$

From the results of computer out put, it follows on plots I, II a maximum of 1600 family heads and on plot III a maximum 1300 family heads could be settled without disturbing the natural settlement pattern of the tribes.

Summarized Results for the Problem

Bas Var	Eq No	Z	Coefficient of						Right Side
			X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	
Z	0	1	-16	-12	0	0	0	0	0
X3	1	0	16	12	1	0	0	0	3200
X4	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1500
X5	3	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1000
X6	4	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1000

Table 7.1 Initial Tableau

3. X3, X4, X5 and X6 are dummy variables and not significant for this particular problem

Bas Var	Eq No	Z	Coefficient of						Right Side
			X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	
Z	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	3200
X1	1	0	1	0.75	0.0625	0	0	0	200
X4	2	0	0	0.25	-0.062	1	0	0	1300
X5	3	0	0	0.25	-0.062	0	1	0	800
X6	4	0	0	0.25	-0.062	0	0	1	800

Table 7.2 Final Tableau

With the help of computers and some knowledge of linear programming, the following information would be obtained:

- Maximized number of refugees to be settled on each plot while the tribal mix is kept intact
- Minimized area of unoccupied land
- Optimized area allocated to each homestead

The Construction Plan

Following the land use planning, the plan of operations was drafted (See table 7.3). This plan of operations was drafted after feedbacks from committees of various technical disciplines were reviewed. The author was a member of the construction committee during the review. Again, If he were required to plan the construction of the project today, his approach would be

as follows:

The Problem:

The UNHCR-LWF project office would like to construct refugees' settlement support centre at Itang, Gambella, Ethiopia. Since the construction site is

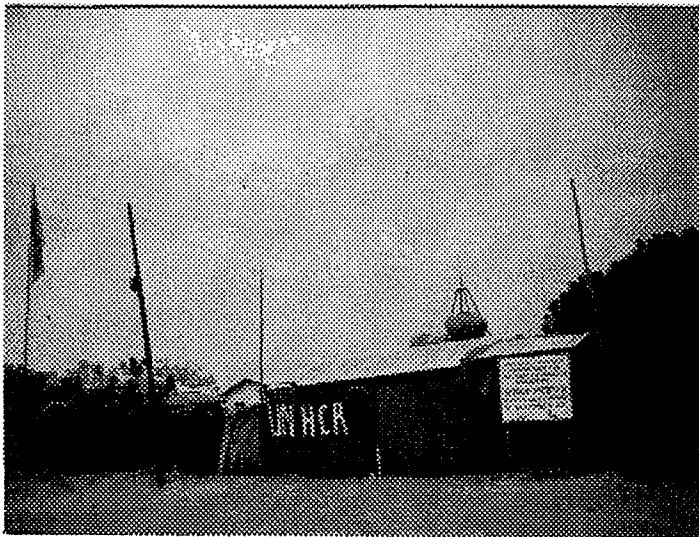


Photo 7.4 UNHCR Field Office:
Gambella, Ethiopia

located in a very remote area, material supplies would be flown in by air. In addition, all labour - skilled or unskilled - would be paid 30% more to compensate for the hardships.

Timely and efficiently execution of all projects in this area saves considerable amount of foreign currency.

In order to effect the timely delivery of materials to the site and a smooth work progress, it would be necessary to anticipate the work schedule and cash flow in advance so that the project head office would take management decisions that would avoid any delays.

PLAN OF OPERATION
ITANG REFUGEE SETTLEMENT PROJECT

No	Sector	Phase I/ II / III ACTIVITIES	1986												1987												1988												1989												1990											
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0		Total Duration Phase	[Bar chart showing duration from 1986 to 1989]																																																											
1	Management	Purchase orders and contracts	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
2	Water	Water supply and drainage design	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
3	Water	Boreholes, test wells fix pumps	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
4	Water	Construct water supply system	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
5	Infra	Land surveying, layout	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
6	Infra	Gravel roads	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
7	Infra	Construct drainage system	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
8	CD	Mobilize settlers	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
9	Const/CD	Collect material & construct tukuls	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
10	CD	Move settlers to village	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
11	CD	Establish settlers organization	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
12	CD	Establish committees/Associations	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
13	CD	Home Economics & Nutrition	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
14	CD	Income generating & vocational trng.	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
15	Agriculture	Agricultural extension service	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
16	Agriculture	Assistance in land preparation	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
17	Agriculture	Seeds & fertilizer assistance	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
18	Agriculture	Plant protection (weeding)	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
19	Agriculture	Harvesting	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
20	Agriculture	Establish grinding mill	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
21	Agriculture	Nursery	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
22	Agriculture	Reforestation	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
23	Agriculture	Research and trials	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
24	Livestock	Purchase and distribute animals	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
25	Livestock	Livestock extension	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
26	Construc.	Village layout, temporary buildings	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
27	Construc.	Permanent buildings	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
28	Construc.	Headquarters	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
29	Management	Review and refine operational plans	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
30	Management	Preparation Phasingout	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											
31	Evaluation	Evaluation Review	[Bar chart: 1986, months 1-2]																																																											

Prepared by Bernard Schelhas and Zelesalem Mengistu
Original Production February 1986 Addis Ababa, Ethiopia Computer Simulation June 1991 Winnipeg, Manitoba

Table 7.3 Plan of Operation

Prepare a project management plan for the activities that portray the interrelationships among the various stages of the construction.

