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ASSIGNMENT ONE

## **QUESTION 1**

Humanitarian diplomacy aims to mobilize public and governmental support and resources for humanitarian operations and programmes, and to facilitate effective partnerships for responding to the needs of vulnerable people. Humanitarian diplomacy includes advocacy, negotiation, communication, formal agreements, and other measures. It is a field with many players, including governments, international organizations, NGOs, the private sector, and individuals. Modalities of Operation <sup>1</sup>

<sup>2</sup>The modes of operation of humanitarian diplomacy are various and often context specific, they include:

- (1) Direct contact with the relevant political and military actors,
- (2) Indirect contact through intermediaries,
- (3) Contact in the field where humanitarian operations are under way, or at respective headquarters (Geneva, New York, Paris, Rome, Brussels),
- (4) Through the use of traditional (theatre, storytelling) and modern modes of telecommunication (television, radio, Internet, etc.).

Communication throughout these processes of humanitarian diplomacy can be in the form of discrete negotiation or public denunciation (or a combination of these).

## **Question 2**

Humanitarianism is at once a broad dedication to and belief in the fundamental value of human life. Though lacking an agreed definition, this central ethics of humanitarianism crosses cultures and history. Humanitarianism is also a more specific reference to the (international/Western) crisis response that has evolved from the founding of the Red Cross and the first Geneva Convention over 150 years ago. As a systemic response to crisis, humanitarianism involves addressing the needs of people affected by conflict, natural disaster, epidemic and famine. In these crises, the focus of humanitarianism is, to varying degrees, placed upon basic or immediate needs of assistance and protection, as distinct from (though increasingly linked to) work more directly aimed at development, peace building, rule of law, etc.<sup>3</sup>

Henry Dunant (1828-1910), founder of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and initiator of modern international humanitarian law, successfully managed to mobilize the good intentions of people at the local, national and international levels by calling on the public, Governments, and civil society to act with humanity towards victims of war, after having personally witnessed the suffering of the battle of Solferino (24 June, 1859). In so doing, he set in motion the evolution of modern international humanitarian law.

On 24 June 1859, Dunant arrived at Solferino where he witnessed one of the fiercest battles of the nineteenth century. The Battle of Solferino lasted for more than 15 hours and more than 40,000 were wounded. Dunant was filled with horror and pity as he viewed the appalling spectacle of human suffering. With the help of the villagers at Castiglione, he worked tirelessly, without sleep for three days, giving comfort and what medical care he could to the injured men. Back at Geneva, Dunant was haunted by visions of the terrible battle and he devoted all his strength to ensure that the terrible sufferings he had witnessed never occurred again. In 1862, Dunant wrote and published a book entitled

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<sup>1</sup> <https://www.diplomacy.edu/courses/humanitarian>

<sup>2</sup> Michel VEUTHEY «Humanitarian Diplomacy: Saving it When it is Most Needed»: Alexandre VAUTRAVERS & Yvita FOX (Eds.) Humanitarian Space. Webster University Geneva 16<sup>th</sup> Humanitarian Conference Geneva, Webster University, 2012, pp.195-208

<sup>3</sup> [https://phap.org/PHAP/Themes/Humanitarianism\\_principles\\_ethics/Humanitarianism/PHAP/Themes/Humanitarianism](https://phap.org/PHAP/Themes/Humanitarianism_principles_ethics/Humanitarianism/PHAP/Themes/Humanitarianism).

"A Memory of Solferino", which he put forward his ideas to foster the creation in every country of a society for the relief of the military wounded and capable of helping the army medical services to carry out their tasks<sup>4</sup>.

### **Development of Red Cross**

The founders of the Red Cross set themselves the task of fostering the creation of National Societies. By 1874, twenty-two national societies in European countries and soon the Red Cross movement spread to other continents. In 1876, when Turkey was at war with Russia, they informed the Swiss Government that it was adopting for its ambulances the emblem of the Red Crescent instead of the Red Cross. The Red Crescent emblem was then used by most of the Islamic countries.

