

NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

COURSE CODE: PCR362

COURSE TITLE: Urban Violence and Security



PCR362 URBAN VIOLENCE AND SECURITY

Course Team Adedoyin Adedayo (Developer/Writer) - UI

Faleti, S. Ademola (Editor) - UI

Durojaye O. Babatunde (Coordinator) - NOUN



National Open University of Nigeria Headquarters 145/16 Ahmadu Bello Way Victoria Island Lagos

Abuja Office No. 5 Dar es Salaam Street Off Aminu Kano Crescent Wuse II, Abuja Nigeria

e-mail:centralinfo@nou.edu.ng URL:www.nou.edu.ng

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Introduction

PCR362: URBAN VIOLENCE AND SECURITY

This course is a three-credit unit course for undergraduate students in Peace and Conflict Management. The materials have been developed within the context of conflict management. This course guide gives you an overview of the study. It also provides you with information on the organisation and requirements of the course.

Course Aim

The general aim of this course is for you to understand the impacts of urban violence, its effects and the roles that need to be played by the conflict manager and the entire society in ensuring peace in urban areas. In view of this, the aim of this course will be achieved by:

- (i) introducing you to urbanisation, Urban violence, its basic attributes, features and the management,
- (ii) demonstrating how insecurity can be eradicated or reduced to the barest minimum; and
- (iii) acquainting you with the concepts and principles guiding your studies as a would be conflict manager.

Course Objectives

To achieve the aim set out above, PCR 362 has overall objectives. (In addition, each unit also has specific objectives. The unit objectives are at the beginning of each unit. We advise that you read them before you start working through the unit. You may want to refer to them during your study of the unit in order to check the progress made by you).

Here are the wider objectives for this course as a whole. Meeting these objectives will help you to count yourself as a luckiest person that met the aim of this course. On successful completion of the course, you should be able to:

- 1. define what urbanisation, urban violence, conflict, violence and security is
- 2. state types of urbanisation, urban violence, conflict, violence and security
- 3. list the attributes and features of urban violence
- 4. determine why the rural areas need to be developed
- 5. state the risk of over-urbanised regions
- 6. state and explain the different effects of urbanisation
- 7. predict the consequences of rural migration to urban areas

8. identify the attributes and features of violence or urban violence

- 9. differentiate between conflict and violence
- 10. determine the benefits of urbanisation
- 11. explain youth urban violence and its impact
- 12. discuss the impact of violence on human security
- 13. state the importance of security
- 14. explain human need for security
- 15. state and explain urban violence management mechanisms or strategies
- 16. determine conflict management strategies and insecurity.

Working Through This Course

To complete this course, you are required to read all the units and other related materials. You will also need to undertake practical exercises for which you need a pen, a note-book, and other materials that will be listed in this course guide. The exercises are to aid you in understanding the concepts being presented. At the end of each unit, you will be required to submit written assignments for assessment purposes. Also this course will require that you write a final examination. All these criteria will determine your scores and grades in this course.

Course Materials

The major materials you will need for this course are:

- (i) The course guide;
- (ii) Study units;
- (iii) The assignment file;
- (iv) Relevant textbooks including the ones listed at the end of each unit;
- (v) (you may also need to listen to)programmes and news on the radio and television; and
- (vi) newspapers and other mass media.

Study Units

There are 21 units (of four modules) in this course. They are listed below:

Unit 1 Meaning/Definition of Urbanisation Unit 2 Causes and Effects of Urbanisation Unit 3 Benefits and Challenges of Urbanisation Unit 4 Urban Transportation System Unit 5 Urban Centres and Planning

Module 2	Conflict and Its Attributes	
Unit 1	Meaning/Definition of Conflict	
Unit 2	Understanding Conflict	
Unit 3	Domestic and School Violent Conflict	
Unit 4	Violent Conflict and Security	
Unit 5	Conflict Management Strategies	
Module 3	Violence and Urban Violence	
Unit 1	Meaning/Definition of Violence	
Unit 2	Meaning/Definition of Urban Violence	
Unit 3	Causes of Urban Violence	
Unit 4	Youths and Urban Violence	
Unit 5	Management of Urban Violence	
Module 4	Security and Human Security	
Unit 1	Meaning/Definition of Security	
Unit 2	Importance of Security	
Unit 3	Insecurity and Conflict Emergence	
Unit 4	Cooperative Security Efforts	
Unit 5	Management of Insecurity	

Textbooks and References

Certain books have been recommended in the course. You may wish to purchase them for further reading.

The Assessment File

An assessment file and a marking scheme will be made available to you. In the assessment file, you will find details of the work you must submit to your tutor for marking. There are two aspects of the assessment of this course; the tutor- marked assignment and the written examination. The marks you obtain in these two areas will make up your final marks. The assignment must be submitted to your tutor for formal assessment in accordance with the deadline stated in the presentation schedule and the assignment file. The work you submit to your tutor for assessment will count for 30% of your total score.

Tutor-Marked Assignment (TMAS)

You will have to submit a specified number of the (TMAs). Every unit in this course has a tutor- marked assignment. You will be assessed on four of them but the best three performances from the (TMAs) will be

used for your 30% grading. When you have completed each assignment, send it together with a tutor marked assignment form, to your tutor. Make sure each assignment reaches your tutor on or before the deadline for submission. If for any reason, you cannot complete your work on time, contact your tutor for a discussion on the possibility of an extension. Extensions will not be granted after the due date unless under exceptional circumstances.

Final Examination and Grading

The final examination will be a test of three hours. All areas of the course will be examined. Find time to read the units all over before your examination. The final examination will attract 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of questions, which reflect the kinds of self assessment exercises and tutor marked assignment you have previously encountered. You should use the time between completing the last unit, and taking the examination to revise the entire course.

Course Marking Scheme

The following table lays out how the actual course mark allocation is broken down.

Assessment	Marks
Assignments (best three assignments out of four	= 30%
marked)	
Final Examination	= 70%
Total	100%

Presentation Schedule

The dates for submission of all assignments will be communicated to you. You will also be told the date for completing the study units and dates for examinations.

Course Overview

Unit	Title of Work	Weeks	Assignments'
		Activity	Numbers
	Course Guide		
	Module 1 Urbanisation and Urba	1	
1	Meaning/Definition of Urbanisation	Week 1	Assignment 4
2	Causes and Effects of Urbanisation	Week 2	Assignment 2
3	Benefits and Challenges of Urbanisation	Week 2	Assignment 3
4	Urban Transportational System	Week 3	Assignment 1
5	Urban Centre and Planning	Week 3	Assignment 1
Module 2 Conflict and Its Attributes			
1	Meaning/Definition of Conflict	Week 4	Assignment 2
2	Understanding Conflict	Week 5	Assignment 3
3	Domestic and School Violent Conflict	Week 6	Assignment 2
4	Violent Conflict and Security	Week 6	Assignment 2
5	Conflict Management Strategies	Week 7	Assignment 2
	Module 3 Violence and Urban Vi	iolence	
1	Meaning/Definition of Violence	Week 7	Assignment 2
2	Meaning/Definition of Urban Violence	Week 8	Assignment 3
3	Causes of Urban Violence	Week 8	Assignment 2
4	Youths and Urban Violence	Week 9	Assignment 1
5	Management of Urban Violence	Week 9	Assignment 1
	Module 4 Security and Human Security		
1	Meaning/Definition of Security	Week 10	Assignment 2
2	Importance of Security	Week 10	Assignment 2
3	Insecurity and Conflict Emergence	Week 11	Assignment 3
4	Cooperative Security Efforts	Week 11	Assignment 1
5	Management of Insecurity	Week 12	Assignment 2
	Revision	1	
	Examination	1	
	Total	17	

How to Get the Best from This Course

In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecture. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace, and at a time and place that suit you best. Think of it as reading the lecture instead of listening to the lecturer. In the same way a lecturer might give you some reading, the study units tell you where to read, and which are

your text materials or set books. You are provided exercises to do at appropriate points, just as a lecturer might give you an in-class exercise. Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit, and how a particular unit is integrated with the other units and the course as a whole. Next to this is a set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should be able to do by the time you have completed the units. These learning objectives are meant to guide your study. The moment a unit is finished, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If you make this a habit you will significantly improve your chances of passing this course. The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. It will usually be from your set books or from a reading section. The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, telephone your tutor. Remember that your tutor's job is to help you.

When you need assistance, do not hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide it.

- 1. Read this course guide thoroughly, it is your first assignment.
- 2. Organise a study schedule. Design a 'course overview' to guide you through this course. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decided on and write in your own dates and schedule of work for each unit.
- 3. Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything to stay faithful to it. The more reason students fail is that they lag behind with their course work; if you get into difficulties with your schedule, please, let your tutor know before it is too late for him\her to help you.
- 4. Turn to Unit 1, and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit.
- 5. Assemble the study materials. You will need your set books and the unit you are studying at any point in time. As you work through the unit, you will know what sources to consult for further information.
- 6. Keep in touch with your study centre. Up-to-date course information will be continuously available there.
- 7. Keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignments carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and, therefore, will help you pass the examination. Submit all assignments not later than the due date.
- 8. Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study materials or consult your tutor.