Solution

The first step is to decide the duration between each activity. Definitely, this depends on labour efficiency, conditions on site, the intensity of equipment used, etc. Thus it was estimated that it would take 1 week to collect local materials; excavation - 4 weeks; masonry foundation - 9 weeks; concrete work - 15 weeks; block work - 8 weeks; roofing - 10 weeks; carpentry work - 10 weeks; plastering - 6 weeks; painting - 7 weeks; floor, wall; ceiling and other finishing - 7 weeks, electrical and sanitary installations - 12 weeks, glazing - 6 weeks.

All the above activities, would be listed successively with start and end nodes. (See figure below)



Chart 7.5 Activities Sequence

Calculation of the earliest and latest time
for different levels of construction

Event	Immediately preceding Event	Earliest time + Activity time	Maximum earliest time	Immediately following Event	Latest time - Activity time	Minimum latest time	Event
1	-	-	0	-	-	72	13
2	1	0+1	1	13	72-6	66	12
3	2	1+4	5	12	66-0	66	11
4	3	5+9	14	12	66-7	59	10
5	4	14+15	29	11	66-6		
6	5	29+8	37	13	72-6	66	9
7	5	29+10	39	10	59-12	47	8
8	6	37+10	47	9	66-12	54	7
9	6	37+0		8	47-10	37	6
9	7	39+12	51	9	66-0		
10	8	47+12	59	7	54-10		
11	10	59+6	65	6	37-8	29	5
12	10	59+7	66	5	29-15	14	4
12	11	65+0		4	14-9	5	3
13	12	66+6	72	3	5-4	1	2
13	9	51+6		2	1-1	0	1

Table 7.6 Earliest and latest times

From the above data the slack of events is calculated. Slack time is defined as the amount of free time associated with an event. It is calculated as the difference of the latest and earliest time.

Calculation of Slack of Events and Slack of Activit

Event	Slack	Activity	Slack
1	$0-0=0$	(1,2)	$1-(0+1)=0$
2	$1-1=0$	(2,3)	$5-(1+4)=0$
3	$5-5=0$	(3,4)	$14-(5+9)=0$
4	$14-14=0$	(4,5)	$29-(14+15)=0$
5	$29-29=0$	(5,6)	$37-(29+8)=0$
6	$37-37=0$	(5,7)	$54-(29+10)=15$
7	$54-39=15$	(6,8)	$47-(37+10)=0$
8	$47-47=0$	(6,9)	$66-(37+0)=29$
9	$66-51=15$	(7,9)	$66-(39+12)=15$
10	$59-59=0$	(8,10)	$59-(47+12)=0$
11	$66-65=1$	(10,11)	$66-(59+6)=1$
12	$66-66=0$	(10,12)	$66-(59+7)=0$
13	$72-72=0$	(9,13)	$72-(51+6)=15$
		(12,13)	$72-(66+6)=0$

Table 7.7 Slack of Events and Activities

The critical path is the path through which the slack activities become zero. The advantage of knowing just where the critical path lies is that progress on those critical path activities can then be carefully monitored while slack in other parts of the construction can absorb delays without upsetting the whole project. (See also chart 7.14 - Task timeline) From the table above it looks like as follows:

Initial Project Network for UNHCR-LWF Sudanese Refugees Support Centre Construction