During the wars and internal disturbances, which broke out between 1864 and 1914, the Red Cross and Red Crescent were on the scene wherever men were suffering. Above all, it was during the First World War that the Red Cross was called upon to operate on a scale never before paralleled. All Red Cross Societies of the belligerent countries organised hospitals and ambulances. The activities of the International Committee of the Red Cross also expanded greatly, particularly following the creation at Geneva of the Central Tracing Agency. The Agency received from the fighting force lists of the wounded and of the prisoners they had taken, and passed on the information to their Governments. Later prisoners were given the right to correspond with their families and the Agency was given the responsibility of receiving, checking and forwarding the enormous flow of mail.

Delegates of the International Committee visited the prisoners-of-war and, in their confidential reports, called for improvements in conditions for captives. Mr Henry Pomeroy Davison, President of the War Committee of the American Red Cross, suggested that the Red Cross Societies of the United States, France, Great Britain, Italy and Japan should devote their resources to action in the public health field and to the organisation of relief in case of natural disaster. The League of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies was started in 1919 with its headquarters in Geneva, in coordinating role and work of National Societies at international level.

The Red Cross new orientation towards humanitarian work in peacetime did not affect the continuing work of the International Committee of the Red Cross. It indicated that the First World War had demonstrated the urgent need to protect many parties, including the civilians. In the years that followed, the successive signings of the Geneva Conventions served these protections.

During the Second World War, the International Committee intervened to improve the treatment of victims, avoid reprisals and ensure that camps were established in safe and healthy places.

Each stage of the codification of international humanitarian law occurred as the result of a post war shock wave in public opinion and governments - a collective painful process of learning.

These codifications occurred after the following traumatic events:

- The battle of Solferino between Austrian and French armies was the impetus for the First Geneva Convention (1864), protecting military wounded on land;
- The naval battle of Tsushima (1905) between Japanese and Russian fleets prompted an adjustment of the Convention on war at sea in 1907, extending protection to military shipwrecked;
- World War I then brought about the two 1929 Conventions, including a much broader protection for prisoners of war;

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<sup>4</sup> [https://www.rotekreuz.at/fileadmin/user\\_upload/PDF/Austrian\\_Red\\_Cross/RC\\_History.pdf](https://www.rotekreuz.at/fileadmin/user_upload/PDF/Austrian_Red_Cross/RC_History.pdf)

- World War II led to the four 1949 Conventions, an extensive regulation of the treatment of civilians in occupied territories and internment. The 1949 Geneva Conventions – along with the UN Charter (1945) and the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (1948) – are the result of the tragedies of millions of civilians and prisoners victims of total war and genocide in Europe and in Asia. The survivors pushed for the adoption of international instruments in order to avoid the repetition of such tragedies;
- The decolonization of African colonies and the Vietnam War preceded the two 1977 Additional Protocols, which provided written rules for the protection of civilian persons and objects against hostilities;
- A worldwide campaign in full partnership between Governments, United Nations agencies, the Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and NGOs stressing the human suffering and socio economic costs caused by anti-personnel mines, resulted in the total ban on anti- personnel landmines signed in Ottawa on 4 December 1997;<sup>5</sup>
- A similar worldwide coalition brought about the adoption of the International Criminal Court Statute in Rome in 1998.

### **Contemporary Developments**

Humanitarian diplomacy has undergone tremendous development since the end of the Second World War, in particular with the growing role of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), humanitarian and human rights NGOs, alongside the mobilization of civil society, on national and international levels.

Humanitarian diplomacy aims, through the representatives of Governments, international organizations, humanitarian organizations, as well as NGOs and actors within civil society, to defend human life and dignity in those places where it is under greatest threat. The ICRC, Doctors without Borders (MSF), Human Rights NGOs (such as Human Rights Watch and Amnesty International) and Coalitions of NGOs (such as the NGO Coalition for the International Criminal Court, which contributed significantly to the adoption of the Rome Statute in 1998), the “Geneva Call”, international personalities (“Goodwill Ambassadors”), and members of local civil society, all partake in humanitarian diplomacy.

The period since 1945 has seen a tremendous increase in Red Cross relief activities for the victims of natural disasters, for which the League is responsible at the international level. In countries subject to disasters, National Societies have been seeking to develop, in agreement with their governments, their capacity to intervene in relief operations and to prepare themselves for the task of receiving and distributing relief from abroad when an international appeal is launched.