- 9. When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to pace your study so that you keep yourself on schedule.
- 10. When you have submitted an assignment to your tutor for marking, do not wait for its return before starting on the next unit. Keep to your schedule. When the assignment is returned, pay particular attention to your tutor's comments, both on the tutormarked assignment form and the written comments on the ordinary assignments.
- 11. After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in the course guide).

Facilitators/Tutors and Tutorials

Information relating to the tutorials will be provided at the appropriate time. Your tutor will mark and comment on your assignments, keep a close watch on your progress and on any difficulties you might encounter and provide assistance to you during the course. You must take your tutor-marked assignments to the study centre well before the due date (at least two working days are required). They will be marked by your tutor and returned to you as soon as possible.

Do not hesitate to contact your tutor if you need help. Contact your tutor if:

- 17. you do not understand any part of the study units or the assigned readings
- 18. you have difficulty with the exercises
- 19. you have a question or problem with an assignment or with your tutor's comments on an assignment or with the grading of an assignment

You should try your best to attend the tutorials. This is the only chance to have face-to-face contact with your tutor and ask questions which are answered instantly. You can raise any problem encountered in the course of your study. To gain the maximum benefit from course tutorials, prepare a question list before attending them. You will learn a lot from participating in discussions actively.

Summary

The course guide gives you an overview of what to expect in the course of this study. The course teaches you the basic principles of Urbanisation, Urban violence, Conflict, Security, Insecurity, Its

management and how these principles can be applied. It also acquaints you with the legal and ethical rules guiding your job as a conflict manager. We wish you success in this course and hope that you will find it interesting and useful.

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MODULE 1 URBANISATION AND URBAN PROBLEMS

Unit 1	Meaning/Definition of Urbanisation
Unit 2	Causes and Effects of Urbanisation
Unit 3	Benefits and Challenges of Urbanisation
Unit 4	Urban Transportation System
Unit 5	Urban Centres and Planning

UNIT 1 MEANING/DEFINITION OF URBANISATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning/Definition of Urbanisation
 - 3.2 Discussion
 - 3.3 Urban Settlement Patterns
 - 3.4 Types of Urbanisation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Urbanisation as a field of study is an interesting phenomenon that defies a criterion in definition. It can be viewed in two different perspectives, either geographically or sociologically. According to a report of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA; 1968: 1-6) "Urbanisation or urban centre has no common criteria in definition, especially in Africa". Therefore, in the course of this unit, various definitions and discussions will be examined. The intention here is to explore those definitions for the enlightenment of our students, broaden their views and develop their horizon on this subject matter.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define urbanisation
- state the features and attributes of an urban centre
- state the changes that an urban centre undergoes

- predict the challenges and consequences of rural to urban migration
- state and explain factors that lead to people's migration from rural areas to urban centres
- identify types of urbanisation and their importance
- state the benefits of each type and its effects.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Definition of Urbanisation

The variation in nature of cities or urban centres, demographically speaking makes it difficult to lay down any common criteria for the definition of an urban centre. The United Nations' definition states thus: "An urban centre is a city that has 20,000 or more in population. The urban centre is largely characterised by non-agrarian economic activities".

Kenneth (1974:4) defines urbanisation as "...a process of population concentration in which the ratio of urban people to the total population in a territory increases". However, this definition views cities as independent of the process of urban growths, therefore an increase in both population size and urban concentration may occur without an increase in urban territory.

Reiss (1964:739) wisely stated that a *large* proportion of the inhabitants come from the rural areas to live in cities and make urbanisation occur. Thus, the social life of cities is strictly determined by their demographic influence.

Wirth (1938) defines urbanisation as "...the cumulative accentuation of characteristics distinctive of the mode of life associated with the growth of cities".

In view of all these definitions above, our working definition of urbanisation for this course is "The movement of people from rural to urban areas, which results to growths of the cities or urban centres at the expense of the rural population and development". That is why it is commonly referred to as living in the towns or cities rather than living in the rural areas or settlements. The urban centre is a sector or developed environment that is geographically or sociologically defined in terms of structures, economic, political, socio-cultural system and total development.

Urbanisation is a process that occurs in nearly every part of man's endeavour. Therefore, the fact still remains that in as much that there is a

disparity and segregation in development between the rural and urban centres, the movement from rural areas to cities will correspondently change the demographic and behavioral patterns of the world's societies. This is due to the rates and methods at which rural workers decided to migrate to the cities and the ways in which modern society has organised itself in urban areas. It therefore makes segregation and intensification of poverty and affluence continue to be on the increase. The resultant effect of this increase will be the degradation of the socio-economic factors that support the total population.

3.2 Discussion

Urbanisation is distinguished in two ways; physically and socially. The physical nature or appearance of urbanisation implies where people live, and the social aspect depicts the appropriate socio-cultural systems and the amenities that characterise urban centres. The desire for improved conditions of life, economic growths, employment opportunities, better housing and other requirements of an improved standard of living believed to be available in cities leads to rural-urban drift and consequently urban population concentration.

Therefore, the pace of urbanisation in the countries of the world and its implications are usually higher in the developing countries than the developed countries. Urban centres always consist of heterogeneities, which can easily reflect their ethnic cleavage, occupational endowment and social cultural differentials.

Urbanisation is a process and a way of life that tremendously strains its infrastructural facilities through high population density. Although it affects the ways of life in urban centres, its effects are not necessarily on urban centres alone. The rural areas are not left out; migration from rural areas to urban centres changes the people's lives, status, attitudes and aspirations.

Comparative Analysis of Urbanisation between the Developing and Developed Countries

A tremendous rise in urban population in the developing countries has often been the major source of both social and economic problems. Close to half of the world's population lives in urban centres, especially in the developed countries. Since the 1960s, the number of city dwellers worldwide rose in billions and in the next two decades, it is expected to rise more than ever before. Most of the cities are increasing in population day by day without improving or increasing their carrying capacities and social amenities.

Urban growth rate varies considerably among countries, and the rates of population growth can be ranged in different geometric forms. For example, most of the developed countries of the world's cities are now less in population than that of the developing countries, because of the good planning and development of their rural communities or villages. They are catered for in terms of the amenities and their economic needs. This reduces rural movement to urban centres or cities. The rapid growth rate of urban centres first occurred in the nineteenth century, especially during the Industrial Revolution. The growth of the less developed parts of the world's urban centres did not reach significant levels, until after the Second World War. Consequently, relatively small fractions of the developing countries' population increased, because of their corresponding larger share of the world's population.

However, developing countries today have a larger urban population than the developed countries. Almost all the developing countries that have been concerned with the size and growth of the urban populations believe that rural to urban migration has been the prominent factor or major contributing factor to urban growth. Although, higher population growth is a serious problem in most developing countries, rural to urban migration puts even greater strain on cities than in the developed countries. Therefore, from the African perspective, most of the African urban populations are both unstable and are continuously increasing through migration. That is why the 1960 census of Ghana defined localities having more than 5,000 residents as urban centres. In Nigeria, the assuming estimated index of western Nigeria population falls between that of the United States of America and Canada (Kenneth; 1974: 4).

In Central African Republic, urban centres consist of administrative posts and villages that are five miles from these posts. Ugandan cities consist of all towns and small trading centres. In Senegal, the cities include Saint Louis, Thies, Kaolack, Dior bol, Longa and Ziguinchor (Albert and *et al*; 1994: 11).

Note: The following elements are very significant in the definition and discussion of urbanisation.

- (a) A critical examination of the components of urban centres
- (b) Proportional rate at which urbanisation emerges, its growths and development
- (c) Differentials and disparity between urban centre and rural settlement life patterns
- (d) Proximity of rural settlements to urban centres, in terms of their socio-economic needs and development
- (e) Comparative analysis of urban centre growth rates among the developing and developed countries of the world.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

- 1. What is urbanisation?
- 2. Discuss urban growth rates among the developed and developing countries.

3.3 Urban Settlement Patterns

Urban settlement patterns consist of three basic shapes, which are compact (nucleated), linear and crosscut patterns. These patterns help in distinguishing one urban centre arrangement structure from others.

The Compact (Nucleated) Pattern: It is an urban settlement arrangement where the urban structural pattern is rounded or squared in shape, and its structural components are clustered or close together with definite motorable roads and many footpaths. The motor roads and footpaths in an urban centre are commonly linked with different structural components or compositions, but every urban centre has its definite boundaries. The compact or nucleated settlement pattern (in places like Ibadan, Lagos and Kano in Nigeria for example,) generates urban slums that usually snowball to insecurity, poverty, unemployment, criminality, over- population, poor waste management etc, which are inimical to urban vibrancy. Sometimes, the locations and functions of urban centres determine their compact or nucleated nature. For example, areas with good deposits of mineral resources usually have several transport routes built around them, and they are also commercial centres. Also some places are nucleated because they function as tourism and industrial centres.

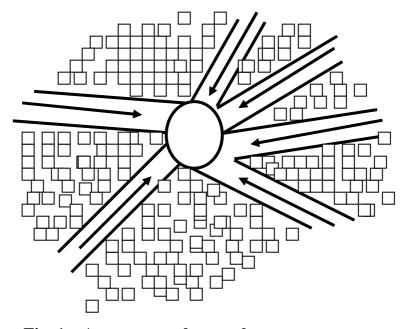


Fig. 1 A compact urban settlement pattern

The Linear Settlement Pattern: This is an urban settlement arrangement where the structural components or compositions are arranged in linear formats, either in straight or curved forms. It may follow a straight line of movement like roads, rivers and relief features. It could also be a coastal region or area situated on a ridge or waterside. A linear urban settlement pattern can hardly be found following the railway line system except where it is nearer to the urban centre's railway stations.