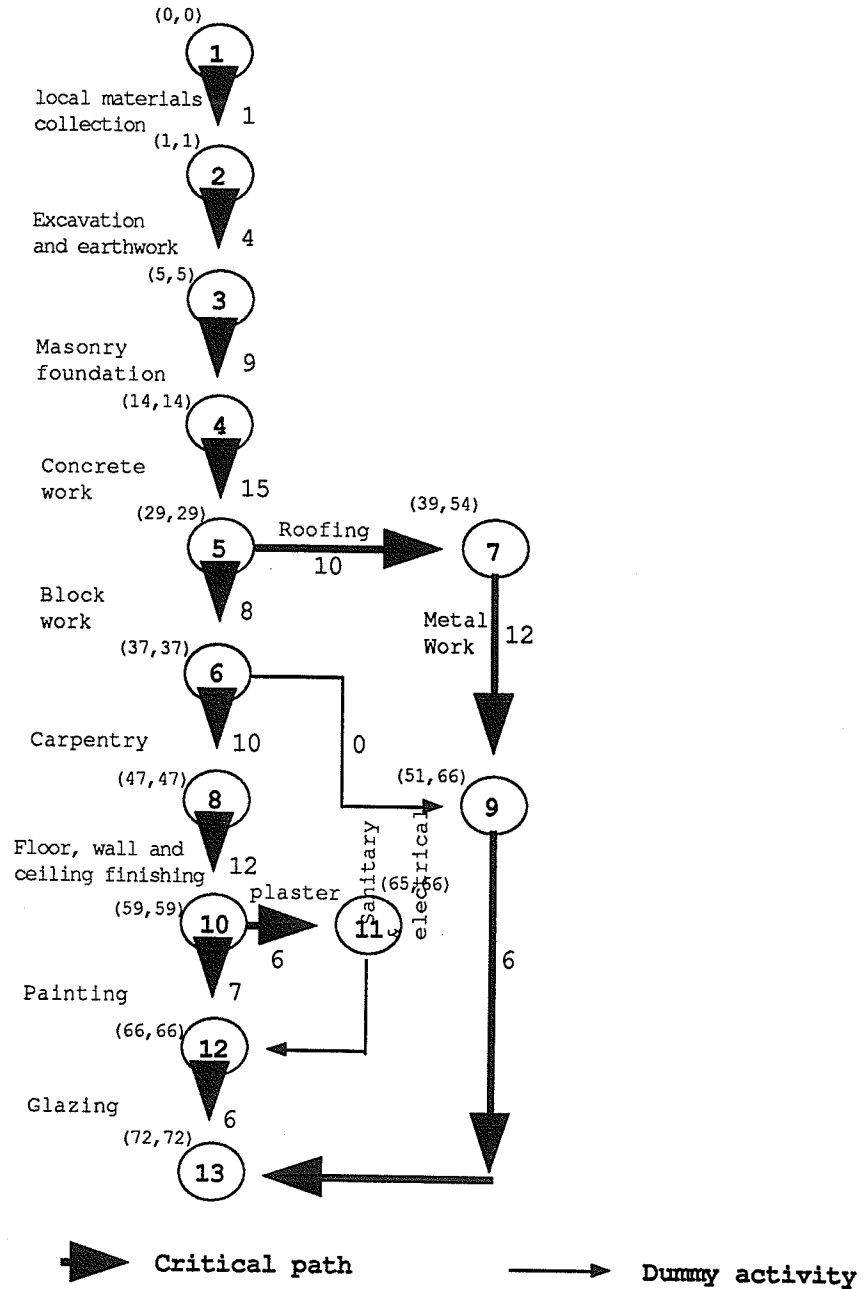


Chart 7.8 Initial Project Network

Dummy activities are simply expressions of the procedures of activities. They consume no time by themselves.

We have arrived at 72 weeks as the total completion time. Using modern project management programmes like Mac Project II or other equivalent computer programmes, from what has been done so far it is possible to draw a flow chart, task time line and cash flow tables for the project. By using Mac Project II, the work calendar is set by first setting up the normal work hours, weeks, holidays and the project start date. The computer then calculates the rest. (See tables and charts 7.10 - 7.14)



Photo 7.9 Site Visit

The following dates are holidays in Ethiopia for the project period and are therefore set by Mac Project II as non-working days.

Friday May 1 87 - May Day

Saturday August 22 87 - Assumption

Friday September 11 87 - New Year

Saturday September 12 87 - Revolution day

Monday September 21 87 - Birth day of Prophet Mohammed

Saturday September 26 87 - The finding of the true Cross

Thursday January 7 88 - Christmas

Wednesday January 20 88 - Epiphany

Thursday March 3 88 - Victory over Italians (Adwa)

Monday April 4 88 - Victory Day

Wednesday April 13 88 - Ramadan

Friday April 15 88 - Good Friday

Monday August 22 88 - Assumption

Monday September 12 88 - Revolution Day

Wednesday September 21 88 - Finding of the true Cross

Monday September 26 88 - Birthday of Prophet Mohammed

Having entered all the necessary information, a schedule chart is drawn with starting dates of each activity automatically displayed. The following figures and charts are the computer's output. They will facilitate

updating progresses, assist in financial plan and numerous other managerial decisions making.

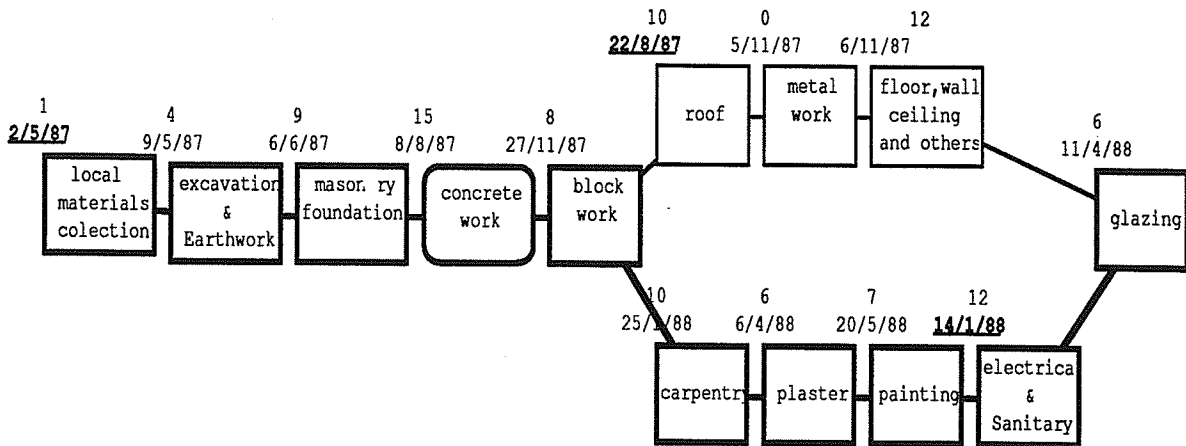


Chart 7.10 Schedule Chart

Name	Cost Eth.\$
local materials	0.00
excavation and earthwork	84102.98
masonry foundation	48701.99
concrete work	363239.23
block work	39476.64
roof	85351.10
carpentry	62189.64
metal work	119400.00
plaster	43146.54
painting	27203.71
floor, wall and other finishings	48000.00
electrical and sanitary installations	329805.96
glazing	26412.00