The League, which has engaged in large-scale relief work in the past, is now concentrating on coordinating relief and action between donor and recipient National Societies and between the Red Cross and the United Nations. The activities of National Societies have since changed to reflect the requirements, to move from curative to preventive medicine and to concentrate on broader problems of public health and hygiene. The blood transfusion programme was developed and Red Cross has played an effective part in persuading people to give blood. At the same time, the Red Cross, in almost every part of the world, is doing an active role in nursing and social welfare. National Societies have shown an increasing interest in the recruitment of young people and various programmes in schools are developed, which include first aid, evacuation, fire-fighting, nursing, social welfare services, etc.

### **QUESTION 3**

As Frédéric Maurice, an International Committee of the Red Cross delegate wrote a few months before he was killed on 19 May 1992 in Sarajevo by those who did not want that assistance be brought through the lines to the civilian population there, as prescribed by International Humanitarian Law:

“War anywhere is first and foremost an institutional disaster, the breakdown of legal systems, a circumstance in which rights are secured by force. Everyone who has experienced war, particularly the wars of our times, knows that unleashed violence means the obliteration of standards of behavior and legal systems. Humanitarian action in a war situation is therefore above all a legal approach which precedes and accompanies the actual provision of relief. Protecting victims, means giving them a status, goods and the infrastructure indispensable for survival, and setting up monitoring bodies. In other words the idea is to persuade belligerents to accept an exceptional legal order – the law of war or humanitarian law – specially tailored to such situations. That is precisely why humanitarian action is inconceivable without close and permanent dialogue with the parties to the conflict”<sup>5</sup>

<sup>6</sup>The Geneva Conventions are the essential basis of international humanitarian law applicable in armed conflicts. They evolved from rules of customary international law binding on the entire international community. In the second part of the nineteenth century, when the codification of international law started, most of these rules were included in international treaties, beginning with the 1864 Geneva Convention and the 1899 and 1907 Hague Conventions. With contemporary wars continuing to produce disastrous effects, the Geneva Conventions signed on August 12, 1949, and two additional protocols adopted on June 8, 1977, are the most important treaties for the protection of victims of war.

The rules elaborated in 1949 were not sufficient to ensure the protection of the victims in a growing number of civil wars and wars of national liberation. Technological developments in the means and methods of warfare also required new legislation.

After discussion at several Red Cross conferences—in Vienna (1965), Istanbul (1969), and Tehran (1973)—and the International Human Rights Conference in 1968, the Swiss Federal Council convened a diplomatic conference on the reaffirmation and development of international humanitarian law applicable in armed conflicts. After four sessions this conference adopted the two protocols of 1977.

#### **Provisions Common to the Four Conventions and Protocol I**

The Conventions and Protocols are applicable in the case of declared war or any other armed conflict arising between two or more parties from the beginning of such a situation, even if one of them does not recognize the state of war. They also apply to all cases of partial or total occupation, even if such occupation meets with no armed resistance. The application ceases at the general close of military operations. Protected persons benefit from the provisions until final release, repatriation, or settlement. The addition of Protocol I extended the provisions' application to wars of national liberation, that is, to the armed conflicts in which peoples are fighting against colonial domination and alien occupation, and against racist regimes in the exercise of their right of self-determination, as enshrined in the United Nations (UN) Charter and the Declaration on Principles of International Law Concerning Friendly Relations and Co-operation Among States in Accordance with the Charter of the United Nations.

The so-called Martens clause, which dates back to the 1899 and 1907 Hague Conventions, specifies that in cases not covered by the Conventions, Protocols, or other agreements, or in the case where these agreements have been denounced, civilians and combatants remain under the protection and authority

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<sup>5</sup> MAURICE Frédéric, “Humanitarian ambition”, in *IRRC*, Vol. 289, 1992, p. 371.

<sup>6</sup> "Geneva Conventions on the Protection of Victims of War." *Encyclopedia of Genocide and Crimes Against Humanity*. . *Encyclopedia.com*. 24 Apr. 2019 <<https://www.encyclopedia.com>>.

of the principles of international law derived from established custom, the principles of humanity, and the dictates of public conscience.

The Conventions and Protocols are applied under the scrutiny of a protecting power, that is, one or more neutral states appointed to safeguard the interests of the parties to the conflict. The ICRC assists the parties in designating a protecting power. An organization that offers all guarantees of impartiality and efficacy may be designated to fulfill the duties incumbent on protecting powers.

