



WOLKITE UNIVERSITY

**COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

NONE STATE ACTORS AND CITIZENS SECURITY PROVISION IN ETHIOPIA

PREPARED BY

ID NO

DEGINET MELKAMU.....SSHR/080/010

ABDLREZAK KEDIRSSHR/004/010

MULUKEN ADDISSSHR/228/010

ADVISOR Mr, ALEX B.

**Senior Essay Submitted to the Department of Governance and Development
Studies in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Bachelor of Arts (BA) In
Governance and Development**

4 January 2020

**WOLKITE UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

None state actors and citizens security provision in Ethiopia

By: Deginet melkamu Abdirezak kedir and Muluken addis

**Senior Essay Submitted to the Department of Governance and Development
Studies in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Bachelor of Arts (BA)
In Governance and Development**

Approved by Advisor

Advisor

Date

signature

4 January 2020
Wolkite Ethiopia

DECLARATION

I, undersigned, declare that this senior essay is our original work that has not been present by any institution or individual and that all of its sources are dually acknowledge.

Name of student	signature	date
1, _____	_____	_____
2, _____	_____	_____
3, _____	_____	_____

Acknowledgement

First and for most, we first thanks God which create and gives full health and peace mind and heart in our life. Our special particular and deepest gratitude and appreciate goes to our senior essay Advisor Mr, Alex Birhanu(MA) for his unreserved and valuable guidance, vary high contribution and critically reviewing of this research paper from the process of preparation stage up to the end of this study. Hence his guidance, comment and technical support had significantly contributed for the accomplishment of this study. Moreover, he guided us in designing over all study framework and in providing information and constructive comment throughout the study period. We would also like to extend our thanks appreciation to Mr, Alex .B again as Teacher of governance and development studies. Fourthly, we would like to thanks ours family who help we by providing financially and morally. Finally, our friends especially department of governance and development studies students

Abstract

Non-state actor or armed actors of different types shape the situation during and after armed conflict in manifold ways. On the one hand, they are often perceived as responsible for violence against unarmed civilians in breach of international humanitarian law, as well as for the establishment of criminal and informal economies. On the other hand, they are often the expression of social problems because they see themselves as representatives of distinct interests and may build on broad support within communities. Non-state armed actors, such as rebel groups, militias, organizations led by warlords, and criminal networks, often bear the potential to disturb, undermine, or completely truncate processes of peace- and state-building, leading violence to flare up again. Additionally, international actors, such as humanitarian aid workers, representatives of governments, and peacekeepers, are often affected by this violence in their work.

Considering the degree of dispersion of non-state armed actors, their potential influence and their effects on international politics, and learning about the possibilities and chances of success of strategies and concepts regarding an interaction with them, appears crucial. This article aims to provide a general framework about possible strategies for actors in international politics to deal with armed actors. It offers first assessments of the prerequisites of specific strategies, as well as of the suitability and applicability of strategies for particular actors.

Contents

Acknowledgement	i
Abstract	ii
Abbreviations	v
1. BACKGROUNDS OF THE STUDY	1
1.1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.2. Statement of problem	3
1.3. Objectives of the study	4
1.3.1, General objective of the study:	4
1.3.2. Specific objective	4
1.4. Research of question	5
1.5. Scope of the study	5
1.6. Limitations of the study	5
1.7. Significance of the study	6
1.8. Research methodology	6
1.8.1. Description of the study area	7
1.8.2. Research Approach (methods) of study	7
CHAPTER TWO	8
LITERTURE REWIEW OF THE STUDY	8
2.1. Theory of non-state actors literature review	8
2.2. The main features of Human Security	13
2.3. Definition of security	17
2.4. Non-state security provisioning	17
2.4. Brief history and overview of Ethiopia security system (policing)	18

2.5. None -state Security Provision in or Ethiopia or Africa	20
2.6. The main actor of non-stat security.....	20
2.7. Legal framework of non-state security provision	20
2.8. Conclusion	22
CHAPTER THREE.....	23
3. Finding and discussion.....	23
3.1. Nature of None state-Actors	23
The main nature of non-state actor (NSAs)	23
3.1.1. A basic command structure	23
3.1.2. The use of violence to achieve political ends	24
3.1.3. Independence from state control	24
3.2. The role of none state-Actors in security provisioning.....	24
3.3. The governance of Non state actors security provision in Ethiopia	26
3.4. Merit and demerit of non-state actors (NSAs)	27
3. 4.1. Merit (advantage) of non-state actors (NSAs)	27
3.4.2. Demerit (Disadvantages) non-state actor (NSAs).....	28
3.5. Detail discussion of what constitute non-state actors (NSA	29
3.6. The current importance non-state actors NSA in Ethiopia	30
3.6.1. State and Non-state Actors.....	30
3.6.2. State and Non-state Actors Relation: Theoretical Framework	31
3.6.3. Why state wants to control non-state actors?	31
7. Conclusion	31
References	33

Abbreviations

BEIG	Business and economic interest group
CBOS	Community based organization
EU	Europeans union
HRC	Human right council
ICRC	International committee of the red cross
IHL	International humanitarian law
INDCs	Intended Nationally Determined Contributions
NGOs	Non-governmental organization
NSJS	Non-stat justice and security
SSRS	Security sector reform strategy
TNCS	Transnational corporations
US	United state
WB	WorldBank

CHAPTER ONE

1. BACKGROUNDS OF THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Non state actors includes are organization, groups and individual that are not affiliated with, directed by, or funded through the government .these includes corporation, private financial institution, and non-governmental organization as well as paramilitary and armed resistance group. According to Maria Derks (2012), states that non state actors are individual or group that hold influence and which are wholly or partly independent sovereign state. In large parts of the globe, especially in fragile and conflict countries, unstable condition, many citizens cannot rely on the state to provide safety and public order.

Many developing world governments cannot provide adequate social protection services, and recent policy discussions have started to emphasis understanding of the social protection provided by non-state-actors (NSAs) such as multinational corporations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), community-based organizations (CBOs), and families and other social institutions. Non state actors (NSAs) have important roles in the governance and accountability of personal's security protection systems if they are to function coherently and effectively. And they play these roles largely or completely independent of the state. However, in many African countries this role is not well understood, particularly its scale, impact or policy significance.

Despite non state actors (NSAs)' growing visibility and importance, in almost all African countries information on what they are, their services or beneficiaries, and their interaction with other non- state actors (NSAs) or state social protection providers is scant (Kassa, T.etat,2015;PP,1).Large African populations are not covered by state social protection, if keeping properly social's security citizens security also secure. (Holzmann and Koettl, 2010; Mkandawire, 2006:1).

Over the last five years, Ethiopia has seen a policy momentum around social protection issues. Motivated, by the concern to move from dependency on emergency food aid. There are limited coping mechanisms. Poverty is generally a key determinant of vulnerability, as well (ibid).

A previous study mapping NSAs in Ethiopia identified over 1,000 such organizations (Amdissa, T. et al., 2015; Cerritelli et al., 2008), but it did not focus on social protection. From the Ministry of Justice's data, more than 3,000 registered NGOs provide social protection services (Adanech, Dutu, 2015; Rahmato et al., 2008).

In many such cases there exist magpie or thief, dacoity, fracas or maelstrom, assassination and conflicts, lack of controlling the government and skills for effective protection are absent and, as a result, police, military and related security services are unable to fulfill their roles. Moreover, in some cases, the police, the military and related security services are perceived to be part of the problem rather than the solution. Further the reasons are manifold: they have been corrupt, colluding with criminal organizations or specific social groups within society, or used as a tool for achieving political aims. Often they also display a flagrant disregard for human rights. The communities often rely on non-state, semi-formal or local arrangements to provide the services for their security and justice needs. The ways in which this is done vary widely. It has been observed that such but aims to bring a more diversified perspective to security interests. Human security is about recognizing the importance of the security needs of people along-side those of states. It is about minimizing risks, taking preventive measures to reduce human vulnerabilities and carrying out remedial action when preventive measures fail.

Non state actors are umbrella shadow a coherent measurement to pre-vent and protect of for people's security. Personal security protect is the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfillment their living situation. Non state actors are very core part of to providing the citizens' security, improving peoples' freedom as well as keeping property providing in the provision of citizens' security system. In generally non state actors are servant to keeping the humans security from different fracas and organizing group to secure citizens safe is a feather in one's cap. Those are very fly kite of in case of humans' security provision, they are closed with citizens' problems because of these groups are team or organized from the resident peoples so; the peoples' problems also their own.