Table 7. 11 Task Cost Entry

Name	start date	cost Eth.\$	week	time elapsed
local	<u>2/5/87</u>	0.000	1	1
excavation	9/5/87	84102.98	4	4
masonry	6/6/87	363239.23	9	9
concrete	8/8/87	48701.99	15	16
block work	27/11/87	39476.64	8	9
roof	<u>22/8/87</u>	85351.10	10	11
carpentry	25/1/88	62189.64	10	11
metal work	5/11/87	119400.00	0	0
plaster	6/4/88	43146.54	6	7
painting	20/5/88	27203.71	7	7
floor, wall, etc.	6/11/87	48,000.00	12	13
electrical & San.	<u>14/1/88</u>	329805.96	12	13
glazing	11/4/88	26412	6	7

Table 7.12 Project Table

starting date	plan cost Eth.\$	ending date	plan cumulative
1/5/87	84102.98	1/6/87	-84102.98
1/6/87	48701.99	1/7/87	-132804.96
1/7/87	0.00	1/8/87	-132804.96
1/8/87	448590.32	1/9/87	-581395.29
1/9/87	0.00	1/10/87	-581395.29
1/10/87	0.00	1/11/87	-581395.29
1/11/87	206876.64	1/12/87	-788271.93
1/12/87	0.00	1/1/88	-788271.93
1/1/88	391995.61	1/2/88	-1180267.54
1/2/88	0.00	1/3/88	-1180267.54
1/3/88	0.00	1/4/88	-1180267.54
1/4/88	69558.54	1/5/88	-1249826.07
1/5/88	27203.71	1/6/88	-1277029.75

Table 7.13 Cash flow table

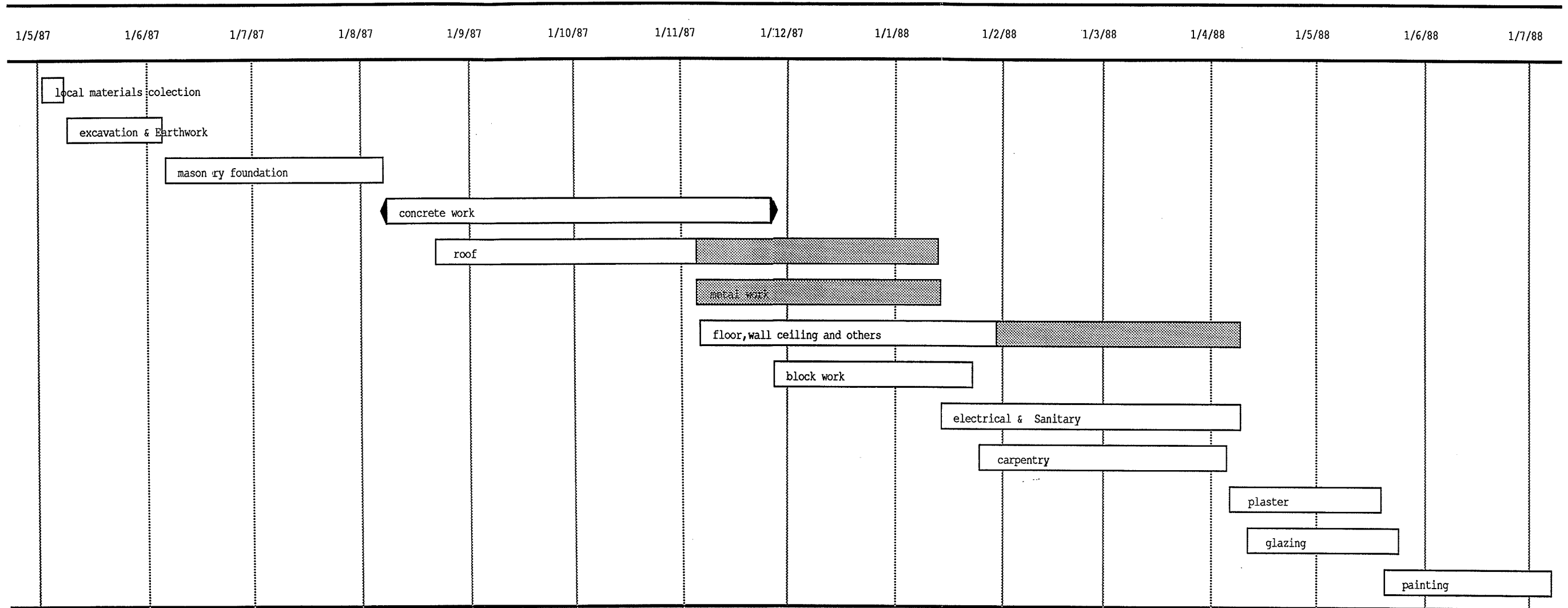


Fig. 7.14 Task Timeline

Intangibles

As a planner one would apply the above methods of analysis and project management to foster efficiency. However, achieving technical perfection is only half solving the problem. The other missing half is the human or spiritual aspect of the planning process. For example, unlike the mainstream missionary organisations of the pre-seventies, the Lutheran World Federation did not propose the erection of a church in the project. However, for a Christian organisation, establishing a church is the nucleus of its activities and a means for communicating with the local people. The Lutheran organisation did not do that and therefore, did not manifest a strong sign of "Lutheranism".