The Conventions and Protocols include important provisions to sanction violations of the humanitarian rules. They include administrative and disciplinary sanctions as well as sanctions against "grave breaches" (i.e., war crimes) enumerated in the corresponding articles of each Convention and in the Protocols. Governments are required to enact legislation to provide effective penal sanctions for individuals committing or ordering any grave breaches. They must search for those persons alleged to have committed such acts or who have ordered their commission. Military commanders must prevent breaches, suppress them, and if necessary report them to the authorities. The principle of universality obliges a state either to summon the accused to its own courts or to extradite him or her to the state requesting extradition.

The mechanisms provided for in the 1949 Geneva Conventions on the protection of war victims are:

- **The States Party, which undertake to “respect and ensure respect” for the Conventions “in all circumstances.** “Respect” clearly refers to the individual obligation to apply it in good faith from the moment it enters into force. “To ensure respect,” according to the ICRC Commentary to the 1949 Conventions, “demands in fact that the States which are Parties to it should not be content merely to apply its provisions themselves, but should do everything in their power to ensure that it is respected universally.” This collective responsibility to implement international humanitarian rules often takes the form of bilateral or multilateral measures by States Party.

Leaving aside the exceptional meeting provided for in Article 7 of Protocol 1 of 1977,<sup>75</sup> States Party to international humanitarian law treaties have used bilateral or multilateral meetings at the United Nations, the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM), regional organizations (OAS, AU, OSCE, the European Parliament, the Council of Europe), as well as the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), to manifest their concern that humanitarian law should be respected.<sup>76</sup> “In all circumstances” means in time of armed conflict as in time of peace, taking preventive steps, in the form of training or evaluation, and prosecution.

- **The Protecting Power, which was widely used in Europe during WW II<sup>81</sup> and much less thereafter.** Additional Protocol 1 defines the Protecting Power in international humanitarian law as “a neutral or other State not a Party to the conflict which has been designated by a Party to the conflict and accepted by the adverse Party and has agreed to carry out the functions assigned to a Protecting Power under the Conventions and this Protocol.” The role of the Protecting Power is to maintain the liaison between two States at war, to bring relief assistance to the victims, and protection to prisoners of war and civilian internees. The ICRC, which received mandates from the international community in the 1949 Geneva Conventions to:
  - Visit and interview prisoners of war<sup>84</sup> and civilian internees;
  - Provide relief to the population of occupied territories;
  - Search for missing persons and to forward family messages to prisoners of war and civilians;
  - Offer its good offices to facilitate the institution of hospital zones and safety zones;
  - Receive applications from protected persons;

- Offer its services in other situations and especially in time of non-international armed conflicts.
- The First 1977 Additional Protocol adds two mechanisms of implementation: The United Nations, “in situations of serious violations of the Conventions or of this Protocol” (Article 89 of Protocol 1); and The optional “International Fact-Finding Commission” (Article 90 of Protocol 1).

The implementation mechanisms of international criminal law was significantly developed as the United Nations Security Council established the ad hoc International Criminal Tribunals for the Former Yugoslavia and for Rwanda, and with the sixtieth ratification of 1998 Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court on April 11, and its entry into force on July 1, 2002. This is a milestone in the international community’s fight to end impunity for war crimes, genocide, and crimes against humanity.

The International Criminal Court will be able to punish war criminals and perpetrators of genocide or crimes against humanity in cases where national criminal justice systems are unable or unwilling to do so. It is vital for the Court’s effective functioning that the State Parties rapidly adopt comprehensive implementing legislation in order to be able to cooperate with the Court.

#### **QUESTION 4**

The digital revolution has brought, and is still bringing, many positive changes to the world. In the humanitarian sector, technology has revitalized worldwide volunteerism through crowdsourcing, driving closer cooperation between the humanitarian and the for-profit sectors. It has empowered people who receive humanitarian aid and improved the way we manage information. Mobile phones, satellites and other types of information technologies have grown vital to the humanitarian aid community, particularly in allowing a swift response in the immediate aftermath of natural disasters and other emergencies, Mobile technology and satellites are now key to linking humanitarian organizations to operations on the ground in real time.