Example, in rural area citizens keep their security from baddish activity by peoples are organizing without appreciating by government and without payment this called Qiryat or current issue is round.

1.2. Statement of problem

As various recorded crime statics of different countries and here in Ethiopia shows, there is no doubt that crime exists in all societies of developed and developing countries. It also indicates that crime rate is significantly increasing in developing countries.

On the other hands the seriousness of the social problem of crime need to be described. The victims of crime way lose anything that has value i.e. personal safety, money and other property. Also the loss of status in the community is frequently as the result of crime (Fieldman Philip, 1993). Actually crime is the societal problem it violates as system of groups and institution consisting established order. The societal problem is located in the context of conventional relationship and society's organization. Solution to crime problem is complicated by the fact that the problems have roots in the aspect of citizen's life, which initially appears to have nothing to do with criminal behavioral. Criminal become target for collective concern because their impact is generally seen to have a serious implications for the entire society and not simple to be the private troubles of a number of victims (Gibbons, 1992).

The establishment of a centralized court and police system diminished the power and applicability of the traditional system of arbitration or keep part from bad frightened and maintenance of security. In fact, almost all developing nations have been adopting the modern legal system. It doesn't mean that all conflict cases are seen within modern legal systems or government judicial bodies (Wondwosen, T. 2015; Bahru, 2002:25). Wondwosen, T. 2015; Kohlhausen (2008:77) asserts that in almost all African countries, only an infinitely small number of disputes are dealt with formal tribunals. As above discussed, Ethiopia being one of developing countries, suffers more from the problem of crime. The total number of crime reported by police of different period of time shows that crime rate in countries significantly increasing. This is true for north region of the country and its capital mekelle as well as Adi grat town. (North region Security and prison administration Agency, 2005 E.C).

In Ethiopia, where many nations and nationalities live, so, non-state actors are very important to provision of citizens' security are widely practiced and support the government judicial system.

Each nation and nationality has its own conflict resolution mechanisms. In the Ethiopians regions. Zones, Wereda and kebele. Examples, especially on the Gurage of southern of Ethiopia in general and Cheha of Sebat Bet Gurage in particular, have been governed by traditional institutions. However, some features of these institutions are in danger of extinctions due to the emerging notion of modernization (governmental policy organized), the expansion of Christianity and Islam and strength of government structural bodies have influenced on the culture of Sebat Bet Gurage customs. s

According to Yewondwosen (1998 E.C.:3), these notions have contributed for the endangerment of Gurage cultural values and traditional performances. Generally, Different societies handle it in various traditional and modern ways. Gurage people in general and Cheha of Sebat bet Gurage in particular have their own traditional institutions that none state actor and citizens security provision. The Previous researcher were studied was about factor of crime, resolve by modern and; they study investigates the causes and types of conflict among Cheha Gurhge. However; this research suggest the traditionally non state-actors and citizens security provision by non-stat actors providing citrines security form of the peoples are by organizing and synchronize to protect citizens security in Ethiopia. Because Ethiopia is affected by this problems like insecurity, dacoit and beating and no research studied by this case in our country. Therefore, this research fills the existing gap through effective coordination of the non-state actors in the provision of citizens security by facilitating ways which make them to involve in the security provision at the grass root level and also this research address the role that the non-state actors play in the security provision in Ethiopia .

1.3. Objectives of the study

1.3.1, General objective of the study:

The general objective of the study is to assess the role of non-State actors and citizen's security provision in the case of Ethiopian context.

1.3.2. Specific objective

- 1) To understand the nature and extent of non-state actors to protection of citizen's security service provider.
- 2) To identify the governance features of non-state actors and security provision service.
- 3) To investigate the extent of responsiveness of non-state actor's protection in citizens' security in Ethiopia.

1.4. Research of question

- What is the nature and how the extent of non-state actors to protect human's security service providers in Ethiopia context?
- What are the governance features of non-state actor security service provision?
- What are extent non state actors protection services responsive to security issues
- How to non-state actors (NSAs) contribute to human security protection

1.5. Scope of the study

Non-state actors are many terms, but, this study is limited to the study of the role of non- state actors and citizens' security provision in particular in Ethiopian context. The reason of selected this context know days decreased participation of non-stat actors provision citizens' security and there is have no more research touches in Ethiopians regions and community in the case provision of human security. and interested is between time occurrence insecurity, assassination, the people threat about violence of human security and right as well as thief or accession of mostly brigand.in generally this paper suggested non state actors providing of humans security.

1.6. Limitations of the study

In this study, the research faced some limitations, since the research we are student in case of Ethiopia, we faced time and cost constraints. Again, the study only took place in our country. So, this may not represent to other areas in the region or the country and others type security, so the studies limit only human security. However, we are able to enduringness this challenge and we are prepare this paper or research. Because of the issues of citizen's security is vital issue of for any citizens and stat stability.

1.7. Significance of the study

Human societies developed and practiced various mechanisms to maintain the people's security, to keeping their own property, extent their freedom and peace among them. Usually traditional rural societies put greater emphasis on indigenous knowledge than western societies, because traditional institutions serve as mechanism to maintain citizens' equilibrium and harmony in societies (Wondwosen, T. 2015; Faur, 200:16a).

These traditional providing of citizens security by non-stat is nowadays are becoming neglected. Among these the Ethiopians community is traditional humans security keeping system, which had crucial values, norms, and knowledge is the one that these days becoming in the verge of extinction due to several reasons. Hence it is reasonable to conduct research on tradition citizen's security provide in order to bring forth those values and indigenous knowledge that enabled traditional societies to resolve their problems hand to maintain regarding traditional non state actors to provide citizens security in Ethiopians community and will contribute to increase our understanding of the significance of indigenous knowledge of stable situation of people's security. And use as document for other researcher as well as readers persons.

1.8. Research methodology

Methodology is the basic part of any scientific research because it gives detail about the data. Method of data collection instrument would use full to carry out the research activities. Research methodology is necessary body part of the research. And researcher uses different composed methods to collecting data or to grope relevant information about research's issues. In this points includes; description of area, approaches, research design and data sources and especial part of this research's paper

1.8.1. Description of the study area

Ethiopia, country on the horn of Africa. The country lies completely within the tropical latitudes and is relatively compact, with similar north-south and east-west dimensions. The capital is Addis Ababa (‘new flower’) located almost at the center of the country. Ethiopia is the largest and most populated country in the horn of Africa. With the 1993 secession of Eritrea, its former province along the red sea, Ethiopia becomes landlocked.

1.8.2. Research Approach (methods) of study

This study is used qualitative methods in order to produce a more reliable and credible findings. The research method is used because the study citizens security but we are used only qualitative methods of data collection and analysis. The qualitative method is used for conceptual development at the early stage and for interpretation, clarification and illustration of the findings as well as the collection, gathering (from secondary data) and analysis of subjective opinions, attitudes.

1.8.3. Research Design

We use the descriptive research design, because it used to design to obtain information about the current status of phenomena and to draw conclusion from the fact discoveries. The reason for using this method is to maximize the strength of each method by enabling comfortable for use to gather dependable information. The study can mitigate the problems of credibility by using the qualitative data sets. In terms of weighting, the study is focus on qualitative data. The study is human securities descriptive research design; which is used to collect evidence by qualitative methods, tools of data collection and analysis.

1.8.4. Type of Source of Data .

To get enough information concerning the study problem we are use only secondary source of data collection systems because of in case of covid 19 .

1.8.5. Secondary source of data

In this paper method of collecting data is only secondary source. The secondary source of data is written or published materials like from Books, magazines, articles, internet and web site.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW OF THE STUDY

2.1. Theory of non-state actors literature review

International and national universal normative bases of human security are loosely established in the laws which provide for human rights protection and humanitarian and refugee laws (Cilliers, 2004). Non-state actors are particularly well suited to engendering human security in the new world context. Indeed, in failed states, they are the only actors who are present to do so. During internal conflicts, assassination, maelstrom, thief and rape not only dacoit as well as violence citizen's security and rights non state actors are crucial advantage for human security issues. Non-state actors benefit from close involvement with local communities and they are better able than traditional actors to build local capacity. Non-state actors can and do play many roles in the protection of human security (Claude Bruderlein, 2000).