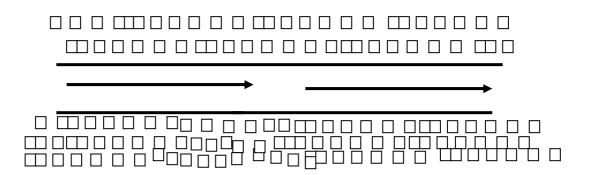


Fig. 2 A linear urban settlement pattern

The Cross-cut Pattern: This is neither compact nor linear in nature, but consists of both settlement patterns. Its structural compositions or components are interlocked and cross-cut along the roads or water ways. It is an urban centre or a region where two or more road line movements are cross-cut by another. It could also be a landlocked urban area at times.

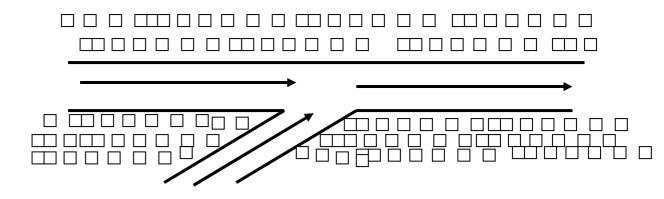


Fig. 3 A cross-cut urban settlement pattern

A Cross-cut Settlement Parttern

An urban settlement pattern in terms of size may be a town, city, conurbation or megalopolis. The towns are usually made up of thousands to millions of people, with various levels of population density. In Nigeria for example, an urban settlement is a region that has over 10,000 people as its populace. Settlements that are regarded as cities comprise two or more towns, which are also known as megatowns, or large towns. Conurbation consist of more cities, which can also be called megacities. The megalopolis comprises more conurbations that are joined together, examples are Tokyo in Japan, Cairo in Egypt and Ibadan in Nigeria.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Discuss the three urban settlement patterns.

3.4 Types of Urbanisation

Urban centres are towns, cities or a conurbation of both. Etymologically, the urban centre was first developed in the river lowlands of the Tigris, Euphrates, Indus and other sub-tropical rivers, and also in the Hwang Ho valley in China (Burnnett; 1973: 342). These towns or cities grew up because of the security and trade. The areas were productive enough to free some people for commerce and administration. Since then, towns or cities are often centres for administration, banking, commerce and education. A city is intimately connected with the area surrounding it. To be specific, urban centres are the product of man's activities, places which later metamorphose to cities or conurbations. Urban centres can be classified into several ways; the three most useful features are in terms of location, function and size (hierarchy). They are: administrative, commercial/economic, historical/cultural and industrial.

Having defined urbanisation and discussed its features in the first section of this course, the following types of urbanisation will be discussed in this unit.

- Administrative urban centre
- Commerce/economic urban centre
- Historical/cultural urban centre
- Industrial urban centre
- Institutional/educational urban centre

The Administrative Urban Centre: This could be the administrative headquarters of any state or nation; the seat of power, which is also called the capital city. Rural dwellers migrate to the administrative

centre in order to secure white-collar jobs and to explore any new available opportunities that are unavailable in the rural areas. It is mostly common in the developing countries today, due to rural neglect, in terms of the provision of amenities. Examples of administrative centres are: Abuja (Nigeria), Tokyo (Japan), Moscow (Russia), London (Britain), New York (USA) etc.

The Commercial/Economic Urban Centre: This kind of city occupies a central position in a well settled location and becomes a route centre at which the region sends its local produce for sale. Often, it is situated between two regions with different products to exchange at the route centre. It is usually a well-populated region, due to rural-urban migration brought about by people's desire to benefit from the economic transactions of that centre. Such a centre is also endowed with financial institutions that can help in facilitating business transactions. Examples are Kano and Lagos (Nigeria), Kumasi (Ghana), Alexandra (Egypt), Norwich (the United Kingdom) and Seremban (Malaysia). It can also be a direct foreign investments location, which attracts economic agglomeration. The movement to this kind of centre may be due to a large number of market input, outputs and labours.

The Historical/Cultural Urban Centre: This historical urban centre attracts more people. Such could be a place which used to be a secured region in the past, but now endowed with more dense population, or a culturally endowed urban centre that attracts tourists. Sometimes it serves as a religious centre like Jerusalem (Israel), Mecca (Saudi, Arabia), Benanes (India), Canterbury (the United Kingdom), Lourdes (France), Abeokuta, Ibadan, Idanre, Ile-Ife, Oyo, Sokoto and Enugu (Nigeria). Most often, such urban centre types are very old and usually visited by pilgrims.

The Industrial Urban Centre: This kind of urban centre is often endowed with manufacturing companies, either for the processing of raw materials or the production of finished goods. In addition, since the division of labour and specialisation mechanisms ensure the industrial growths and diversity that require more workers, both skilled and unskilled, the rural dwellers migrate to the industrial urban centre. The limited carrying capacity of an urban centre to absorb the surplus of rural migrants then creates problems. More importantly, the possibility of self-employment and the presence of private businesses also contribute to the rural -urban drift. The possible means of communication in the urban centre also contributes to rural-urban migration. Migrants are attracted to a city more for its overall economic potential than its salaries. Examples are Manchester and Leeds--- textile manufacture (the United Kingdom), Pittsburg (USA), Wuppertal and Duisburg (Germany), Lagos and Port Harcourt (Nigeria).

The Institutional/Educational Urban Centre: This kind is often associated with educational activities, where the massive rise of populations is as a result of academic pursuit. It is a region that has much concentration of schools, higher institutions and other higher learning centres. Examples are Ibadan (Nigeria), Oxford and Cambridge (the United Kingdom). It is the city where ideas and knowledge are transmitted or imbibed for development. It is the think tank or bedrock of any society.

The Religious Urban Centre: There is no doubt that the more a soceity is civilised and modern, the more its secularity and irreligiosity. But the case of the urban religious centre is different; most of the world's religions like Christianity, Islam, Judaism, Buddhism, etc., flourish much more in the urban centres than they do in the rural areas. The link between urbanism and religioisity cannot be underestimated due to its originality, historical and dialectical emergece. Religions in many societies determined the choice and evolution of such urban settlements for centuries, and most of these cities are famous shrines and spritual centres that are designated and used for protection, instrument of political control, worship and other religious activities. Thus, for over a millennium, urbanisation has been the principal source and agency for the spreading of religions, particularly Christianity and Islam. For example, Islam took its root from towns and cities of Saudi Arabia, spread acorss the Red Sea to Trans-Saharan trade routes in central and western Africa, and later spread across the Africa continent. Religious hegemony can be seen in the character of many urban settlements such as peculiar Islamic architectural structures and the way in which some settlements are segregated into various quarters. The Islamic brootherhood among urban ruling classes, merchants and town dewellers encourages urbanisation.

On Christainity's part, the concentration of churches in urban centres also entrenches urbanisation especially in recent times; the building of church revival camp settlements has strengthened this trend. According to Adewale (1979), the missionaries' own pattern of evangelism was made up of a certain sociological dimension that was elite. They reached the common people through the important people in the social groups. They confined their evagelistic activities to the urban and industrial areas of the country by focusing on the elite, who could understand the language, theology and philosophy of their mission. They evangelised the highly intellectual in the urban centres, believing that the intellectuals would show more understanding and react more positively and morally than the rural dwellers, who could be aggressive, and very difficult to deal with.

The concentration of the missionaries' work encourages good health facilities, good communication and personal security, which give rise to the emergence of large urban centres. Religious urbanism leads to massive concentrations of people. Beyond this, there are issues of urbanism that encourage social, ethnic and linguistic attributes, and these usually turn such urban centres to a rendezvous and source of divergent ideas and beliefs. Religious urban centres have developed in several parts of the world, and many are visited by pilgrims on specific ocassions. Such religious urban centres are Jerusalem (Israel), Mecca (Saudi Arabia), Bengres (India), Canterbury (United kingdom), Lourdes (France), Lhasa (Tibet), etc.

Resettlement and Satellite Towns: These are new towns that are deliberatelly built either as new manufacturing centres to relieve the congestion of the old urban centres or as places to re-house people who work in overcrowded urban centres. A resettlement town can also be a relocation of the state's capital, due to congestion. There are numerous examples of such towns in the industrial countires and less in developed countries. Examples are Crawley (United Kingdom), Festac Town (Lagos, Nigeria), Abuja (Nigeria) Ajoda New Town (Ibadan, Nigeria), etc. Satatellite urban centres are usually created, due to the congestion and overpopulated nature of urban centres.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

List and explain the types of urbanisation.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have seen that urbanisation involves rural- urban movement, which usually occurs due to socio-economic problems or total neglect of the rural areas. It is common in the developing countries of the world today and this requires a solution. Urbanisation usually snowballs into a tremendous increase in rates of crime in the urban centres concerned. Tremendous human population lived in the rural areas before the industrial revolution of the Nineteenth Century, but since then, the world's populations have become increasingly urbanised. The effects of this phenomenon have been greatly felt in the human society today. Its negative and positive impacts need to be considered, because cities continue to be the main sources of economic growth and opportunities.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have dealt with the meaning of urbanisation by considering different definitions, and better still, viewing it from the narrow lenses of these concepts: rate of growth, and comparative analysis of urban growths

among the developing and developed countries of the world. We have also dealt with types of urbanisation by considering a few factors among other factors that are responsible for rural to the urban migration.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What is urbanisation?
- 2. Why is it that urban population growth rates in the developing countries of the world are higher or greater than they are in the developed countries today?
- 3. List and discuss five types of urbanization.
- 4. Critically examine urbanisation and its types.