These changes have challenged old assumptions and reshaped existing systems in deep and unexpected ways, these include:

#### **Building Resilience**

The first step in crisis response starts well before disaster hits. Developing resilient early warning systems helps communities withstand even major hazards. Mobile technologies offer improved ways of doing this. Social and economic data, including maps, are essential to building resilient communities. Most conversations about public safety and assistance take place around a map. Mobile technology enables us to compile, share, and update maps more quickly and accurately than ever before, so that we can put our resources where they will be most effective, at both local and national levels.

For example, The Grassroots Mapping Project ([www.grassrootsmapping.org](http://www.grassrootsmapping.org)) uses inexpensive techniques, like balloons and kites, to compile maps that are aimed at changing how people see the world in environmental, social, and political terms. The organization worked in the New Orleans area in 2010 to map the BP oil spill, and is now broadening its scope to explore inexpensive and community-led means to measure and explore environmental and social issues.

Interactive mobile technology can also enhance the ways maps are used, making them a valuable tool for advocacy and development—crucial elements of building resilience. In Somalia, the Danish Refugee Council (DRC) is running an online map of its development projects in rural areas. The map shows every village with a project funded by the DRC. Clicking on a village reveals details about the project, its aims, and its progress. Somalis in the diaspora have started to use the map to decide on the

best villages for their donations. These diaspora communities are even topping up the original funding offered by the DRC—an unexpected side effect of the project.

Interactive mapping has been taken up at the international level by the World Bank, which launched the Mapping for Results platform in October 2010. This initiative visualizes the location of World Bank projects and enables citizens and other stakeholders to provide direct feedback, enhancing the transparency and social accountability of these projects.

For selected countries, the platform provides not only geographic information about World Bank–financed programs, but also allows users to overlay disaggregated poverty, population density, and human development data (i.e., infant mortality rates, malnutrition, etc.). Population density is available for 107 countries; data on mortality, maternal health, and malnutrition data are available for forty three countries; and poverty data for thirty-one countries. Such moves toward transparency will undoubtedly have implications for funding and development in the future.

Mobile cash transfer programs, which deliver vouchers or cash directly to recipients, can also play a crucial part in building resilient communities, help people to withstand slow-onset crises, and build sustainable livelihoods. Programs can be integrated with national social security systems to maximize impact. As in so many areas, humanitarians are only beginning to investigate the possibilities that this technology offers.

### **Local Action**

In all disasters, local communities form the front line of the crisis response. If local people have access to cutting-edge technology during an emergency, they can be extremely effective in communicating the needs of affected communities to each other and to local, regional, and international aid organizations.

The formation of local social networks to spread news, including tips and warnings about impending weather events or volcanic activity, is another important way in which mobile technology has contributed to disaster prevention and recovery. These tools are increasingly being used in disaster-prone areas. For example, civil authorities in Mexico City have recently rolled out a free mobile application that will warn people when an earthquake is imminent. The application triggers an alarm on the phone once an earthquake of magnitude 6.5 or higher has been detected.

During the 2010 eruption of Mount Merapi outside Jogjakarta in Indonesia, a local communications group called Jalin Merapi used Twitter, Facebook, SMS, and local radio to keep the community informed in real time and to understand and communicate emerging needs. Local filmmakers in Thailand also used digital technology to spread the word during a flood emergency in 2011. They posted a series of ten videos on YouTube aimed at bringing home to people the seriousness of the situation. In one, they represented the billions of cubic meters of water bearing down on Bangkok as an equivalent volume of blue whales. The main video in the series has been viewed more than a million times. Looking to the future, it is clear that local mobile networks also have much to offer in disseminating information during a crisis. The response to a tornado that hit the town of Joplin, Missouri, in May 2011 was partly coordinated through a Facebook page. The page, Joplin Tornado Information, was set up within two hours of the tornado striking and began connecting needs, resources, transportation, and storage requirements. It soon had nearly 50,000 fans. Relief organizations, churches, and news sources started to post information on the page, including the news that water trucks had arrived in the town.