There are, however, many problems associated with the increased role of non-state actors in the protection of human security in conflict situations. The multiplicity of unofficial actors can mean that efforts are uncoordinated and accountability is unclear. Non-state actors may also have insufficient political influence or resources to bring about their ends. They may lack information or awareness about important issues, which may then lead to their taking sides in conflict (ibid).

Non-state actors include all actors that serve as the public service in case of citizens security provision these are , local non-governmental organization (NGOS); religious and faith-based organization, tribal; traditional and other structures and networks' organization. Woman's and youth networks; private sector organization; media; academia; local community based group; and even influential individuals (Rosan, Smits and Deborah, Wright 2012).

Non-state actors often operate outside a strict interpretation of their roles, sharing characteristics and functions traditionally attributed to (local) government. The diversity of non-state actors may not be new, but their profiles become increasingly elevated in a situation of conflict or fragility.

They fulfill key functions in situations where the state is unwilling or incapable of providing governance and are therefore relevant to any state building programme (ibid).

Traditional national and regional inter-governmental efforts have not been effective in addressing range of issues and problems in Southeast Asia, such as on the environment, labor standards, land conflicts, migrant workers, human rights and good governance (As Shaun Breslin & Helen E. S. Nesadurai, 2018; cites , Aggarwal and Chow 2010; Elliot 2012; Davies 2013; Nesadurai 2014; Varkkey 2016). Yet, non-state actors do act as makers and enforcers of new standards and practices in Southeast Asia. Sometimes non-state actors have been delegated those roles by state actors, sometimes they act in collaboration with state actors, and sometimes these governance arrangements are fully private in that they exclude involvement by state actors (Shaun Breslin and Helen E. S. Nesadurai, 2018).

At least 80 per cent of justice services in sub-Saharan Africa are thought to be delivered by nonstate providers (OECD, 2007, p.11). Over the past decade, donors have increasingly recognized the central role played by non-state actors. However, working with non-state providers is still 'relatively overlooked'; donors are still 'primarily concerned with building state provision' and are wary of the (real and/or perceived) risks of working with non-state actors (Baker, 2011, p.27, 9; Denney, 2012; expert comment).

Conceptualizing security provision – beyond state-centric frameworks until recent time, local non-state security actors and arrangements have been represented as a problem for democratic and institutional consolidation of states, citizenship, and the provision of public services. In more recent analysis however, the understanding of the multiple local security and governance

providers and arrangements operating in areas of limited statehood have become more nuanced. Scholars and policymakers alike increasingly recognize that a variety of actors such as traditional chiefs, neighborhoods watches, militias and vigilante groups etc. are part of the security provision, and are political actors in their own right, rather than just spoilers (Kasper Hoffmann and Louise Wiuff Moe, (2013 : 9). Local security provision: It is one thing to recognize the importance of the multiplicity of local and non-state actors' security providers and arrangements that operate in fragile situations. It is quite another to understand how they operate; the ways in which they attempt to establish order, assert their authority, and resolve citizens' problems. Empirically grounded analysis of these dynamics and actors, and the wider political context, within which they operate, is still limited. To take such analysis further, this report provides four case studies from four different countries in Africa which to varying degrees are going through periods of conflict and where political authority is fragmented (Kasper Hoffmann and Louise Wiuff Moe, (2013 :10).

Why the emerging non-state actors to provide citizen's security? Key reasons and driving factors behind the emergence and proliferation of security provision beyond the state is a central focus in the report, and is given consideration in all the case studies. The case studies provide different angles on the —why. A recurrent theme is how the erosion of central state institutions, government, and service delivery is a key factor behind the emergence of decentered forms of security provision and political order. Yet, the different case studies will also illustrate the great variations that exist in terms of the different motivating factors behind localized claims to authority and security provision, and the different ways in which historical processes create incentive structures for local security actors. In some settings the developments with regard to state collapse/ fragmentation and the specific conflict patterns and sociopolitical dynamics, have generated incentives and opportunities for security actors who primarily seek to assert and consolidate their own influence and power. In other settings the reconstruction of security and order after state collapse has been linked to aspirations and attempts at creating new frameworks for governance and representation in ways that redress conflict and insecurity triggers. A common factor, illustrated across the case studies, is, however, that politics and pursuit of power are two key driving forces behind local security dynamics and provision (ibid :11).

West Africa is experiencing rapid transformation and population growth. Security and insecurity are hot topics both in relation to these dynamics of change and to the risks violence and

instability pose for the process of regional integration, Responding to these requests, this Sahel and west Africa club(SWAC) Issues Paper provides an overview of concepts, approaches, tools and initiatives available to the international community in the field of security. It discusses the notion of human security in light of the rise of an African security regime. It points out a series of key issues and questions for further discussion of how to address security threats in a way that is responsive to West African priorities (Karim Hussein, et at, 2004).

There are two important aspects in the evolution of the voluntary sector in Ethiopia that have had an enduring impact on the sector: one was that until very recently the sector consisted of a small number of organizations, and the second that they have operated under difficult and sometimes trying circumstances. Both the Imperial and Dreg regimes were unwilling to tolerate independent citizen activism and to allow autonomous non-state organizations. As we shall see further down, both regimes were forced by pressing circumstances, namely environmental disaster and human crisis, to allow NGOs to operate in the country. In the beginning most of these were Northern NGOs and faith based local groups, all of which were expected to engage in activities which were considered —safe, such as relief and rehabilitation work. The changes since the fall of the Derg and the establishment of the current Federal government has brought with it a degree of liberalization and the opening up of the political space, nevertheless, the relations between the voluntary sector and the Federal government continues to be a cause for concern to the sector as well as to its supporters in the international community (*Dessalegn Rahmato, et at. 2008 :11*).

The voluntary sector in Ethiopia, as we have defined it here, has a short history, going back in effect to the last years of the Imperial regime. There were also government supported women‘ associations, patriotic groups and others but these played a marginal role and had only a muted voice. The ethnic-based associations that emerged during this period, and among which the Guraghe Road Construction Association was the earliest, performed a useful function in terms of gathering resources to invest in basic infrastructure such as roads in their own communities. On the other hand, there were large numbers of customary self-help organizations both in the urban and rural areas which played an important role in the lives of individuals and families, however, since they were informal institutions they did not fall under the purview of the law of associations.

The literature review collates information about non-state actors in security and justice activities providers. While terms vary, the defines of non-state justice and security systems as ‘all systems that exercise some form of non-state authority in providing safety, security and access to justice. This includes a range of traditional, customary, religious and informal mechanisms that deal with disputes and security matters’. The term ‘non-state’ in this context has now been largely dropped by academics (see lessons) – other more popular terms include ‘local providers’, ‘customary justice’ (World Bank) or ‘informal’ (expert comments). These terms are used to cover a diverse group of actors including: citizens organized on a voluntary basis; private security groups; informal local government security structures; customary chiefs; religious police; anti-crime groups; restorative justice community-based organizations; militias; secret societies; religious leaders; gangs; paralegals; trade associations (Sian Herbert .2015 ; Baker, 2011, p.27; Denney, 2012).

During the last one decade, Ethiopian non-state actors (NSA) attempted to simultaneously promote two interrelated objectives. The first one was about survival which to this day it is lobbying for a more enabling legal framework. Whereas, by exploiting available opportunities it has promoted initiatives and demonstrated results that were supposed to warrant its recognition as partner in the country's development. With due recognition of roles of civil society in the democratization and development process, and also in appreciation of non-state actors(NSAs) position within the Ethiopian context, the donor community has been extending support for strengthening the capacity of the non-state actors (NSAs). For some of the donor entities, supporting and maintaining dialogue with civil society is not any more a discretionary exercise, rather it is an obligation in its own right. A case in point is the cooperation between European Union and Ethiopia (ECO Team 2008).

The definitions of human security vary; most formulations emphasize the welfare of ordinary people. And have different type of security; such as personal security, economic security, health security, environmental security and food security. If these terms fulfil for citizens‘ that country will be stable and more increasing peace building as well as freedom of citizens. The ‘human security’ approach argues that threats and challenges to security transcend national defense, and law and order to encompass all political, economic and social issues that guarantee a life free from risk and fear. The focus has shifted from the State to the security of persons; however, these are not mutually exclusive (karim hussein, et at, 2004).