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UNIT 2 CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF URBANISATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Causes of Urbanisation
 - 3.2 Effects of Urbanisation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The causes and effects of urbanisation are examined in this unit. We shall look at issues such the lack of adequate facilities, low standards of living, greater job opportunities, economic needs, educational opportunities and other relative amenities. Others are urban slums, land insecurity, unemployment increase in crime rates, accelerated population growths, environmental degradation and urban sprawl.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- determine reasons for rural-urban migration
- identify the factors that attract rural dwellers to urban centres
- state the merits and demerits of rural-urban migration
- state the risk of over-urbanisation
- identify the effects of urbanisation
- explain different effects of urbanisation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Causes of Urbanisation

Various issues that will be examined in this section are the following: lack of adequate facilities, low standards of living, greater job opportunities, economic needs, educational opportunities and other relative amenities. Thus, these prime movers of rural-urban migration constitute social problems like poverty and higher unemployment rates.

Lack of Necessary and Important Facilities in the Rural Areas: No society must ignore this fundamental problem. Rural to urban migration happens on a massive scale, due to much population pressure on the few available resources to in rural areas. This is a fundamental "push" factor to the urban centres from the rural areas. The migrants mostly move from poor or less developed areas to wealthy or well-developed areas for better standards of living.

Low Living Standards: Here, the different level of availability of opportunities makes it difficult for the rural people to improve on their standards of living beyond basic sustenance, and this has served as a prompting factor of their migration to the urban centres. The people living in rural areas are "pulled" to the cities. Often they believe that standards of living in the urban areas will be much better than that of the rural areas.

Greater Job Opportunities: Rural dwellers believe that fortunes abound easily and better job opportunities are ascertained in the urban centres. The populace hopes for better-paid jobs, and greater opportunities that cannot be found in the rural areas. Ironically, evidence shows that rural workers migrate to the cities even when they are unlikely to find jobs. The migrants are attracted to the cities, not all because they are assured of an increase in wages, but they gamble on being absorbed in higher-wage employment. Sometimes if they are unable to be absorbed, they are willing to be unemployed or they accept very low wages in the urban labour market for a period, with the expectation of getting better employment later.

Economic Importance Needs: Rural people move to urban centres to seek for better economic opportunities. In the rural areas families often rely on small farms (subsistence economy), with this it is difficult for them to improve their standards of living beyond basic sustenance. The rural farm life is dependent on unpredictable environmental conditions, and in times drought, flood or pestilence survival becomes extremely problematic. This makes migrants respond primarily to economic incentives in the cities. Urban centres are known to be the places where money and wealth are centralised, and where fortunes are made, and businesses, which generate jobs and capital, are usually located. Whether the source is trade or tourism, it is also through the cities that foreign money flows into a country. Thus, someone living on a farm might wish to take chances of moving to the city in order to make enough money. The differences in average income or wage level between the rural and urban areas significantly affect migration between the two locations. In fact, the disparity between urban centre and rural area wage gaps are known to be more pronounced in the developing countries than in the developed countries. The wages are kept higher in

the cities through union pressure and the strict application of minimum wage laws or by the payment of relatively high wages by government and foreign investors.

Educational Needs: These serve as a horizon developmental mechanism to any society, thus so much important to every society, and even becomes one of the major prime movers of rural-urban migration, especially, for the youths. The migrants are attracted to the city in order to achieve better educational attainments and intellectual skills. The good educational incentives in the city pull many rural people to urban centres.

Other Relative Amenities: Rural migrants are attracted to the cities in order to have access to public services like electricity, clinics, potable water, etc. High mortality rate in the rural areas drives people who desire better healthcare to urban centres.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

Why do many people move from rural areas to urban centres?

3. 2 Effects of Urbanisation

It will be an interesting and rewarding exercise to state and explain the effects of urbanisation. Though it is true that opportunities exist in the cities, the fact remains that competition for these opportunities is fierce. Very few people make their fortunes, while the rest are still trying to find ways of eating, sleeping and surviving. We will now look at the effects of urbanisation.

Slums

Slums are the over populated areas in a region that is generally occupied by poor people, living in sub-standard conditions. The common features of slum areas are land insecurity, poor living conditions, unemployment, increase in crime rate and accelerated population growths.

Land Insecurity

The dwellers in this region are often; they live on the lands that do not officially belong to them. Most often, the government and private individuals usually own the land area. This situation endangers the lives of the squatters and worsens their poverty.

Poor Living Conditions

Most of the houses are made of scrap materials such as wood, mud, sticks, metal sheets, cardboard and other waste materials which are hazardous to human health. This usually occurs due to crowdedness by entire families living in one-room structures with very little space between one structure and the next. Sanitation is often very poor, which contributes to the spread of diseases such as cholera, typhoid fever, tuberculosis, diphtheria and bilharzia. Utilities such as electricity, water and sewage disposal systems are either not available or only available on a very unreliable basis.

Unemployment

Since many people are competing for limited jobs and resources in the cities unemployment becomes a constant problem. Jobless people usually wander round with the aim of securing jobs or are looking for some income generating factors or activities that will yield to better or good living. Mass unemployment becomes a greater problem and even snowballing to higher rates of crime.

Increase in Crime Rates

The maintenance of law and order is extremely difficult to achieve, and patrolling slum areas is somehow problematic to the law enforcement agency. Higher crime rates are rampant and other vices like drug trafficking and drug abuse, weapons and arms proliferation, burglary and prostitution are prominent.

Accelerated Population Growths

This is the main causative factor of urban problems. The over-population of urban centres is caused by many factors. The upsurge of rural migrants to urban centres puts intense pressure on the urban centres. The urban slum areas are mostly overcrowded without better means of livelihood and sustainability. Most often, the carrying capacities of the urban areas are inadequate to meet the needs of people living in that region.

Environmental Degradation

Poor Waste Management

In densely populated areas of urban centres, waste generation and accumulation are always great and pose great threats to the environment.

Waste is indiscriminately deposited and the people are at risk to the adverse health conditions that result from environmental pollution.

Natural Habitat Destruction

The conversion of a natural habitat to an urban area is usually unsavory. More especially, whenever a wetland is paved over, the ecosystems of the region will be definitely lost, and any species depending on that ecosystem will die out in the area. The adverse effects of the destruction of natural habitants are always on the living organisms and non-living organisms living in the environment. Water pollution is one of the major problems. More often than not, water cycle in the urban centres changes dramatically; cities have more precipitation of pollutants than rural areas. The soil in over populated areas does not absorb water easily. Urban industrial waste and sewage disposal that is often untreated or partially treated is another environmental concern.

Urban Sprawl

This has recently been identified as one of the environmental problems in urban centres. It is a situation in which a city is undergoing horizontal growths, spilling out of its previous borders, and experiencing a slow pace in development; the sprawl can eventually extend over a sizable area around the original city. Since Urban sprawl is low in density, it could be easily occupied, and many spaces that might have been previously used for agriculture or natural habitat will be trampled upon.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What are the effects of urbanisation? Mention and discuss them.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The rapid growth of urban regions has been a major problem. The factors discussed and others are the responsible pull or push factors of rural-urban migration. You are expected to collect more information on this..

5.0 SUMMARY

We have dealt with the causes and effects of urbanisation by considering some factors that are responsible for rural-urban migration.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. List and discuss five causes of urbanisation.
- 2. List and explain the plight of over-urbanised regions.
- 3. Critically examine the effects of urbanisation.

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UNIT 3 BENEFITS AND CHALLENGES OF URBANISATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
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 - 3.2 Challenges of Urbanisation
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Urbanisation gives rise to economic development, increase in productivity with the cheapest labour, diversity of knowledge and ideas and attraction of both local and foreign investors. The various important factors that will be examined in this unit are economic advancement, easy transmission of ideas and information, provision of cheap labour, technological advancement and attraction of investment. The challenges of urbanisation and the neglect of rural development will also be examined.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- determine the benefits of urbanisation
- mention the challenges of urbanisation
- determine the advantages and disadvantages of urbanisation
- state the implications of neglecting rural development
- state the risk of over- urbanisation.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Benefits of Urbanisation

Urbanisation gives rise to economic development, increase in productivity with the cheapest labour, diversity of knowledge and ideas and attraction of both local and foreign investors to the urbanised area. The various important factors that will be examined in this unit are economic advancement, transmission of ideas and information, cheap

labour, technological improvement, and attraction of investors or investments. Others are efficiency, convenience and concentration of resources.