Due to the urgency of the matter, at the start of the project Lutheran World Federation was pressured to staff up quickly. Therefore, no thorough employee recruitment process was carried out. As a result, it was likely that prior to arrival on site the relief workers employed by the organisation would not understand relief aid as part of the political environment. Coupled with other factors, the fact that these workers discovered

themselves to have been unwitting party to the use of aid for political purposes, made them undermine local resources. As a result expediency, apathy and pessimism become the order of the day.

It is important to note that buying a computer or refining managerial skills alone is not a remedy. Other intangible factors are also decisive in determining the success of a project.

Evaluation and Conclusion

The case studies of the Southern Sudanese Refugees' Settlement Project has shown that where churches and their agencies lack strong ideological belief, the relief project they undertake tend to lack a lasting developmental impact.

It is evident in this case study that the church organization involved, the Lutheran World Federation, did not enter this project with religious professionalism as did missionaries of the pre-seventies era. Although, perhaps, having been originally motivated by humanitarian grounds, the relief workers employed by this organization

somewhere along the way lost this motivation and ended up in pursuing the usual secularistic top-down approach.

In places where development assistance made use of internal expertise, a great deal of success has been recorded. The role of the Ethiopian Orthodox Church in ROFE's projects teaches us a valuable lesson in this respect.

CONCLUSION

The intent of the thesis is very simple: it starts with the general and goes down to the specific. It began by specifying the fact that our world is in trouble, then critically investigates the causes of this trouble. While attempting to find a remedy (though not a perfect one) it has pointed out that the churches have the moral and social obligation to address the trouble spots. However, these are serious shortcomings in the manner in which churches go about dispensing relief specifically in the area of sponsoring overseas projects. Here, the writer has presented his personal experiences on the matter. Nevertheless, the churches and their humanitarian agencies are not toiling in vain, and this thesis represents an attempt to correct what the writer considers as shortcomings, and suggests a general strategy towards understanding, mitigating and eventu-

ally eliminating the chronic problem of all time, starvation.

The case studies presented at the end usher-in the second theme of the thesis by showing causes for successes and failures. In addition, they indicate how technology amalgamated with the advancing knowledge can work as an important vehicle to refine and perfect goals.

Modern writers and technocrats alike have said a great deal about hunger, starvation and the Third World Crisis. The University of Manitoba library alone has on its shelves at least 115 books on Third World development and another 134 books about hunger and poverty. Yet, in spite of this literary effort, the problem is not getting any better. The author, being puzzled and dismayed by this bizarre phenomenon, offers the readers the following parting words:

To experts and academics in the Third World

1. Get rid of the impatience syndrome - expect things to happen one at a time
2. Orient yourselves from a production-focus to a resource-focus

3.Reverse the usual mechanisms of doing things from prohibitory to incentive

To experts and academics in the West

Even though many of the human needs are similar, cultures differ in what their respective societies value. Some people may value modern standards of living, while others value traditional ways of life. Some will sacrifice everything for family pride and yet others may value individual success. A culturally sensitive development project begins with understanding what the beneficiaries value and by not forcing on them the values of the donors. This is the bench-mark for an agency that would like to accomplish success in the Third World.

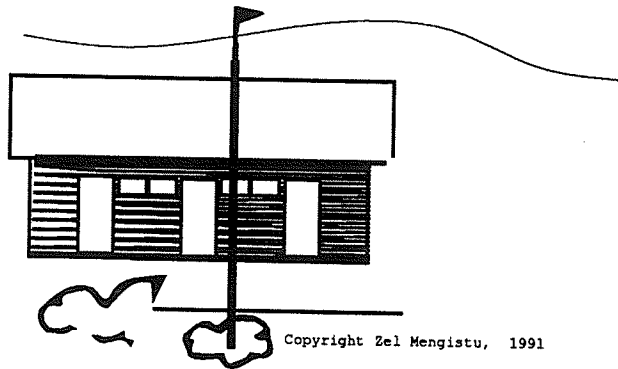
To the Churches

Do not lose sight of the prime helping function. Beware of politics and expediency, for churches should be the conscious of the world. Be selective in the kind of people you look for to do your work. Remember that sometimes doing nothing is better than doing something badly.

To the general reader

It is worth reiterating once more that criticism of humanitarian agencies does not constitute condemnation, they have certainly done many useful and worthwhile things. It is expected that, where weaknesses appear, the concerned agencies as well as other bodies with interests in Third World issues, will engage in a constructive remedial dialogue. Therefore, the author hopes some of the seemingly radical approaches proposed in this thesis will not be considered as particularly cynical.