2.2. The main features of Human Security

Human security brings together the ‘human elements’ of security, rights and development. As such, it is an inter-disciplinary concept that displays the following characteristics;

- ❖ People-centered
- ❖ multi-sectorial
- ❖ comprehensive
- ❖ context-specific
- ❖ prevention-oriented

1, as a **people-centered** concept, human security places the individual at the ‘center of analysis.’ Consequently, it considers a broad range of conditions which threaten survival, livelihood and dignity, and identifies the threshold below which human life is intolerably threatened.

2, as **multi-sectoral** understanding of insecurities. Therefore, human security entails a broadened understanding of threats and includes causes of insecurity relating for instance to economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security.

Table I: Types of Human Security and Threats

Type of Security	The Main Threats
Economic security	Persistent poverty, unemployment
Food security	Hunger, famine
Health security	Deadly infectious diseases, unsafe food, malnutrition, lack of access to basic health care
Environmental security	Environmental degradation, resource depletion, natural disasters, pollution
Personal security	Physical violence, crime, terrorism, domestic violence, child labor
Community security	Inter-ethnic, religious and other identity based tensions
Political security	Political repression, human rights abuses

Moreover, human security emphasizes the interconnectedness of both threats and responses when addressing these insecurities.

3, **comprehensive**; approaches that stress the need for cooperative and multistore responses that bring together the agendas of those dealing with security, development and human rights. —With

human security [as] the objective, there must be a stronger and more integrated response from communities and states around the globe (AS UN; CHS: 2003: 2).

4 as a **context-specific** concept, human security acknowledges that insecurities vary considerably across different settings and as such advances contextualized solutions that are responsive to the particular situations they seek to address.

5, **prevention-oriented** and introduces a dual focus on protection and empowerment. It is addressing risks and root cause of insecurity and human security.

The difference between traditional (state) security and human security; The state security concentrates on threats directed against the state, mainly in the form of military attacks, human security draws attention to a wide scope of threats faced by individuals and communities. It focuses on root causes of insecurities and advances people-centered solutions that are locally driven, comprehensive and sustainable. As such, it involves a broader range of actors: e.g. local communities, international organizations, civil society as well as the state itself. Human security, however, is not intended to displace state security. Instead, their relationship is complementary: human security and state security are mutually reinforcing and dependent on each other. Without human security, state security cannot be attained and vice versa (AS UN; cite ,CHS: 2003: 6).

Non-state actors provide avenues for citizens to interact globally/regionally. This means nonstate actors can shape regional security positively or negatively. What is needed therefore, is to identify those non-state actors that have interest in peace and stability for networking and collaboration while at the same time engage positively or respond appropriately to those non-state actors that have negative attitude (through their actions) towards peace and security.(Elijah .D.M.(2016).

Civil society actors can be differentiated according to their area of expertise, focus or interest, size and resources, geography and level of organization, aims, tactics and strategies.(ibid). Nonstate actors involved in peace and securing have become aware of the importance of involving the local community, what could be explored more is how efforts to engage with local communities are perceived by the locals themselves and local ownership is the traditional conflict resolution system embedded in Timorese culture (Yukako sakabe tanaka, 2018).

Traditional reconciliation practices have been found to be effective at the village level in bringing back a stable citizens order, which has led to increased attention on the ‘local’ concept. Cummins and Leach (2011) examine the recent interactions between traditional and modern authorities at the suco level, which characterize renewed local administration. The findings in this paper are based on the nature of traditional non-state actors in case of human’s security provision in fragile states and their various functions in state building.

The Personal security; Individual security from physical violence. Threats can take several forms, for example: threats from the State, foreign states, other groups of people (ethnic tension), individuals or gangs; threats directed against women or children based on their vulnerability and dependence; threats to self for example suicide, drug use, etc.(karim hussein, et at, 2004). Personal security; a dvice on protecting yourself, your family and your property when living in high risk countries. You need to apply security is measured; however they should always be proportionate to the threat and cause minimal disrupt your daily life.

A security sector reform strategy (SSRS) that engages non-state actors and informal security mechanisms is tailored to societies characterized by two interrelated conditions: the absence of effective modern statehood, and the presence of informal governance alternatives. In societies that do not meet these conditions, a state-centric SSR approach will likely prove most effective, practical and desirable for donors, the host government and the society, even though informal structures may still contribute to societal order in these conditions. In societies that are characterized by these conditions, an exclusive (or even predominant) focus on state institutions is likely not the most effective way to improve security provision to citizens.(Micheal L.(2012). In cases of limited statehood, state-centric security sector reform (SSR) faces an even more fundamental challenge. The international community too easily presumes that the absence of strong state institutions provides a —blank slate for international reform initiatives, when there may actually be a diversity of non-state structures, norms and traditions filling the void of state governance (Mark Sedra, quoted in Burt, 2011: 6).

Non-state justice and security (NSJS) systems refer to all systems that exercise some form of non-state authority in providing safety, security and access to justice. This includes a range of traditional, customary, religious and informal mechanisms that deal with disputes and/or security matters. The relationship between NSJS systems and the state varies considerably. Systems

include community-based practices that are relatively isolated from the state, systems fostered by non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and systems set up by the state outside the formal justice system for a specific purpose (Fuandez 2004).

In general, non-state actors are very important in the case of providing security, of citizens' security to keeping or securing the people's security, not only, citizens' security as well as states' securities to improving for human's freedom and safety around their living area; because of this role are closely related with their social's culture, and values and easy to understanding involvement of due to providing of human's security from their communities and solve different problems; more focused on threat of human securities like theft, rape, assassination, betting and violating of humans' security and right as well as other fears issues of human right. more used this providing security sector or non-state actors in developing country especially in remote area because of in this area lack of government controlling in case of human security provision not only keeping the threat situation but also resolve the conflict of by quickly them. Without human security; state's sovereignty as well as development is null, so, non-state actors are preeminent role of due to citizen's security provision.

Non-state actors are very important about concerning with provisioning of citizens' security not only personally also, economically, and socially stable. Not all non-state actors will be seen as legitimate by the population or the state, for example. Many are embedded in socio-political cultures that uphold systems of exclusion and some may have strong links with illegally armed groups. Some may not want to be engaged in the state-building process, while others aspire to become part of the new state system. Attempts to strengthen local or alternative governance structures should also be balanced against the danger of undermining state capacity by setting up competing mechanisms. Finally, dual engagement requires donors to revise their understanding of fiduciary risk tolerance, by also supporting local initiatives that do not, or barely, uphold international standards of accountability (Rosan Smits, Deborah Wright 2012). Legal personality' then is the status which —enables an entity to function in a legal order.110 Being a 'legal person' or 'subject' of international law better captures today's non-state actor's (NSA's) role than being an 'object' of international law.

2.3. Definition of security

It is as guided by, but not limited to, the definition of security given in the Solemn Declaration on a Common African Defense and Security Policy (CADSP). The CADSP gives a multi-dimensional definition of security which encompasses both the traditional state-centric notion of the survival of the state and its protection from external aggression by military means, as well as the non-military notion of human security based on political, economic, social and environmental imperatives in addition to human rights (AU 2008).

The definition of security is the state of being protected or safe from harm and thing done to make people or places safe.

2.4. Non-state security provisioning

The communities based nature of many state justice institution makes them more physically and open more financially accessible tool local population (especially in rural areas). They also tend to address issues that are most relevant to poor people non –state justices system may be more familiar to individual, as they may be conduct in local language according to familiar norm, and they may be more efficient has resolving dispute (USAID,20080).

Non-state actors' security providing: those actors that provide security and justice without a state mandate. In principle, the security sector reform (SSR) concept recognizes this and emphasizes that efforts to reform or develop justice and security institutions should not follow some kind of blueprint with the aim of establishing a Weberian ideal-type state. To put it bluntly: it is agreed that we are not trying to create a 'Norway in a developing state'. Rather, there is an acknowledgement that the form of justice and security institutions should follow function, and therefore, that such institutions can come in many forms and shapes, including local and non-state actors.

Review collates information about donor policy approaches and lessons in working with non-state actors in security and justice activities. While terms vary, DFID (2004) defines nonstate justice and security systems as 'all systems that exercise some form of non-state authority in providing safety, security and access to justice. This includes a range of traditional, customary, religious and informal mechanisms that deal with disputes and / or security matters'. The term 'non-state' in this context has now been largely dropped by academics (see lessons) – other more popular terms include 'local providers', 'customary justice' world bank (W. B) or 'informal'

(expert comments). These terms are used to cover a diverse group of actors including: citizens organised on a voluntary basis; private security groups; informal local government security structures; customary chiefs; religious police; anti-crime groups; restorative justice communitybased organizations; militias; secret societies; religious leaders; gangs; paralegals; trade associations; etc (Baker, 2011, p.27; Denney, 2012).