Urban growth gives rise to many benefits, if it is properly managed and harnessed. The following elements or factors are significant in this discussion and need to be developed:

- Economic advancement
- Transmission of ideas and information
- Provision of cheap labour
- Technological advancement
- Investors and investment

Economic Advancement: Industries and most economic sectors benefit from urban concentration of suppliers and consumers, and this saves costs on communication and transport. The laws of economics state that the higher the demand for a product; the higher the price and the lower the demand for a product; the lesser the price. Urbanisation benefits the economic system, since the increase in population places a higher demand on the various products. This on its own results in large scale production and a reduction in operational costs. Urban centres offer large markets that provide inputs, outputs and easily obtainable labour. This leads to the increase in human capital accumulation, which provides workers with the opportunity to improve their skills, allow division of labour and specialisation which results in industrial diversity and more productivity.

Transmission of Ideas and Knowledge: The proximity in an urban centre of people to one another allows the learning of new skills at a faster rate than in the rural areas. Urban centres offer opportunities for learning and this leads to increase in human capital. Workers also have the opportunity of building new skills, labour can be divided and the workers can specialise in various areas of their field. This kind of situation promotes the development of new ideas and industrial diversity.

Cheap Labour: Urbanisation allows labour turn over and reduces cost of labour, with the wide availability of labour in the cities. The industries and firms can change their structures with as little disruption as possible. The large labour pools create a better match of skilled workers and job requirements. It reduces the cost of searching for workers and the cost of searching for consumers. Urbanisation provides firms with specialised suppliers of labour, provides opportunities for building skills and increases in knowledge. Urbanisation provides room for acceleration of technological innovation.

Technological Advancement: Man's natural environment imposes difficulty on man and in order to overcome the difficulty man has to improve his standard of living by refining the environment. The necessary solution to that difficulty imposed by the environment lies in that environment itself. This calls for improvement through technology. Urbanisation provides room for acceleration of technological innovation because the problems created by urbanisation encourage people to develop new means of survival. People develop new ideas, new tools, new machines, new means of communication and various items to make life more comfortable.

Attraction of Investors and Investment: One of the main benefits of urbanisation is that it attracts investments and investors. Urban centres attract more investment due to the large numbers of people living in them. The cost of labour is reduced with the wide availability of labour in the cities and employers have greater opportunities of getting better skilled workers. Besides, the presence of other local and foreign firms in cities serves as an encouraging factor to new investors. Industries benefit a lot from the concentrations of suppliers and consumers, which allows saving in communications and transportation costs. Large cities also provide big differentiated labour markets and may help to accelerate the pace of technological innovations. Urban growth also allows large economy of scale in services like water supply and electric power that are useful to the investments. It also encourages concentration of users at reduced operational costs and increase in human capital accumulation.

Increased Efficiency: Availability of labour in cities encourages division of labour and specialisation and consequently, far less effort is required to supply energy for work. This is beneficial because collective effort generally gets work done efficiently.

Certainty of Conveniences: In cities everything is nearby. Access to education, health and social services is much more readily available than in the rural setting. This is because things are located closely; cities can make motor vehicle use unnecessary sometimes in business transactions. In addition, when a city has efficient mass transportation systems in place access to the needed resources will not be a problem; this is not the case in rural areas.

Concentration of Higher Resources: The concentration of population in urban centres allows wealth and other resources to be centralised. Basically, when enough people are put together in a small area, they start coming up with different innovative ideas that bring changes and development, economically, politically and socio-culturally. It also improves commercial and social activities. For example economic

institutions like banks thrive more in urban centres than they do in rural areas.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

- 1. State and discuss the benefits of urbanisation.
- 2. Distinguish each benefit of urbanisation from the other.

3.2 Challenges of Urbanisation

The challenges posed by the spontaneous growth of urban centres are immense, easily observed and could be frightening, due to their impact on humans, in terms of suffering, poverty, environmental degradation, decline of quality of life and under utilisation. The majority of the populace in urban centres especially in the developing countries live in substandard environments that are known as slums. Such places are plagued by suqalor, and social amenities like schools, health facilities and facilities for recreation are grossly inadequate.

More importantly, in the developing countries, juvenile delinquency and crime have become endemic in urban centres, this is as a result of gradual decline of traditional social values and the breakdown of family cohesiveness and community spirit. The capacity of law enforcement institutions to prevent crime is increasingly hampered by resource limitations. The lack of infrastructure is one of the most pressing problems in cities (Lee and Anas; 1989, 1990; Linn, 1982; Mschella, 1986 and Verma *et.al*, 1991).

Most of the houses in major urban centres and cities lack electricity, pipe-borne water and hygienic toilet facilities. Many over-crowded houses are dilapidated or are in need of major repair. The urban populace are in need of better housing schemes and even need to replace the substandard ones. Many components are decaying without better management, in terms of rehabilitation and proper planning. Intra-urban mobility is greatly hampered by poor planning and inefficient land use. Transportational facilities are substandard and overused, and this culmunates into inefficiency and structural defectiveness. Many urban areas are characterised by high rates of uneployment or under employment. The lack of infrastructure hampers productivity in business and many times people spend huge resources in providing for selfneeded infrastructures such as power generating plants; wells (for water supply), private transportation, private telecommunication facilities and waste disposal. Otherwise, under normnal circumstances, these should be provided by the government.

According to a World Bank report the capital value of the electric power generating facilities in many urban centres were about 10 per cent of the total value of machineries and equipment power needs supplied, which eventually worsens the economic productivity situation. The higher costs of producing power and other infrastructural services are an extraordinary burden on the populace. As a result of this, many firms and enterprises that cannot afford the cost of infrastructural needs are collapsed or marginalised with very how productivity. This, is in line with the incubator hypothesis that states that the location of small firms (employing less than 20 people) is influienced by the availability of utilities and other essential services (Lee, 1982 and 1989, Verma et al; 1991). It means that a country's urban centres with poor infrastructures do not offer better conducive environment for small-scale enterprises that are very important to the development of the economy. Those enterprises that have already been established cannot grow at a rate that would generate enough employment opportunities to meet the demand of the growing populations. (CASSAD, 1993b).

Since industrial growth and employment generation in an urban centre depend heavily on the extent to which the small firms and enterprises can grow and succeed, most of the urban centres, especially the developing nations expeirence higher rates of unemployment and underemployment that metamorphose to endemic poverty. With reference to this, higher rates of overcrowding, substandard infrastructures and inadequacies of common needs are rampant in the urban centres.

Neglect of Rural Development

Rural underdevelopment, especially in the developing countries undermines national development efforts. Rather than developing or transforming the rural areas, many policy makers contribute to rural disarticulation and underdevelopment. The reason for this failure is most often attributed to the underlying ideas of projects formulation and implementation strategies that work against meaningful rural development. In the actual sense of it, the necessary concepts of integrated rural development have been so long neglected in many soceities. This has made many people to suggest self-reliance strategies for rural development and the need to move away from the narrow sectoral pre-occupation of food and fibre generation to the overall formulation of national rural development strategies that emphasise and encompase alleviation of poverty and suffering.

Lack of rural developmental programmes that ensure proper process of educational, health, nutritional, status, human welfare, coupled with the agricultural and infrastructural development no doubt encourages rural—

urban migration. Poor income levels and the dearth of employment opportunities, poor access to basic necessities of life like housing, health facilities, educational facilities, potable water, and other social infrastructural amenities and inadequacy of resources for preservation of good quality of rural life are also inclusive.

More importantly, local agricultural equipment and machineries as well as improvement of indigenous skills are neglected, whereas these need to be improved upon and even modernised in order to cope with the realities of modern systems of agriculture. If this can be done, it will not only aid coherence and compliment rural economy, it will also enhance national economy. The transformation of traditional systems of oil processing, soap making, fermentation of foods, etc. will enhance rural life and stimulate rural industrialisation. Traditional skills for food preparation and preservation in the rural areas are neglected, but they need to be improved on. If and when this is done, the meagre foreign reserves will not be wasted on unecessary schemes.

The issue of the land tenure system and its effects cannot be ignored. Many rural dewllers are incapacitated due to land ownership problems. This has hindered many developmental projects in the rural areas, especially in the African society, where the land is sacred to the people, and people can hardly part with their landed property or trade it off easily. Other problems are unequal distribution of resources (in terms of labour and capital), neglect of rural trades and industrialisation, deforestations and desertifications, commercialisation, inadequacy of amenities. rural poverty intensification, inappropriate technological appliances, poor orientation and inadequacy of good governance that encourages proper planning. All these intensify the dependence on urban centres and encourage rural- urban migrations.

Also, popular participation is essential for sustainable rural development, and the rural population need to be encouraged and moblised for vigorous engagement and participatory activities that are directed towards development. The rural populace too should see developmental programmes as their responsibility and participate in their own development by initiating and executing their own projects. A highly motivated and organised individual is more likely to achieve his life's ambitions than a poorly motivated one. In otherwords, mobilisation must start by enlightening the rural dwellers on the need for the developmental projects and their participation will help to develop them as individuals, groups and communities.