APPENDIX



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Fig. 8.1 Administration Building

A Sub Structure

1	Excavation and earth work	Eth. Birr	5844.00
2	Concrete work		8208.02
3	Masonry foundation		2011.63

Sub total

16063.65**B Super structure**

1	Concrete work		7257.98
2	Block work		11081.00
3	Roofing		4394.44
4	Carpentry		4815.65
5	Metal work		8260.00
6	Floor, wall and other finishings		5762.91
7	Glazing		2790.00
8	Painting		5665.22
9	Sanitary installation		6219.13
10	Electrical installation		<u>6100.60</u>

Sub total

62346.93**A + B**

78410.58

Add 20% contingency

15682.12

Grand total

94092.70

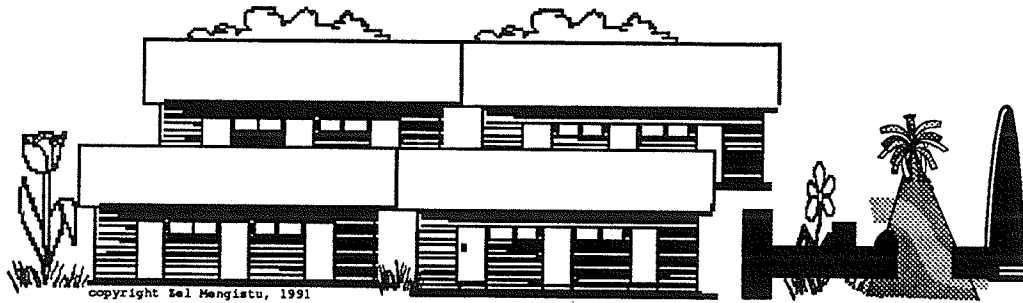


Fig. 8.2 Elementary School

A Sub Structure

1	Excavation and earth work	Eth. Birr	8286.34
2	Concrete work		22787.86
3	masonry foundation		11446.32
	Sub total		<u>42520.52</u>

B Super structure

1	Concrete work		17052.98
2	Block work		10205.00
3	Roofing		8726.97
4	Carpentry		6431.20
5	Metal work		5860.00
6	Floor, wall and other finishings		10800.20
7	Glazing		6820.00
8	Painting		4287.94
9	Sanitary installation		10121.00
10	Electrical installation		<u>5320.00</u>

Sub total **85625.29**

A + B 128145.81
 Add 20% contingency 25169.17

Grand total **153774.98**

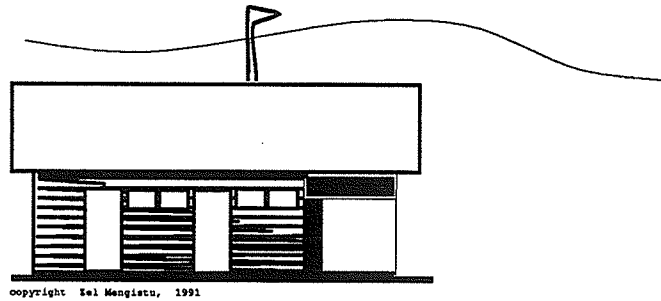


Fig. 8.3 Village Clinic

A Sub Structure

1	Excavation and earth work	Eth. Birr	5844.00
2	Concrete work		8208.02
3	Masonry foundation		<u>2011.63</u>
	Sub total		<u>16063.65</u>

B Super structure

1	Concrete work		9001.50
2	Block work		11081.00
3	Roofing		4394.44
4	Carpentry		4815.65
5	Metal work		8870.00
6	Floor, wall and other finishings		4397.24
7	Glazing		2790.00
8	Painting		4836.00
9	Sanitary installation		5818.50
10	Electrical installation		<u>6100.60</u>
	Sub total		<u>51405.03</u>
	A + B		77468.68
	Add 20% contingency		<u>15493.74</u>
	Grand total		<u>92962.42</u>

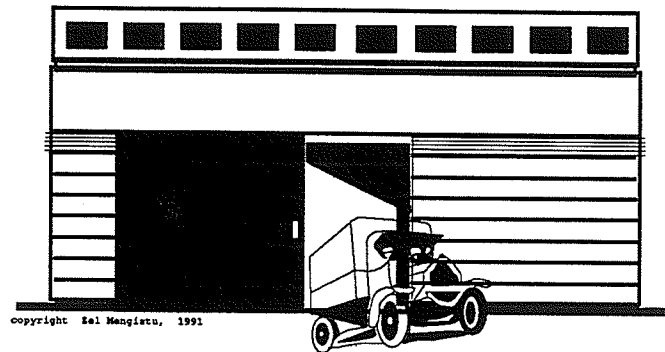


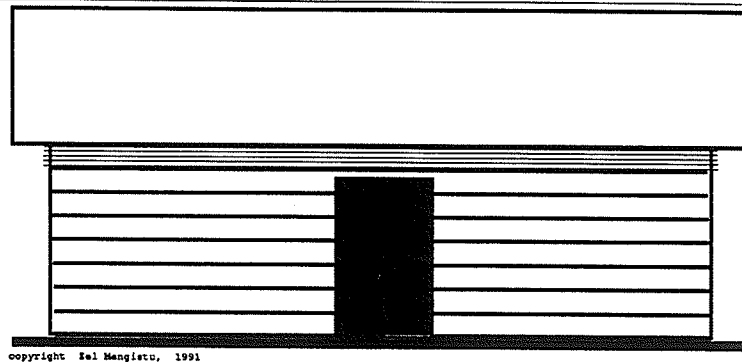
Fig. 8.4 Workshop

A Sub Structure

1	Excavation and earth work	Eth. Birr	16306.82
2	Concrete work		32559.00
3	Masonry foundation		14393.99
	Sub total		<u>53259.81</u>