2.4. Brief history and overview of Ethiopia security system (policing)

Ethiopia has a long police history parallel to its political evolution as an ancient country in the Horn of Africa. Many Ethiopian history literatures point to the fact that Ethiopia has 3 000 years of national history and the first formal police institution responsible for peace and security called “*Amharic Alphabet*” which literally means —unityll was established during the rule of King Ziyon in 2575 BC (Nigusie, 1964:18). According to Nigusie (1964:18), the security force was constituted by persons selected from peasants and church servants. Their responsibility was to prevent theft during the day and at night. After the death of King Ziyon, the other security force named “*Amharic Alphabet*” which literally means —guard of the nationll was established and it later became “*Amharic Alphabet*” which means —mounted guard of the nationll in 2545 BC during the rule of King Sebtahi (Nigusie, 1964:19). Understandably, the police institution was in an infant stage as compared to the present day context. It was not established in the manner it is today. Nevertheless, what is interesting to observe is the historicity of the institution in whatever form it existed then. One can understand this from Nigusie (1964:18) who citing from an ancient Ethiopian Geez book known as —Pentelewonll which state that the security force was established by King Sebtahi by way of oral proclamation. According to Nigusie (1964:20), this force was not only responsible for the security and peace of the nation. It was also considered as governor of the people under the rule of the King. Subsequently, the nomenclature of the force was changed to “*Amharic Alphabet*” meaning —Afirsatal, which lasted for many years up to 1418 BC (Nigusie, 1964:21). The other notable development in the evolution of Ethiopian police is during the reign of Emperor Adam Seged Iyasue who established a security force known as “*Amharic Alphabet*” meaning —thief detectorll in 1782 (Nigusie, 1964:23). The Emperor had appointed the leader of this force from the then highly ranked government officials known as *Bitiwedid* and *Ligaba* to ensure the loyalty of the force to him. This force was responsible to safeguard the security and peace of the Capital City of the Emperor and the seat of regional governors. The regional town force was accountable to the regional town Mayor (Nigusie, 1964:23). According

to Nigusie, the security force named *Yeketama Zebegna* (City Guard) had been serving during the time of Emperor Towodros, Yohanis and Minilik II by having different but related names in rural areas, lowlands, highlands and urban areas of the country. Emperor Minilik II during his rule in Shoa (one of the province of Ethiopia) in 1882 established *Yeketama Zebegna* meaning the guard of City as the new form of security force. In 1898 a police force known as *Dewariya*, an Arabic term meaning patrol or watchman was selected from Harar Town and sent to Turkey to be trained in policing the cities (Andargatchew, 2004:12). According to Nigusie (1964:34) the then governor of Harar Ras Mekonen, informed Emperor Minilik II about the return of the *Dewaria* from Turkey. Having heard the return of this force the Emperor gave an order to merge the trained officers with *Yeketama Zebegna* to secure the security of urban areas including Addis Ababa (Andargatchew, 2004:12). It is interesting to note the expansion of police force as far as Addis Ababa. Andargatchew (2004:12) explains how this expansion was possible claiming that by about 1916 *Dewaria* was replaced by the *Arada Zebenga*. However, as a result of invasion by Italy, *Arada Zebenga* was abolished in 1936. Italy brought its own police men including some from its colonies and established the police force named *policia colonial*. This police force served from 1936 to 1941 until the defeat of Italy in II World War and resumption of the Ethiopian Emperor Haile Selassie into power (Andargatchew, 2004: 13-14). Source Workneh Gebeyehu Woldekidan 20167).

It is tempting to start an analysis of how power is organized and exercised in Ethiopia by going back to 1991, when the Tigray People's Liberation Front (TPLF) overthrew the military junta (*_Derg'*) under Mengistu Haile Mariam and brought 17 years of rebellion cum liberation struggle to an end. It was a watershed moment that ended a prolonged period of harsh oppression in which tens of thousands of Ethiopians disappeared, perished, fled or were imprisoned. It was also the start of the period 1991–95 in which Ethiopia's current political settlement was forged between the different political parties that make up the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF). However, taking 1991 as a starting point risks putting too much emphasis on contemporary factors that influence Ethiopia's political settlement, and too little on historical ones, producing an unbalanced understanding of its evolution.

2.5. None -state Security Provision in or Ethiopia or Africa

One recent study describes Somalia as a —neo-medieval mirel of localized authorities and armed groups (McFate, 2014: 133). Somali non-state armed groups are stronger than nascent state security forces, and they intersect freely with the national army and police, blurring the line between state and non-state actors. By hatting themselves as part of the formal security sector, armed non-state actors enjoy access to state resources even as they ignore civilian chains of command and continue to pursue the parochial agendas of their leaders. Their current relationship with the formal security sector is thus not so much integration as it is penetration (Ken.M 2016).

2.6. The main actor of non-stat security

In international relations, non-state actors (NSAs) are individuals or groups that hold influence and which are wholly or partly independent of a sovereign state or state. The interest, structure and influence of non-state actors vary. Those are:

- Corporation or multinational corporations
- Media organization
- business magnates
- Peoples liberation movements
- lobby groups
- Religious group
- Aid agencies violent non-state such as paramilitary force
- Private financial institution
- Paramilitary and armed resistance group □ non-government organization (NGO)
- Community-based organizations (CBOs)
- Transnational corporations (TNCs) those are an example of non-state actors.
- International Committee of the Red Cross

2.7. Legal framework of non-state security provision

The traditional instruments under international law, setting standard for human rights protection, were treaties binding the respective contracting parties. This standard setting was accompanied

by an increased concerted effort on the part of international organization and human right bodies to develop the concept of unwritten human right law (via customary law or general principles) (Philip Alston, 1966). Today's human rights discourse is far more diverse. We are using national law, voluntary codes of conduct, ethical standard, etc. to discuss and analyses state, but increasingly also non-state, behavior. International organization and non-governmental organization (NGOs) are expected more and more not only to advocate human right compliance by state, but also to abide by these some rule themselves.

Today's the human right compliance of non- state actors such transnational corporations (TNCs) may be the subject of litigation before national court, it may be a topic at shareholder meetings, or it may extensively discussed in the media or address by non-governmental organization (NGOs) in campaign to stop certain labor practices.

As far as the international framework is concerned, human right issue, were traditionally debated by the political bodies of international organizational. The development of more and more independent institutions, from expert organ, such as the human rights committees or the committee on economy social and cultural rights, to veritable international tribunals such as European court of human right or the inter-American court of human right, was a clear advance in strengthening human right protection against state

Today we are converted with a far wider panoply of institutions concerned with human right ,from national and international courts sitting in judgement over human right violation committed by corporation or individual ,to accountability mechanism, such as inspection panels of the world bank and other international financial institution (IFIs),scrutinizing the human right performance of international organization, political bodies in international organization, nongovernmental organization and their advocacy network, the media and the public at large (Philip Alston 1996).

Where non state actor replace state in exercise of public function , where state are not longer directly responsibility for those activities ,there is an apparent need to device system of accountability, including legal responsibilities , for non-state behavior ,particularly , behavior that may inferring up on human right. We are currently witnessing every dynamic evolution of accountability mechanisms range from more structured from of economic pressure such as consumer boycotts and ethical investing, to legal liability enforced by national court (ibid).

2.8. Conclusion

This paper attempts to elaborate a set of strategies to engage armed groups (non-state actor organizing) in the implementation of humanitarian and human rights standards. These strategies will remain largely experimental, as the types of situation and armed group evolve constantly. Therefore, these observations should not be seen as a set of rules for engaging armed groups, but rather as a series of reflections from practitioners on their own experiences (Claude Bruderlein 2000).

This paper concerned or involves about role of non-state actors and provision security to citizens and non-state actors are umbrella shadow a coherent measurement to pre-empt and protect of for people's security.

Local/non-state actors often play an important role in the provision of justice and security services in many of the world's fragile and (post-) conflict countries. With a view to improving their effectiveness, donors seeking to support justice and security development in those countries frequently look for ways to incorporate them in their programmes (Maria Derks 2012).