There is need for effective grassroots mobilisation for sustainable rural development. Rural development is simply interpreted as not only higher incomes through improved agricultural productivity, but also

better quality of life for rural dwellers through enahcned access to basic needs such as water, electricity and housing. It also involves popular participation in planning and execution of the development programmes in general. The rural dwellers should be the agents and beneficiaries of development. The targets of the rural development should include:-higher agricultural productivity through enhanced access of farmers to improved seed varities, technology (biological, chemical and mechanical), credit facilities and education. Mass mobilisation of rural dwellers to initiate and execute projects for individual, community and national development should be contnous.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Discuss the challenges of urbanisation.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have dealt with the benefits and challenges of urbanisation by examining their features and their impact on the urban and rural populace. Various issues like economic advancement, idea and information transmission, cheap labour, technological improvement, and attraction of investors or investments have been discussed. Also, we have looked at the neglect of rural development.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have explained the benefits and challenges of urbanisation. You are advised to look for more information on this.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What are the benefits of urbanisation?
- 2. Discuss the challenges of urbanisation
- 3. Discuss the neglect of rural development.
- 4. State and explain five benefits of urbanisation

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UNIT 4 URBAN TRANSPORTATION SYSTEMS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
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 - 3.2 Transportation
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

We will examine urban transportation systems and discuss various issues like the meaning of transportation, transportation systems, urban transportation problems, and urban transportation management. Since urbanisation places a strain on urban facilities and population, much effort is required to educate the government and the governed on how the essential urban transportation system should be managed.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss urban transportation system
- state the effects of poor urban transportation systems
- determine the need for the improvement of urban transportation
- suggest how urban transport problems can be managed.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Discussion

Over-crowdedness of an urban centre often results in tremendous strain on the city's infrastructure. The result of this is that many individuals and areas are under-serviced, or in extreme cases not served at all by the available infrastructural facilities (Ikporukpo, 1994:21). The frustration caused by this state of affairs will thus result in violence, if care is not taken. According to Ikporukpo (1994:22), "Urbanisation is both a process and away of life". It is a process that affects the way of life,

although it is possible to argue that its effect is not necessarily in one way. City dwellers, even among those who migrated from the rural areas, usually imbibe a way of life that is different from that of rural people. The disturbing effect of rapid of urbanisation is that it exerts enormous pressure on existing basic infrastructures like water supply, waste disposal management, housing and transportation. All these amenities are usually stretched beyond their capacity. The problem of urban transport is complex because it is not properly managed and because urban populations keep increasing.

3.2 Transportation

According to Rallies (1988:3), city life is a movement, and the movement is physically attached to a transportation system. Most often, the urban transportation system is chaotic; the concentration being mainly on the provision of urban infrastructural facilities, such as the construction of roads, bridges, seaports and airports. Many urban administrations often leave the provision of smooth running urban transport in the hands of private operators (Bello-Imam, 1994: 273). But unfortunately, the services rendered by these operators are inadequate, relative to the demand. This is more so in the developing nations, where the situation leads to frustration and aggression that snowball into violence. The general condition of most vehicles leaves much to be desired in terms of safety and convenience (Bolade, 1989).

Sometimes attempt to incorporate the provision of urban into urban developmental transportation facilities programmes exacerbates the public transport problem. The problems may be worsened by economic depression as the operators are unable to procure spare parts and maintain their vehicles. The need to improve urban mass transportation made Nigeria's government develop the Federal Urban Mass Transit Programme (FUMTP), a programme aimed at easing the sufferings of urban commuters. It was launched barely twelve months after the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). It was a response to the pains of SAP in the transportation sector. The modalities for its operation include special funding and the acquisition of big and medium-sized buses that were distributed to the states, Abuja and parastatals.

Each state government also procured buses and had its own project with the same objective of providing urban transit facilities. The Nigerian Railway Corporation (NRC) was also rejuvenated and made to play a key role in provision of urban commuter services, and the broken down ferries in riverine areas were repaired. Several mass transit efforts failed because they were poorly managed and inadequate when compared with the demand. There is excessive reliance on road-based transport that

threatened and almost destroyed the existence of the rail system; this shows a lack of concern for multi-modal transport. The difficulties of the mass transit programmes in Nigeria are associated with poverty which has led to the reduction of the fleets of buses and an increase of motor cycle operations. These have resulted in an increase of touts at motor parks.

In addition, in a strict constitutional sense of it, issues pertaining to the urban transport are the responsibility of state and local or municipal governments, although the central government assumes a central role in exceptional cases. But the scope of involvement of central, state and local or municipal government is still largely confined to provision for infrastructure with the actual services being largely provided by the private sector. The overall effect of poverty on the transportation system includes the geometric progression in the cost of vehicles and spare parts, progressive withdrawal of fuel subsidy and drastic reduction in good stock of private and commercial/public transport vehicles nationwide in urban centres. Besides in many developing countries urban transport fares have gone beyond the capacity of the middle class, commercial transport operational maintenance is outrageous, and purchasing new vehicles is almost out of the question. The increasing reliance of the populace on public transport increasingly intensifies the hardship of urban dwellers. Therefore, the inequitable relationship between the existing distribution of transport and individual mobility is related to the fact that some social groups have substantial lower levels of mobility than others, they occupy locations that are relatively less accessible and they are more vulnerable to the problems induced by changes in the quality of transport infrastructure (Adeniji, 1986:33).

3.3 The Motor Cycle

In Nigeria the motorcycle, popularly called *okada* was introduced as a means of public transport, due to inadequacies of public transport services in the urban and rural areas. The pattern of operation of the motorcycles plying the streets in urban centres on commercial bases is quiet interesting. There seem to be no set limits to the number of passengers that the operators can carry on a trip, but it is common to see two to three passengers on a motorcycle.

Motorcycle transport business has become an important source of employment for the young men who are unemployed. Many motorcycle transport operators are in the business as part time, while they still engage in some other money yielding activity as their main source of income. The number of passengers on a motorcycle trip could be determined by their total weight, the condition of the motorcycle and the capacity of the operators. A good number of different motorcycles

which range from 100 to 125 cc engine capacity are the dominant motorcycles. Their fares depend on the distance and the locality of the passengers. The recent growth in the number of motorcycle operators in the towns and cities could be due to the financial returns the operators get from the business and the economic situation in general.

To the passengers, the use of motorcycle transport is very popular because of its ability to move around quickly, especially during traffic jams, and it provides door to door services. However, problems in the use of the motorcycle as an urban transport service are reckless driving, accidents and loss of lives. To curb such reckless driving and reduce cases of mortality resulting from motorcycle accidents, a well-structured policy needs to be enacted. Public orientation and seminars need to be held, in order to change the attitude and orientation of both the operators and passengers toward safety of lives.

3.3 Urban Transportation Problems

According to Ikporukpo (1994: 22) Urban transport problems are characterised by accidents, commuters having to wait for long periods at bus- stops, pollution from vehicles, traffic congestion and related parking problems. These may not only disorient many individuals but may also lead to a feeling of relative deprivation which may lead to violence. According to Oyesiku (1994: 367), about 31 per cent of all industrial establishments in Nigeria are sited in Lagos. The area alone also contributes over 62 per cent of gross industrial output, and about 60 per cent of the total industrial value, with over 66 per cent of existing industrial establishments with staff strength of 20 and above (Ogbodo, 1994). Although the city has the most expensive network of roads in Nigeria it has the highest investment in the public transport system in the country, but the fact still remains that it is also notorious for its transport related urban crimes.

According to Oyesiku some other problems are over crowdedness in vehicles used for public transport and persistent conflicts degenerating to street fighting and aggravated assault between drivers and passengers, drivers and bus conductors, and sometimes passengers and passengers. It is also common to find many individual operators of public transport; the bus-stops and terminals are inadequate and the roads are bad and poorly maintained. Also poorly maintained vehicles of various types are used ---whether suitable or not--- as buses, taxi cabs and motor- cycles. Incidents of theft of passengers' belongings are common. Articles often stolen by pick-pockets are wristwatches necks-laces bracelets, pendants, handbags, wallets, briefcases and money. The points of theft are usually at interface terminals, bus-stops and within the vehicles. Extortion of money and personal belongs, particularly jewelry, closely follows theft.

Many times the stealing is done forcibly,, the thieves treat the passengers roughly, and in most cases, hurt them.

Again, sudden death has been a common effect of urban criminal activities. The direct cases of sudden death are where passengers fall off a moving bus or train or motorcycle, in an attempt to catch the vehicle. Another form occurs when the driver of the vehicle manoeuvres the vehicle recklessly, causing a passenger or the conductor to fall off or a passenger pushes another passenger off a moving vehicle.

Large buses popularly called *molue* convey more commuters per a trip than other vehicles; although they are usually overcrowded even though they charge fares which are cheaper than that of other buses. The buses ply only major roads, leaving many other parts of the metropolis to paratransit smaller commuter buses, and private taxicabs. This even increases the importance of motorcycles. The *molues* are indispensable vehicles for intra-city mobility. However, they can be described as "moving caskets" because the drivers drive very dangerously. Virtually all urban roads in a place like Nigeria are in a state of disrepair, due to inadequate maintenance and the poor condition of the roads.