B Super structure

1	Concrete work		19675.05
2	Block work		11419.10
3	Roofing		6605.96
4	Carpentry		12023.20
5	Metal work		11870.00
6	Floor, wall and other finishings		9988.36
7	Glazing		-
8	Painting		-
9	Sanitary installation		7125.00
10	Electrical installation		<u>8100.00</u>
	Sub total		86806.67
	A + B		140066.48
	Add 20% contingency		<u>28013.30</u>
	Grand total		<u>168079.76</u>



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Fig. 8.5 Store

A Sub Structure

1	Excavation and earth work	Eth. Birr	15576.70
2	Concrete work		32056.91
3	Masonry foundation		<u>12309.21</u>
	Sub total		<u>59942.82</u>

B Super structure

1	Concrete work		19675.05
2	Block work		20990.70
3	Roofing		6605.95
4	Carpentry		12023.20
5	Metal work		3194.00
6	Floor, wall and other finishings		9637.36
7	Glazing		-
8	Painting		-
9	Sanitary installation		2125.00
10	Electrical installation		<u>6470.00</u>
	Sub total		<u>80721.26</u>
	A + B		140664.08
	Add 20% contingency		<u>28132.82</u>
	Grand total		<u>168796.90</u>

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Index

A

- Adwa 134
- Africa 17, 18, 19, 21, 85
 - sub-Saharan 62
 - West 19
- Agew 86, 95, 97
- aid
 - agency
 - bi-lateral 54
 - multi-lateral 54
 - recipient 76
 - emergency 9
 - foreign 8, 10, 12, 13, 14
 - recipient
 - countries 15
- AIMA 95
- Amhara 66, 70, 86, 95
- analysis
 - Vulnerability
 - vulnerability 50, 67 - 72, 76, 79, 88
 - capacities 52, 67, 69, 73, 79, 88
 - capacity
 - vulnerability 68, 74
 - analytical framework 68
- Anderson, Mary 55
- animal husbandry 88, 94
- anticipatory survival strategies 91
- Apostle Paul 36, 37
- appropriate technology 21, 60, 88
 - appropriate-tech 20
- Arab 46
- Asia
 - Asian Development Bank 14
- Assumption 134
- attitudinal realm 70

B

- Bete Israel 86, 95, 97
- bi-laws 54
- Bible 29, 35
 - biblical 31, 37
- biological 63

Index

Birbira 96
Birr 103
Birth day of Prophet Mohammed 134
birth rate 4

C

Care
 preventive 98
 health
 primary 98
Carvalho, Mario (Dr.) iv, 27
cash
 flow 127
 table 133
Castro, Fidel 3
charcoal stove 21
chart flow 133
Church
 -related programmes 41
 Coptic 66, 102
 schools 102
 World Council of Churches 60
CIDA 1
Columbia 55
common good iv
communities
 local 12
community 19, 21, 63, 64, 66
 -based
 self-help 59
 communal
 farming 93
 donor v
 international 9, 49, 97
 Jewish 104
 owned
 grinding mills 103
 rural 20
 support 59
constraints
 climatic 63
 ecological 26
Construction
 plan 126
 site 127

Index

critical
 path 131
 system size 26
cropping ratio 75
cross boarder operation 47
Curative care xi, 97

D

decentralized energy technology 20
decision
 -making vi, 24
 variables 124
deforestation 17
devalue 39
Developing
 Countries 4, 12, 38
development iii, 4, 8, 9, 38, 41, 44, 50 - 59, 69, 77
 agencies 59
 developmental
 impact 9, 49, 69, 76, 80, 81
 industrial 20
 programme 58
 rural 82, 85
Disaster 46, 52, 61, 62, 66, 67, 73, 89
 -prone
 areas 67
disaster
 natural 61
 post disaster 69
donor
 agencies 81
 agency
 international 86
 countries 15
 governments 14
drought 72
 resistant 94, 96

E

Ekins, Paul 24
Emanuel International 103
energy
 programme 13
environment

Index

environmental
 bankruptcy 23
 degradation 17
 havoc 13
Epiphany 134
equitable
 access 24
Eritrea 62
Ethiopia 16, 47, 50, 63 - 67, 70, 73, 82 - 88, 105, 127
 Ethiopian
 Government 15, 93
 Orthodox Church 90

F

Falasha 86, 104
famine 15, 17, 23, 61, 62, 63, 65, 66, 68
 early warning system 48
FAO 28
Far East 18
farming
 collective 93
 cooperative 93
 farm
 poultry 94
 farmer associations 95
 subsistence 88
Fellowship for African Relief 85
feudal system 86
finance
 financial plan 135
finding of the true Cross 134
Food
 for all 85
free trade 38, 39
Fuller, M. 41

G

Geez 102
GELEGU 95
Gerin-Lafoie, Paul 1
global
 conventional
 economic system 23
 havoc 21
Gojam 84, 88
Gondar 88
Good Friday 134