Weighing the effectiveness of investing in local/non-state actors compared with investing in largescale programmes of justice and security development is therefore of central importance for any donor deciding on where and how to apply their support. Besides this more general conclusion, on the basis of the Clingendael research and the above analysis it is possible to make a number of tentative recommendations for donors seeking to incorporate local/non-state actors. Most importantly, donors wishing to incorporate local/non-state actors in security and justice programmes need to make sure that programmes integrate support for local/non-state security and justice actors into a larger state building approach. This involves building on the linkages between the different levels and ensuring that a dialogue between the different levels of actors is established, and that cooperation is guaranteed. It also involves applying diplomatic skills to create an understanding in the national host government of the role played by local/non-state actors in security and provision. A complementary strategy to this would entail thinking of

security and justice provision as functions that can be carried out by a variety of different actors, and that can be transferred from one actor to another (Maria Derks 2010/12).

If the purpose of security studies is to identify and understand threats, and assist policymakers in developing appropriate and effective policies to deal with those threats, then accurate assessments of non-state armed group behavior are essential. In a world in which conflict between states is rare, such groups present a major source of violence. The questions are: What kind of violence, directed at whom, and how best to address it? Based on the data above, the most pervasive threat from non-state armed groups is to the human security of local civilians. This has important scholarly implications, as most current studies of civilian victimization (e.g. Downes 2006; Eck and Hultman 2007) or the human rights behaviors of non-state actors (Jo 2015) focus only on cases within war. This reflects a tendency to see traditional military security threats and the state as the primary referents of security, when in fact the majority of non-state armed groups are more threatening to civilians (Neil A. Englehart 2016/18)

CHAPTER THREE

3. Finding and discussion

3.1. Nature of Non state-Actors

Most practitioners agree that the main characteristics of armed groups should be identified prior to engagement. However, as armed groups differ considerably, from Mafia-like militias to religious movements to corporate armies, common descriptions should not be elaborated too specifically. Furthermore, the purpose of the definition should not be to exclude particular groups from protection strategies but to identify minimum organizational standards that would make contacts worthwhile.

The main nature of non-state actor (NSAs)

3.1.1. A basic command structure

The combatants are organized according to a unitary command structure and follow its instructions. The commanders have at least a minimum control over the conduct of their combatants, particularly regarding the group's behavior towards civilians. A dialogue on humanitarian issues with fragmented groups and groups with strong internal dissension are likely to be unproductive, if not counterproductive.

3.1.2. The use of violence to achieve political ends

The group is engaged in a political struggle, that is an attempt to redefine the political and legal basis of society through the use of violence. Violence is often employed not as a military tactic aiming for a takeover, but as a means to render the political status quo unsustainable. Violence in this context can take innumerable forms, particularly towards civilians; they include killing, raping, kidnapping, torture and extortion; attacks on crops, water sources, local markets and other civilian infrastructures, such as schools and administrative offices; and ambushes on commercial roads, power lines etc. Combatants often engage in parallel criminal activities, using force to extract resources for their own personal gain, through extortion, drug trafficking and illegal timber or diamond trading, for example. In many conflicts, such as those in Colombia and in Myanmar, the dual character of the combatants' activities questions the cohesion of the groups as political entities. The extent to which combatants are allowed to engage in independent criminal activities indicates how well a group's leaders control it.

3.1.3. Independence from state control

The issue of state control is often problematic. In some situations, it may be difficult to distinguish between autonomous pro-government forces, such as paramilitary groups in Colombia, and government-controlled paramilitary forces, such as the South Lebanese Army in Israeli-occupied Lebanon. Government control of paramilitary groups is difficult to assess, since it is often designed in part to make the government unaccountable for the acts committed by these forces. Logistical support from government forces to paramilitary groups, such as air transport, is an important but partial indicator of government control. The degree of the leaders' control over the conduct of combatants remains an important indicator of the independence of the group.

3.2. The role of non state-Actors in security provisioning

Non-state actors, from armed groups to private corporations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), play a critical role in heightening or lessening human security. The measures required to enhance human security often call for action from numerous non-state actors, particularly NGOs. These include, for example, addressing the needs of displaced populations, advocating stronger control of the arms trade and helping governments preserve and restore fragile environments. Human security can act as a platform to help state and non-state actors alike address the causes

of global insecurity. Non-state actors are particularly well suited to engendering human security in the new world context. Indeed, in failed states, they are the only actors who are present to do so. During internal conflicts, non-state actors benefit from close involvement with local communities and they are better able than traditional actors to build local capacity. Nonstate actors can and do play many roles in the protection of human security.

For example, organizations such as the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) and Oxfam act as relief agencies even when governments are unable to respond to emergency needs; NGOs such as the Community of San Egidio facilitate negotiations between warring parties; efforts such as Radio Ijambo in Rwanda aim to help re-establish peace. Many problems associated with the increased role of non-state actors in the protection of human security in conflict situations.

Non-state actors can aid in opinion building in international affairs, such as the Human Rights Council (HRC). Formal international organizations may also rely on non-state actors, particularly NGOs in the form of implementing partners in the national context. Non-state actors are fundamental agents in helping to achieve both national and international development goals, such as those around climate change. Actions by non-state actors contribute significantly towards filling the greenhouse gas emissions gap left by unambitious or poorly executed national climate policies, Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (INDCs).

Evidently, the term non-state is applicable to a large number of very different actors with distinct roles in societies in conflict. Non-state actors include armed groups, non-government organization (NGOs) corporations, educational institutions, private donors, religious organizations, the scientific community, private individuals, the media and, increasingly, the Internet community.

Despite the increased role of non-state armed groups in internal conflicts, international humanitarian law (IHL) and human rights standards offer only limited opportunities to persuade armed groups to comply, whereas a collection of legal instruments has been developed to supply state actors with a comprehensive framework, guiding the conduct of their combatants. Limited technical capacities and relevant small resources bases may characterize some of NGOs. NGOs sometimes may have limited strategic manner and weak linkage with other players in development. NGOs may have limited managerial and organizational capacities. In some

countries, the relationship between NGOs and government may involve political, legal, ideological, and administrative constraints. NGOs in international processes perform many functions like setting agendas, negotiating outcomes conferring legitimacy and implementing solutions.

Some of its major roles NGOs are as follows:

- A.** Supporting aspects: Demonstration and pilot projects: NGOs have the advantage of selecting particular places for new projects and specifying as well as improving projects and also advancing the length of time which they will be maintaining those projects and some shortcomings of the government projects overcoming some of the shortcomings that governments face in this manner.
- B.** Facilitated communication: NGOs also can facilitate communication between people and government.
- C.** Evaluation and Research: Improved and innovative activities need to be carefully documented and shared effectively and specifically monitoring and accessible for the sharing of final results with people and with the project staff.
- D.** NGOs also play an important role in an advocacy manner that it is implemented through governmental programs from criticism to an advisable form. NGOs also play an important role nationally and internationally indeed have a typical role in helping and encouragement for governments to take the actions for which they have given endorsement internationally.

3.3. The governance of Non state actors security provision in Ethiopia

The African governance institutions have generally recognized the role and potential of non-state actors (ECO 2007). Governance can be broadly defined as: The manner in which the vested authority uses its powers to achieve the institution's objectives, including its powers to design, implement and innovate the organization's policies, rules, systems and processes and engage its stakeholders (ISSA, 2011). For the World Bank (2007), governance is —the manner in which public officials and institutions acquire and exercise the authority to shape public policy and provide public goods and services. Governance, in the context of social protection can be seen as the set of incentives and accountability relationships that influence the way in which providers are held accountable for their behaviors and ability to deliver services with quality and efficiency (Bassett et al., 2012). In terms of service delivery and interaction among actors, governance can be applicable in social protection programs including those that provide cash, in-kind benefits or services (Amdissa, Teshome, Adanech Dutu and others 2015).

To be effective in providing social protection, NSAs need governance and policy support that provides: A conducive environment: This entails improving the regulatory mechanisms and resolving the issue on expenditure restriction for administrative functions. At the very least, NSAs should be involved in decision-making on this. Opportunities to engage with the public sector in formulating social protection policies and strategies. Assistance to improve their democratic functioning and strengthen their service delivery and resource mobilization capacity.

This could involve establishing a government agency for transforming and supporting non-state actors (NSAs). Opportunities for networking and sharing experiences for formal, international and informal NSAs to allow informal NSAs to engage in policy formulation and improve service delivery.