The state buses are not better off as they have the same low-level of vehicle maintenance as that of the private operators. Somehow many imported second-hand vehicles join the fleet of vehicles used for public transport in the metropolis. This increases the number of para-transit public transport vehicles on the roads, but still does not necessarily make the system more effective. In the real sense of it, many of these vehicles used for urban transit are not designed to convey passengers, but goods; and the operation of such vehicles constitute a great hazard to commuters. Overcrowding the buses provides an enabling environment for the activities of pickpockets, and all forms of robbery. This particularly leads to anti-social behaviour that causes injury to many passengers. Moreover, due to the scarcity of vehicles and great demands for mobility, passengers often rush to board any available vehicle whether it is in a good or bad state; passengers step on one another, which results in quarreling and often degenerates to fighting.

The demand for public transport far outstrips the supply, there is little time for operators to maintain their vehicles. This causes such vehicles to breakdown frequently even on the highway, causing problems for the other road users. The trips are sometimes therefore broken halfway, and the operators would prefer to effect the repairs where the vehicles breakdown rather than refunding the fares to the passengers. This always results to street fighting between the operators and passengers. Provision for bus stops and bus and taxicab parks is the responsibility of the authorities. Such facilities are almost completely absent on major routes.

Where available, they are not maintained, not cleaned and are taken over by petty traders and touts, or converted to waste dumps. Thieves also hide there to rob unwary passengers.

The poor state of many roads plied by the vehicles makes a trip longer than necessary, sometimes resulting in over speeding on any segment of well- surfaced road. Overcrowded vehicles that are common in the cities put passengers at a risk of accidents. There is a tendency for drivers to behave in an aggressive manner to passengers in the vehicles and to other road users, while assaults, personal injuries and accidents are the resultant effects. Virtually all elements within the public transport system contribute to some form of urban violence in the city (Oyesiku, 1994; 370-372).

Commuters' Time Waiting

The commuters' time waiting is defined as the stress periods that the urban populace undergoes in trying to move from one place to another. The long waiting could be due to a short fall in public transport vehicles. The decline is largely due to the rate of poverty, economic crisis and consequently, sharp rise in the cost of vehicles.

Parking Problems

These include the stress suffered in search of parking space and non-conventional parking systems. Inadequate parking space is a problem peculiar to urban centres especially mega cities. The search for parking space usually increases the problem of traffic congestion and sometimes accidents.

Traffic Accidents

Pinheiro (1993:3) and Ikporukpo (1994:24), state that prominent among the assaults on human life in the cities of developing countries are the traffic accidents and deaths.. Apart from poor driving habits, the major factors causing accidents are poor maintenance of vehicles and the poor state of city roads.

Urban Transport and Touts

Touting occurs in every human endeavour, but the activities of motor park touts will be examined in this section. These touts are most common and are concentrated in urban areas, where they can operate anonymously unlike in the rural areas, where identification is easier. The services rendered by touts may not be really requested for by their victims or unwilling clients, but commuters and other road users are

forced by the touts to patronise them. The number of touts in a motor park depends on its capacity, as well as the volume of human and vehicular traffic.

Motor Park Touts

Virtually all urban centre transport systems are infiltrated by motor park touts. These fellows usually comprise young men and slightly aged men, whose ages range from fifteen to sixty years (15- 60 years). They are usually involved in vices such as drug addiction, drug trafficking, excessive consumption of hard drinks, smoking, suspicious dress styles, irrational behaviour, and street fighting. Touts pay less attention to authority by encouraging the proliferation of illegal motor parks. They extort enormous amounts of money from bus drivers, commuters and hawkers at motor parks. Their activities and irrational behaviour have led to many people's deaths and even caused severe accidents. Touts are political thugs or tools of violence in the hands of the political leaders. They sometimes hold the entire society to ransom, by causing terrible traffic holds up along the main roads for hours because they are trying to determine which vehicle should pick passengers or because their leaders are involved a battle for supremacy. They hardly consider the implications of their actions on the populace. Their mode of dressing is most often shabby and questionable. For instance, a tout could decide to put on a winter coat in hot humid weather. They are very aggressive and easily get recruited into robbery gangs.

Lagos Transportation System and Touts

Lagos was the capital of Nigeria until December 1990, and this makes it remain the most densely populated commercial and economic capital till now. The uniqueness of *Lagosian* touts is that they can speak virtually all the major languages in Nigeria, as well as pidgin English. They start off a conversation with any potential traveller, and once they ascertain the commuter's destination, then his/her trouble begins. Some of the touts will carry his/her luggage to the vehicle they want him/her to board without seeking for the consent of the commuter. Should the commuter refuse to follow the touts they could go a step further, and carry the him/her along with the luggage to the vehicle earmarked by the touts (Obioha, 1994: 176). It is also noteworthy that whenever touts are competing for passengers, they stress up the passengers and traumatise them. In the process of securing passengers, the touts often rough handle the passengers, injure them and steal some of their property.

Many touts in Lagos have no place of residence other than motor parks. Usually they become drunk very early in the morning and remain drunk for the rest of the day. Most of them are on hard drugs too.

According to Obioha (1994:177), in 1990 and 1992, the touts at Iddo Motor Park hijacked the peaceful demonstration organised by the students of University of Lagos and Yaba College of Technology. They then unleashed terror on the traders on Lagos Island, burnt down federal, state and local government vehicles, as well as that of different parastatals. Many innocent people were either manhandled or wounded. The emergence of motor park touts has resulted in the *area boy* phenomenon. Generally, *area boys and area girls* are simply miscreants in a community. The harassment meted out by these *area boys* on the traders of Balogun, Apongbon, Idumota markets, and Adeniji Adele areas of Lagos Island and on innocent commuters cannot be quantified. Once in their clutches, no amount of pleading will save their victims, unless they are given the amount of money demanded. On many instances, victims will be forced to borrow money from sympathisers and passers-bye to pay the ransom demanded.

3.5 Urban Transport Management

Various levels of Government have collectively and individually taken some steps in managing urban transport properly. Several attempts have been made at introducing urban mass transit programmes. The basic objectives include improvement of traffic flow and reduction of hardship suffered by the commuters, laying the foundation for an integrated mass transit system, and improvement of security management. The government at all levels needs to implement better programmes like the provision of state and local government buses and subsidy on transportation. This will reduce the waiting time of commuters at bus stops. The mass transit agency should be encouraged to establish motor parks to reduce the severity of parking problems; also attempts should be made to enforce parking regulations, and road users and the general public should be educated on how to responsibly make use of roads.

There should be uniform guidelines for periodic raids on motor parks by law enforcement agents in order to flush out motor park touts. The federal, state and local governments need to establish plain clothes traffic agencies that will monitor the different motor parks in their areas. Adoption of such methods would dislocate the activities of touts. The transport workers' unions should be re-organised with a view to making them responsible and accountable.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What is transport?

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have examined urban transportation systems and the problems facing the urban populace as regards movement.

5.0 SUMMARY

You will need to make some effort to get more information on urban transportation and how to solve the transportation problems of urban dwellers.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What is transportation?
- 2. How do you perceive motorcycle transportation?
- 3. Discuss urban transportation system.
- 4. How can urban transport system be well managed?

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UNIT 5 URBAN CENTRES AND PLANNING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Discussion
 - 3.2 Residential Planning
 - 3.3 Urban and Rural Development Problems
 - 3.4 Urban Housing System
 - 3.5 Urban Youth Employment and Underemployment
 - 3.6 Urban Housing Plan Policy
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

We will examine urban centres and planning and critically discuss various factors like the residential planning, urban and rural development, urban housing system, urban youth employment, underemployment and housing plan policy. We believe that reading this unit will broaden your view on how urban centres can be effectively planned.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss urban planning
- determine how urban centres can be well planned and managed
- state the implications of unplanned urban systems
- suggest ways in which urban centres can be better planned.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Discussion

Town planning, city planning and urban planning are commonly used to describe urban management. The profession is also known in terms of time and space within environmental studies, such as urban and regional planning, city and regional planning, town and country planning, etc (Obateru, 1994: 32). There are three different planning terms, which are physical planning, spatial planning and land-use

planning. These precise and appropriate terms indicate the preoccupation of planning as a profession with spatial organisation of land for various uses. According to Obateru (1994:32), "on the basis of this, physical planning is inherently defined as: the art and science of space (land) organisation involving the location of land use on a functional and mutual basis, and the allocation of land to them (in those places) for the purpose of promoting human welfare through the creation of physical environments that are functionally efficient and aesthetically pleasant for living, working, recreation and circulation.

Physical planning is a social (welfare) service and an economic development strategy for mitigating the economic disparity between the low and upper socio-economic classes through the efficient spatial distribution of such development opportunities and facilities as employment, housing, social infrastructures, transportation facilities, public utilities and recreational facilities to enable all socio-economic classes to achieve optimum development of both human and material resources. UNICEF (1989), states that "many rural –urban migrants have become "environmental refuges", exchanging rural poverty for the hazards of urban life, such as overcrowded or slum conditions of dwelling, noise, air pollution, stress, violence, fear of crime, etc. For example, in Nigeria urban settlement and slum squatters' settlements have multiplied and expanded, especially in the older urban centres like Lagos, Ibadan and Kano.