Similarly, social media was a primary source of communication after an earthquake and tsunami struck northern Japan in March 2011. Within an hour of the earthquake, an estimated 1,200 tweets per minute including references to the disaster were being posted on Twitter. Many Japanese people used Facebook, Twitter, and the Japan-specific site Mixi to share information and keep in touch. These examples from highly connected countries with robust infrastructure show what will be possible in an increasing number of countries in future.



Many of the most useful new mobile platforms are also accessible to locally based groups and even those affected by crises. For example, Crowdfunder ([www.crowdfunder.com](http://www.crowdfunder.com)) allows anyone to set up a mapping project on the Ushahidi platform ([www.ushahidi.com](http://www.ushahidi.com)), a tool to crowd-source information using multiple channels. This technology has recently been used by people in Syria to track unrest there in real time.

The notion that “[c]ommunications are an important form of aid, and can be of equal importance to survivors as food, water and shelter”, is a mainstay of the humanitarian technology discourse – and increasingly also of the general humanitarian discourse. According to the World Disasters Report 2013, “[s]elf-organization in a digital world affords opportunities unfeasible in the analogue past. Disaster-affected populations now have greater access to information, and many of their information needs during a crisis can be met by mobile technologies.” In essence, these kinds of statements represent a move to see value-added information as relief in itself.

Attention must be paid not only to how humanitarian technology impacts on what counts as resources, but also to the distribution of resources, in terms of who gets what, who gets to distribute, where this happens and why. In the following section we consider the latter issue in greater depth by looking at the case of e-transfers, often called “mobile money” or “digital food” in the humanitarian context. Over the last decade, the international development community has invested heavily in the so-called financial inclusion agenda, aiming to make poor people less aid-dependent; this is sometimes labelled “resilience through asset creation.” The underlying assumption is that access to financial services such as credit and savings will “create sizeable welfare benefits as beneficiaries of aid are drawn further into the market economy as customers.

In tandem with humanitarianism’s general turn to transparency, accountability and efficiency, the goal of implementing “cost-effective” electronic payment programs is also to help beneficiaries “save money, improve efficiencies and prevent fraud.” The belief is that cash can “go where people cannot”, and provide them with choice. This determinist vision of technology and capital fits with a key attribute of the humanitarian agenda: it is not redistributive, but focuses on helping those in need.

The World Food Programme has taken the lead in this development as a part of its broader strategy to move away from food aid and to improve food security through cash assets. In a Kenyan pilot project, WFP is working with MasterCard and Equity Bank to implement a “digital food” delivery system whereby recipients are provided with a debit card linked to a bank account that holds their allowance. According to WFP, beneficiaries preferred the “digital food” allowance over food distribution because it provided choice and helped avoid misuse of cash. It was also found to be 15% cheaper than in-kind food assistance.

Nevertheless, challenges abound for the project, including “an unprepared agent network outside of Port-au-Prince, a lack of mobile network in northern Uganda, limited bank networks and payment infrastructure in remote areas of the Philippines and challenges channeling the cash for the transfers in Kenya.” In an early phase, WFP Kenya found that network connectivity was not strong enough to process payments under the initially devised solution.

By allowing for more remote engagement with crisis situations, humanitarian technology reshapes relationships between individuals and communities in need, as well as between the individuals and professional groups aiming to provide relief.<sup>66</sup> As discussed above, the notion that the humanitarian space is shrinking as humanitarian workers are facing a more dangerous operative environment is a central preoccupation in the politics of contemporary humanitarianism. In the context of the “war on terror”, the attacks against the UN in Iraq, Afghanistan and other locations have engendered a long-term trend towards risk avoidance.

The web portal DisasterReady.org, for example, offers aid workers the ability to: Share resources and information and access customized online learning anytime, anywhere in the world. By providing high-quality, accessible training at no cost, the DisasterReady.org Portal allows aid workers to do what they do best: save lives, rebuild communities, and restore hope. At the same time, remote management

signifies a “re-allocation of risk” towards local organizations and beneficiaries, whereby technology is not only a management tool but also a vehicle for increased self-reliance as technologies “also enable communities to quickly transform themselves into first responders”, access updates about relief operations, give feedback to humanitarian actors and make complaints. Technology plays a central role as “ever-greater powers of self organization and self-management are being demanded of populations.”