The findings of this study were communicated in various venues to inform public policy, beginning with presentations in Welmara and Dire Dawa to local administrators, sector offices and formal and informal NSAs, which equipped them with evidence to engage in public policy formulation. The research was also presented at the International Conference on the Ethiopian Economy where policy-makers and implementers were present.

3.4. Merit and demerit of non-state actors (NSAs)

3.4.1. Merit (advantage) of non-state actors (NSAs)

Legitimacy and Effectiveness: Non-state security mechanisms are embedded within local cultural, social and political realities. The nature of their development may thus render them more culturally, geographically and economically accessible to recipients. In many cases, the state is distant and foreign, and may therefore lack comparable authority and accessibility.

Flexibility and Resilience: Despite common presumptions, culture, norms and traditions are flexible, adaptable and constantly changing. Their informal nature may enable them to change more easily than the formal bureaucratic institutions of the state.

Local Ownership: Due to their bottom-up nature, non-state actors may be in the best position to realize the —locally owned‖ and —people centered‖ ideals of SSR. Security and justice have different meanings for different communities. A decentralized and pluralistic approach to SSR may better respond to the actual needs and desires of communities than the top-down technocracy and universalism of a state-centric approach, the values of which may be alien.

Cost Effectiveness: Such a strategy engages the structures that are already in place and actively providing security and justice functions to local populations, rather trying to eliminate or work around these existing mechanisms and construct new systems. In this sense, a strategy that engages non-state structures may be more practical and realistic than state building. It also supports security and justice systems that are cheaper for users because they do not have to travel to urban centers or pay the costs of state bureaucracy (this is indeed one reason people turn such systems in the first place)(Micheal Lawerene 20112).

3.4.2. Demerit (Disadvantages) non-state actor (NSAs)

High Knowledge Requirements: As the next section details, an effective and responsible nonstate SSR approach requires extensive knowledge about a wide array of local conditions, norms/traditions and non-state actors, including their past actions, interests, values, strengths, weaknesses and accountability to the community.

Human Rights Violations: Local non-state actors may not conform to international standards of human rights and democracy, particularly in the area of gender equality. **Limited**

Accountability: Non-state security and justice mechanisms often lack formal mechanisms by which they can be called to account by the communities they serve. **Political Hijacking:** Local systems can be hijacked by local strongmen seeking political influence, criminal networks or in ways that neglect or threaten vulnerable groups and minorities. They are susceptible to corruption and abuse. The importance of the latter three concerns should not be underestimated; but the same concerns also apply to the state, and there is no a priori reason that improving performance in these areas is any easier or more difficult at the level of non-state actors than within state institutions. Indeed, they represent recurrent challenges for international state-building initiatives, and it may very well be the case that non-state mechanisms are more accountable and rights-respecting than formal institutions. The fact that non-state mechanisms have faults and shortcomings is indeed the very point of reform. What really matters is their willingness to change. (These disadvantages, and potential mitigation strategies, are elaborated in the —challenges section below.)

Many summarily dismiss the non-state as undesirable or superfluous, but this stance is generally based on several myths about non-state actors: that they are inherently less powerful and legitimate than state institutions; that they are irrevocably opposed to the state; that they are static and unchanging; that they invariably violate human rights; and that they are an obstacle to development. These are features that must be empirically assessed, and will vary by particular non-state actor; the literature reviewed in this paper, however, suggests there is a multitude of non-state security and justice providers that defy these simplistic assumptions. For Baker and Scheye, the advantages listed above help explain why—in the majority of circumstances [in postconflict and fragile states], people look first to non-state agencies for crime prevention and crime response (2007: 512). This condition demands more serious and nuanced attention to the nonstate within international policymaking (Michael Lawrence 2012).

3.5. Detail discussion of what constitute non-state actors (NSA)

Non-state actors (NSAs) in Ethiopia play a vital role in providing social protection services to address poverty, inequality and vulnerabilities affecting livelihood. However, information about them, an essential component in planning, is scarce in both official records and in the literature, particularly for informal NSAs. This study aimed to map NSAs and their services and examine their governance, responsiveness to gender considerations and impact on policy formulation. The study was conducted in Addis Ketema and Dire Dawa city administration, representing urban areas, and Welmera and Shinile, representing rural areas. The first phase mapped the NSAs while the second phase was an in-depth study of selected beneficiaries. A list of formal NSAs was compiled from a literature review; structured questionnaire interviews were undertaken during mapping and the in-depth study to obtain primary data. Beneficiary focus groups provide insight into NSA services. Data were analysed using SPSS software. Of the 1,094 NSAs mapped, over 60 per cent were in urban centres. NSAs focused on livelihood promotion, and welfare, social and advocacy services. Their main beneficiaries were households affected during drought, Orphans and vulnerable children, people living with HIV and AIDS, the elderly, people with disabilities and commercial sex workers. Up to 45 per cent of the beneficiaries received

Services from four or more NSAs: Formal NSAs were categorized based on their funding sources. Most—but almost no informal NSAs—interacted with state institutions, which they considered beneficial for their performance. Few NSAs engaged in policy or rights advocacy.

NSAs were responsive to gender considerations, with women accounting for slightly more than half of their beneficiaries. Gender balance in NSA staffing was poor, especially among managers. The Ethiopian Government can strengthen NSAs capacity to deliver services by providing them with a conducive operating environment, engaging them in policy development, building their technical capacity and facilitating their networking and engagement for learning and information sharing.

3.6. The current importance non-state actors NSA in Ethiopia

3.6.1. State and Non-state Actors

Before entering into state and non-state relations in detail, it is better to start with defining each concept and delineating our scope in advance. Though there are different perspectives toward the definition of ‘state’, a notion presenting the state as a defined territory, with a permanent population, and having government able to enter into relations with other states is common. Without contesting the above defining elements of state, for this research purpose we want to view the state from a state–society interaction perspective, defining the state as being built and maintained through collective action of the public. In this perspective, the state and society —are interdependent and interpenetrated in a multitude of different ways (Das, 2000). State are viewed more than just structure rather as a process of interaction between state and society. So, in this paper we take the state as a collection of public institutions which represent all segments of the public formed by its interaction with other societal actors (Chabal and Daloz, 1999). As one big entity, the state is a collection of different institutions that are found at different levels that represent different interests and positions, and that can be categorized based on hierarchy. In Ethiopia state actors are differentiated as federal, regional and local level.

The vertical and horizontal interactions among these actors are well regulated by the federal constitution and regional constitutions. The term non-state actors is a broad concept that encompasses diverse actors; from individual actors, to interest groups to well-structured organizations. We all grasp the basic idea that non-state actors are the collection of all actors outside of the state, including private for profit and non-profit organization. Following (Smits & Wright, 2012), we can define non-state actors as the collection of all actors in the public domain outside of the state as defined above, including for example religious and faith-based

organizations; tribal, traditional and other structures and networks of authority; workers' organizations; women's and youth networks; media; academia; local community-based groups; and even influential individuals. We start with the assumption that state institutions in Ethiopia work together with different non-state actors to health service delivery (Hiwot Amare and Prof. Trui Steen 2017)

3.6.2. State and Non-state Actors Relation: Theoretical Framework

Why and how the state controls other non-state actors is a common starting point in the literature on state and non-state relations. Non-state actors are a collection of different types of actors, so conclusions that are one-sided or that focus on one aspect of the actor are flawed. Therefore, we follow the idea presented by (Xiaoguang & Heng, 2017) that state can exert different control strategies over different types of non-state actors. We classify non-state actors into three groups; NGOs including charities (organizations with charitable purposes) and societies (associations mainly promoting the interests of their members). Private for profit including business organizations, business and commercial associations. Citizens and informal community groups. Since we start with the idea that the relation is swinging between control and autonomy, we focus on an approach that brings these two concepts into focus. We first start by asking question, why does the state wants to control non-state actors? Then we review different literature and distinguish various control strategies the state applies to control non-state actors.

Finally, we end by discussing strategies used by non-state actors to secure their autonomy.

3.6.3. Why state wants to control non-state actors?

The presence of non-state actors in the development landscape will immediately attract the attention of state actors especially those who are placed in leading places at different level of the state structure. In many developing countries the presence of non-state actors brings its own dilemma for the state whether to encourage or discourage non-state actor's institutional initiative towards development (Bratton, 1989). Among various reasons, competition for the leading role in development could be the first reason.