Index

goods and services 15
government
 funding 44
 spending 39
grants 42
grassroots 58, 106
Greek 36
Gumuz 86, 94, 95, 97

H

habitat 13, 19
hand
 -dug
 well 104
 pump 21
Have-Nots iv, 63
Haves iv, 63
home
 -less 29
 -stead 89, 113, 124
human
 -itarian 12, 85
 assistance 44
 goal 78
 growth 38
 needs 25
 right 12
 scale 24
 service 39
 welfare 23
hunger 4, 28, 34
Hunger for Justice 12
hydro
 -logical
 project 104
 dam 12
 electric 13

I

Idir 66
In the Name of Progress 19
individual land ownership 93
Industrial
 Revolution 29
industrial
 -ized 64
 model 59

Index

International
 Charitas 15
 market 16
 monetary fund 39
international
 economic
 disorder 36
invisible sector 25
Itang 127

J

Japan 18, 42
Jew 36, 86

K

Kent, Randolph 61
Kenya 17, 21
Kissinger, Henry (Dr.) 46

L

land
 improvement
 project 75
 reform
 policy 93
 tenure 86
latest and earliest time 130
legislation 54
livelihood 63
Living Economy 24
local
 capacities 82
 culture 50
 knowledge 2
 people 77, 80
 self-reliance 24
 staff 79
Luke 31
Lutheran World Federation 16

M

macro-micro 24
Mahatma Gandhi 42
management
 decision 129
 managerial
 decision-making 135

Index

mass
 organization 90
 relocation 12, 14
 starvation 62
May Day 134
McCann, James 65
mender 89
Mercedes Benz 16
Metekel 94
millennia 13, 90
mobile medical team 98

N

National
 Conference
 Canadian Institute of Planners iv, 27
natural settlement pattern 125
Nelson, Jack 12
New Year 134
NGO 71
Nigeria 85
Nissan 16
No More Shacks! 30
non
 -aligned summit 3
 -industrialized 64
 -profit 85
normal work hours 133
North
 America 18, 35, 36, 41
 North /South iv
Norway 85
nutritional
 needs 100
 advice 99
 habit 94

O

Objective function 124
obsolete technologies 21
O'Neill, Onora 63

P

peasant 90, 93
 association 59, 86, 90
personal wealth 18
Philippines 13, 14

Index

pilot irrigation 94
plan 4, 71, 88
 cost 136
 cumulative 136
 of operations 126
 physical 83
Planning 50 - 54, 61, 77, 78
 land use 126
 Relief Project 53
political prosecution 81
Pope John XXIII 29
population
 growth
 rates 18
Poverty 18, 20, 35
poverty 4, 11, 17 - 23, 25, 30 - 38, 68
producer cooperatives 59
Programme iii, 9, 50
 relief 84
 programing 77
 linear 126
Project vi, 59, 69, 81
 intervention 71, 74
 irrigation 95
 management plan 129
 mega 12
Refugee
 Settlement 83
 relief 67, 80
 start date 133
 table 136

R

racial inferiority 35
Rahmato, Dessalegn 91
rain-fed 88
realm
 material 70
 motivational 72
 social 70, 72
Refugee 83
relief iii, 4, 8, 9, 41, 48, 50 - 59, 69, 76, 77, 81, 82
 agency 67
 assistance 97
 Relief Organization for Ethiopia 85
relief work 67
relocation 12, 13
Remedan 134

Index

renewable 11
resource 11, 16, 19
Revolution day 134
rinderpest 92
ROFE 83, 85, 86, 92 - 106
Rome 46
Rotoff, B. (Prof.) v
rural electrification 20

S

Sahel 71, 72
schedule chart 134
Secretary of State 46
secular institutions 30
self
 -help 105
 -reliance 26, 38
 interest iv
 management 24
Shinasha 86
shuluka 94
slack 130, 131
 activity 131
self-help 97
social
 justice 38
 structure 2, 61
societal mechanism 67
solar
 cooker 96
 power
 technology 20
 pumps 20
sorghum 100
start and end nodes 129
strategy
 survival 89
 of the fittest iv
 for Project Intervention x
structural transformation 24
Sudan 85, 105
 Southern 83
sustain
 -able 19, 46, 59, 63
 sustainability
 ecological 38
 sustenance 21
symbiotic 64
systemic economic structure 32

Index

T

task
 timeline 131, 133
thatched roof 89
Third World iv, 1 - 4, 8, 10 - 17, 21 - 23, 27, 29, 31, 35 -
 38, 41, 57, 59, 81
 Review
 Guardian 3, 75
Toyota 15
transnational corporations 36

U

unfair structural relationships 34
UNHCR
 -LWF 127
United Nations 17, 18
United Nations Centre for Human Settlements 30
University of Manitoba iv, 27
unsustainable 20

V

Vatican Council II 29
villagization policy 93
vulnerability
 physical 89
 vulnerability-capacity 76

W

wage control 39
Wall Street Journal 18
WCC 60
Winnipeg iv, 27, 83
Woodrow, Peter 55
work
 calendar 133
 schedule 127
World
 Bank 14, 17
 Economy and World Hunger 35
 Food
 Conference 46
 Vision 60