The more critical information infrastructure there is that can be damaged in a disaster, the more important are the private sector companies owning that infrastructure. They become a “relief provider” by dispatching individual employees to mend cell phone towers and re-establish network access.<sup>76</sup> The reliance on remote technologies also brings in invisible crowds of technical workers de facto contributing to humanitarian action. Here we borrow an example from Daniel Gilman of OCHA, who observes that a mobile phone application that allows the direct entry and transmission of user registration also brings an application developer, a mobile phone or satellite company, an internet service provider and a data storage company into the relationship, as well as government regulators – all of these being invisible to the beneficiary.

- Establish a neutral forum where areas of agreement and conflict between the international system and the volunteer and technical communities can be identified. - Create an innovation space where new practices and tools can be explored as experiments. - Put together a deployable field team with a mandate to deploy the best available practices and tools from the volunteer and technical communities. - Put a research and training consortium that will evaluate the work on the ground and train humanitarian workers and members of the volunteer and technical communities on the best practices for information management in the humanitarian context. - Develop a “clear operational interface” outlining ways of collaborating before and during emergencies.<sup>7</sup>

**K. B. Sandvik, M. G. Jumbert, J. Karlsrud and M. Kaufmann<sup>8</sup>** in their article, attempted to map out a research agenda that identifies humanitarian technology as a field of political contestation. The aim has been to explore what technology does to the humanitarian context, and how the unique characteristics of the emergency context shape the conditions in which technology can operate. By allowing for remote management, humanitarian technology is contributing to a reconceptualization of the humanitarian space.

At the same time, the turn to technology has engendered a set of new settlements, most particularly with respect to the emphasis on public–private partnerships. Humanitarian technology also shapes what counts as resources and how resources are distributed. Moreover, by allowing for, and exacerbating, remote management, humanitarian technology reshapes relationships between the “helper” and the “helped”. The article has also reflected on how humanitarian data collection, a key element in the drive towards evidence-based humanitarian action, produces new trade-offs and vulnerabilities.

<sup>9</sup>Humanitarian response is being challenged like never before. The amount of conflicts, disasters, and environmental deterioration cases are continuously increasing to a point where there are more conflicts and catastrophes present than at any other time in human history. Modern technology is a great tool when directed towards helping humanitarian aid workers in handling the exponentially increasing demand.

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<sup>7</sup> UN Report: How to Improve Use of Information Technology in Humanitarian Context  
By Ivy Mungcal // 29 March 2011

<sup>8</sup> Humanitarian technology: a critical research agenda International Review of the Red Cross (2014), 96 (893), 219–242.

<sup>9</sup> <https://www.raptim.org/how-technology-can-improve-humanitarian-aid/>

The industrialized world is becoming more reliant on data, mobility and cloud solutions. Humanitarian aid also can benefit from these ever-developing technological possibilities. The challenge is how to make use of the data and technology to improve aid work while protecting the privacy of individuals. Listed below are three great ways to improve the use of modern technology for aid workers:

- Opening up data is what brings efficiency, according to Gisli Rafn Olafsson, a humanitarian adviser at NetHope. [In The Guardian](#), he emphasizes the need to start collaborating more and to focus more on what factors are limiting the ability to respond in an efficient manner. “Technology can help us do that, but unless you want to work with others,” Olafsson says.
- Another way to use technology to improve humanitarian work is to adopt a simple mobile data collection. “There’s quite a lot of attention put onto data visualization and ‘big data’ analytics,” says Rosa Akbari in the same article. She works for development adviser Mercy Corps. “But the instant gratification of cutting a once day-long process of data entry into an instant upload shows that sometimes the simplest innovations can have the most impact.”
- Social media has been booming for the last ten years and can be a great source of information for communities. It’s also a useful way to get in contact with aid agencies and hold them to account. The only issue with social media is that there are millions of people who don’t have access to it, especially in remote locations. It’s important not to become over-reliant on social media because most vulnerable are excluded.

A new technology that could prove to be a great tool for humanitarians is **Blockchain**. Blockchain is a digital ledger, providing a safe way to make and record transactions, agreements, and contracts. A network that could consist of thousands of computers shares the database. Towards the end of 2016, the Start Network announced a trial, trying to speed up the distribution of aid funding and track how it is being spent. The ultimate goal of the organization is to track every dollar in humanitarian aid, from donor to the beneficiary.

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