7. Conclusion

Formal NSAs were concentrated in urban areas where vulnerability levels were high and infrastructure and social amenities were good. CBOs were important in urban and rural areas.

Broadly speaking, NGOs had national and regional scope, while informal NSAs operate at the village level. NSAs are perceived to address the needs of vulnerable groups.

The NGOs in our case have strong relations with local state institutions and agents. These local institutions include the woreda /district health office, the woreda/district administrative council and the woreda economic and development office. Based on our data we are able to see that the NGOs are keener to form strong links at local level rather than at the federal level. This is mainly because at local level, they work closely with state representatives and can show their work. This in turn helps for both to develop trust toward to each other which is hard to find at federal level.

With regard to the policy environment and legal framework, we found a complex reality: while state is arguing for partnership and working together in many of the policy documents and strategies; it put a legal framework that has suppressive articles. In many instances, the 2009 charities and societies proclamation related to states tendency to suppress the voluntary sector or exclude them from the political field. This creates a realm of uncertainty in which non- state actors operate with less autonomy. This could also be traced to the inclusion of a DDS ideology into the state system, in a response to the abandonment of neo-liberal values in the country. As the formally organized non-state actors grows and share responsibility in the development endeavor of the country, the state starts to tighten control. There is an attempt by state institutions to officially regulate organizations participating in basic service delivery especially NGOs and civic associations using different strategies. While placing well organized monitoring procedure that can capture the function, location and identity of organizations, the state also tried to bring the activities of non –state actors‘ in line with the state priority and needs.

A mix of strategies is also used in relation to fund raising and management to discourage those participating in sensitive areas. In order to avoid state’s tight control and follow up, it seems that non-sate actors, especially those formally organized one choose to get more close with state institutions at local level or maintaining low non- profile. Although we do not make full analysis on all non-state actors looking at different cases, based on our current interview and document analysis it is clearer that the government is more vigilant towards NGOs and civic association working in health service delivery. In a nutshell, this is related with the fact that state consider their previous activities in human rights and other political issues as an attempt to mobilize society against the government.

References

- Abagodu, R. Bantirgu, A and Ceritellids, W. E, (2008). _Updated mapping study on non-state actors sector in Ethiopia (final report)_. Addis Ababa: European Commission Civil Society Fund in Ethiopia.
- Aggarwal, V., and J. Chow. 2010. —The Perils of Consensus: How ASEAN's Meta-Regime Undermines Economic and Environmental Cooperation. | Review of International Political Economy 17 (2): 262–290.
- Akalewold Bantirgu, Dessalegn Rahmato and Yoseph Endeshaw,(2008). CSOs/NGOs IN ETHIOPIA Partners in Development and Good Governance in Addis Ababa
- Amdissa, T., Adanech, D., Kasa, T., & Terefe Zeleke (2015). *Non-State Social Protection in Ethiopia: Characteristics, Governance and Policy relevance*. Partnership for African Social and Governance Research Working Paper No. 003, Nairobi, Kenya
- Amdissa.T, Adanecch.D, and Terefe. Z, (2015) non-state social protection in Ethiopia: characteristics, governance and policy relevance.
- AU (2008). Policy framework on security sector reform, Addis Ababa.
- Bahru Zewde, (2002). Systems of Local Governance among the Gurage: The *Yajoka Qicha* and the *Gordana Sera*.
- Bahru Zewde and Siegfried Pausewang (Eds.), *Ethiopia:the Challenge of Democracy from Below* Stockholm: Nordiska Afrikainstitutet and Forum for in Social Studies
- Cerritelli, W. E., Bantirgu, A. and Abagodu, R. (2008) _Updated mapping study on non-state actors sector in Ethiopia (final report)_. Addis Ababa: European Commission Civil Society Fund in Ethiopia.
- Claude Bruderlein, (200). The role of non-state actors in building human security The case of armed groups in intra-state wars.
- Claudw B.(2000). The role of non-state actors in building human security, Geneva.
- Davies, M. 2013. —ASEAN and Human Rights Norms: Constructivism, Rational Choice and the Action-Identity Gap. | International Relations of the Asia-Pacific 13 (2): 207–231.
- Donata Gnisci , Julia wanjiru and Karim Hussein, (2004). Security and human security: an overview of concepts and initiatives.SAH/D (2004)547 Or. Eng.
- ECO T. (2007) updated mapping study of non-stat e actor in Ethiopia, Addis Ababa
- Elijah .D.M.(2016). Role of non-state actor (political movements, militias, civil sociaties), global journals INC. (USA).
- Elliott, L. 2012. —ASEAN and Environmental Governance: Strategies of Regionalism in Southeast Asia. | Global Environmental Politics 12 (3): 38–57.
- Erwin van veen)2016) . Ethiopia's political settlement and the organization of security, The Netherlands.

Feldman Philip (1993), the psychology of crime, Cambridge University press.

Gibbons C.D (1992); societies, crime and criminal behavior 6th edition, New Tersey prentice Holl, Inc.

Helen E.S, Nesadurai and shaun, (2017/8). Who Governs and How? Non-State Actors and Transnational Governance in Southeast Asia.

Hiwot .A Prof.Trui Steen (2017). State and Non-State Actors' Relation for Health Service Delivery in Ethiopia Pubic Governance Institute, Belgium.

Holzmann, R. and Koettl, J. (2010) *Portability of pension, health, and other social benefits: facts, concepts, issues*. Washington D.C.: World Bank

James T. (2014). The role of regions non stat-actors, Azim premji university.

Kasper Hoffmann and Louise Wiuff Moe, (2013).protection and (IN) security beyond the state.

Ken. M (20167) Non-State Security Providers and Political Formation in Somalia

Maria. D, (2012). Improving security and justice through local/non-state actors

Micheal.L(2012). Non-state actor security sector reform strategy,

Mkandawire, T. (2006) _Incorporating social policy into the development agenda in Africa', *News from the Nordic Africa Institute*

Neil A.Englehart ,(2016/18).non state armed groups as treaty a global security: what is threat, whose security? Bowling green state university.

Nesadurai, H. 2014. —Civil Society and Land Conflicts in Southeast Asia: Navigating between National, Regional and Transnational Governance. In Civil Society and World Regions: How Citizens are Reshaping World Regions in Times of Crisis, edited by L. Fioramonti, 107–121. Lanham: Lexington Books.

Nigusie, A. (1964). *Yeselam Zeb: From Sebtahi upto Emperor Haile Selassie, An Ancient History of Police (Amharic version)*. Addis Ababa: Emperor Haile Selassie Birehanin Selam Printing house.

OECD-DAC. (2007). *Principles for good international engagement in fragile states and situations*. London: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Development Assistance Committee.

Philip A. (1996).non state actors and human right, New York university school of law ,Social Studies.

Rahmato, D. Bantirgu, A. Endeshaw, Y. (2008) CSOs/NGOs in Ethiopia: Partners in Development and Good Governance.

Rosan .S,Deborah.W,(2012) Engagement with non-stat actors in fraile states narrowing definition, broadening scope , The Clingendael Institute The Hague.

Rosan smits and Deborah Wright (2012). Engagement with Non-State Actors in Fragile States:

Scheye, Eric (2009a). —Pragmatic Realism in Justice and Security Development: Supporting Improvement in the Performance of Non-State/Local Justice and Security Networks. In Conflict Research Unit Occasional Paper. July. The Hague: Netherlands Institute of International Relations Clingendael.

Sian Herbert(2015). Policy approaches and leasons from working with non -state actors in security and justice in UK.

United nation, (2003). Human security in theory and practice, in united nations trust fund for human security human security unit united nations.

Varkkey, H. 2016. The Haze Problem in Southeast Asia: Palm Oil and Patronage. London: Routledge.

White, G. (1998). Building a democratic developmental state: Social democracy in the developing world. *Democratization*, 5(3), 1–32.

White, G. (2006). Towards a democratic developmental state. *IDS Bulletin*, 37(4), 1–12.

Wondwosen. T,(2015).The Traditional Conflict Resolution of Sebat Bet Gurage: The Case of Chaha Gurage in Addis Ababa university.

Workneh G.W (2016). an analysis of the influence of politics on policing in ethiopia, university of south africa.

Yewondwosen Awlachew. 1998. E.C [2006 A.D] [sebat bet gurage bahlawi astedader Thesis, Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University.

Yukako sakabe tanaka, (2018).Alocal Response to Peacebuilding Efforts in Timor-Leste, in jica research institution.