In some of these cities, half or more of residents, especially low middle-income groups, live in one room apartments that are often in slum neighbourhoods (Onoherhoraye, 1984 and Sada, 1984). The effect of this is much more on the vulnerable groups like women and children and youths. There should be proper planning, if not urban society will be full of frustrated youth who could resort to violence. A Federal Office of Statistics survey in Nigeria (1989) shows that about 47 per cent of migrants from the rural areas to the urban centres were youths of age 0-29 years, moving mainly with relations or in search of jobs. They joined the already large numbers of indigenous youths living with their parents in deteriorating city centres. The fact still remains that about 70 per cent of the urban and rural populations are low or middle-income householders, which suggest that most of the youth live in poor housing conditions (Okojie, 1994: 179-180).

3.2 Residential Planning

The residential area is the area within which residents share all the common physical and social infrastructures required in the vicinity. The populations of neighbourhoods vary from one population to the other. Neighbourhoods sometimes require land area of 20 to 100 hectares, the

density of the population being the primary determinant factor. The average population may be about 5,000 (Obateru 1994:38). Therefore, proper strategy of residential planning will minimise socio-economic inequality. Such planning will bring about social justice, while the common use of facilities and services in residential neighbourhoods will foster interaction and social cohesion.

3.3 Urban and Rural Development Problems

No city on its own grows to become orderly, functionally efficient and aesthetically pleasing. Like a baby, its conception, birth and growth have to be planned and guided. Another issue which is noteworthy is that cities have to be planned, in order to avoid the problems of managing them, especially the super cities, which are sometimes referred to as mega-cities (those with populations of at least 10 million) which are characterised by accelerated growth (Obateru, 1994: 33-34). But such problems are steadily getting worse, because they are consistent with their accelerated growth, which requires determined efforts from governments and planning agencies. According to United Nations (1990), 14 cities will be larger than any one that existed in the 50s and 12 of the world's 15 largest cities would be in the developing countries and only 4 in 1950. Conversely, in 1950s, only 4 of the World's 15 largest cities were in the developing World as against 11 in the developed World (Obateru, 1994: 34).

Planning and Development Problems

In the developing countries of the world, the largest cities are usually characterised with the following problems, which are common causes of urban violence. They are mass unemployment and underemployment; unplanned and rapid growth; decaying inner urban areas; grossly inadequate housing; extensive slums; poor and grossly inadequate transportation facilities; grossly inadequate public utilities--- water and electricity supply, sewage, drainage and sanitation;----grossly inadequate social infrastructures--especially, educational and health facilities;----virtual absence of outdoor recreation facilities (local, neighbourhood and district ones) and poor environmental sanitation.

Rural Underdevelopment

This has been the major problem in the developing countries; their rural areas are commonly and grossly under-developed. The following factors are the problems of rural development: gross neglect of agricultural activities; poor source of raw materials; lack of industrial development and export trade promotion; poor and grossly inadequate transport facilities; and the lack of water and electricity. Others are grossly

inadequate social infrastructures like educational and health facilities. As a matter of fact, rural underdevelopment gives rise to mass ruralurban migration of people who are in search of employment, physical or social infrastructure and other good things of life for the enhancement of their standards of living.

Mass rural-urban migration therefore, aggravates not only the problems of large cities but also that of the rural areas. This often causes rural depopulation and neglect of agriculture (Obateru 1994: 35). In view of this, we can say that the problems of the rural areas are thus directly and indirectly interrelated, which shows that the problems of urban areas cannot be solved without paying attention to the development of the rural areas. In fact, physical planning is a public service for which the government is responsible. No matter the system of government in a country (capitalism, socialism, authoritarian or military, etc), it is the government's responsibilities to formulate and implement policies of good planning that will enhance and lead to urban and rural development, so as to discourage rural –urban migration.

According to Obateru in the functions of government should include physical planning. In most developing countries the officials and the public are ignorant of the importance of physical planning and its role in economic development. This is responsible for the absence of physical planning policies and inadequate funding of physical planning. Also, Lewis (1960:55) notes that if a country is fortunate to have a good leader, born at a crucial time in its history, who catches the imagination of his/her people and guides them through formative experience, he/she will create traditions, legends and standards that will weave themselves with his people and govern their behaviours through many centuries.

Urban and Rural Development Strategies

The main aim of developmental planning is to raise the living standards of the society or the population of a country. Such developmental planning comprises physical planning that seeks to create good physical environments, which are functionally efficient and aesthetically pleasant, and to minimise the socio-economic disparity and depravity between the privileged and under privileged through equitable spatial distributions of physical and social infrastructures. Planning will not only enhance the living standards of the society, it will prevent the cities from growing too large to be managed. Again if the people's living standards are better they will be more productive. The basis for rural development should be to channel the potential growth of large cities into selected and strategically located small and medium sized urban centres and rural areas, causing them to become growth centres; this will

promote the exploitation of the natural resources of the rural areas, agricultural development and even export trade.

3.4 Urban Housing System

Urban housing comprises physical structures, secured economic system, social service system, as well as those facilities which contribute to a good and healthy environment, such as water supply, electricity, refuse management, road construction, recreational facilities, transportation, shopping centres etc. According to Okojie (1994: 180), poor housing tends to cause and perpetuate poverty (Schorr, 1968). Housing is important not only because it provides shelter, it also generality indicates the economic status of the dweller, especially in the urban centres (Schorr, 1968 and Okojie, 1987). Many factors compound urban poverty, such as the lack of education, poor health, poor housing and the deprivation of other basic necessities. For example, Okojie (1994: 181) states that in Nigeria, not only is there a shortage of dwelling relative to demand, there is also a problem of preponderance of poor quality housing, especially in the urban areas. Much of the available housing is inadequate in terms of construction and quality, as it will be show later. High population densities and overcrowding exist in our cities especially in poor neighborhoods. Absence of effective control over land use and the lack of comprehensive planning have led to the deterioration of city centres into slums. Large-scale migration and increased demand for low- income housing has led to the development of shantytowns.

The state's planning laws that control building and facilities erection established housing corporations with the responsibility of controlling and prescribing housing standards. However, the hostility of the residents has made it difficult and unsafe for these corporations to intervene in existing traditional neighbourhoods. Consequently, housing corporations have shifted their emphasis to the development of estates; the provision of sites and services; the provision of plots and completed houses for sale. Government polices and programmes over the years have never addressed the housing needs of low income groups. As a result of this, the middle and upper income groups live in high standard modern buildings, low income groups have standard housing, which continue to degenerates as a result of over-crowding and lack of maintenance. The profit-motivated contactors often produce substandard housing for the low-income earners; poor housing perpetuates poverty.

Effect of Poor Housing on Vulnerable Groups

Poor housing in urban centres, especially in the developing countries has adverse effects more on the vulnerable groups, which constitute about 75 per cent of each society's populace. These vulnerable groups have important roles to play in the economic and social development of those societies. Gana (1990) has stated that the history of heroic struggles for national development has clearly revealed that the core of the dynamics of any genuine national transformation process is the creative, innovative, energetic and productive handwork of the youth. But poor housing in urban centres has exposed the youth to moral decadence, idiocy, criminality, sexual violence, prostitution, and all kinds of vices.

According to Igbinovia (1988), available data show that delinquency, crime and drug abuse are on the increase among the youth in Africa. A large number of young people are exposed to influences which encourage and induce anti-social and often unlawful behaviour (Kibuka, 1979 and Okojie, 1994: 104). Hence, the rate of youth criminality has been found to correlate with rapid urbanisation and industrialisation, especially when social change is unaccompanied by a network of social support mechanisms (Igbinovia, 1996; UNSDRI, 1986 and Okoji, 1994: 184). There is no doubt that the poor housing situations lead to juvenile delinquency and poor housing conditions directly or indirectly induce crime.

According to Igbinovia (1986), several studies have concluded that delinquency and crime are concentrated in urban slum areas and cities. The areas with poor housing and few social amenities hardly give thorough parental care for the children. A study of inmates of prisons however, shows that the majority of them were youth aged 30 years and below (70.3 per cent) and were from low socio-economic backgrounds. They came from large families, 70 per cent had primary education or less, while 70 per cent was also engaged in petty trade or semi-skilled occupations. Incomes were below subsistence and inadequate for their needs (Kayode; Alemika, 1980 and Okojie, 1994: 185).

Bad Upbringing of Children: The lack of sufficient facilities in small one or two room apartments make the rooms uncomfortable for children to eat, sleep, play and read. Children brought up under such circumstances are often indirectly pushed to the streets, and so lack good parental control at an early age. According to Schorr (1968), children could also be exposed to sexual stimulation when sleeping in the same room with their parents.

High Dependant Ratio: This is a situation whereby large families live on a low income that strains the capacity of their parents to meet the needs of their family members. Such parents may resort to crime to increase their income.

Poor Urban Youth Development: The children from poor homes may be forced to drop out of school early. Many poor parents cannot afford to educate their children beyond primary and secondary school. Truancy rates are higher among the urban poor because parents cannot afford transport fares, school fees, or even uniforms for their children who consequently drop out of school or are on class repetitions.

Persistent Poverty: Poor housing perpetuates poverty (Schorr, 1968), the people have a poor perception of themselves; they find themselves in a surrounding and tend to value themselves accordingly. Those who are accustomed to little do not think that they can have more (Schorr, 1968). The poor get accustomed to poverty, to their poor housing, slum conditions, low income etc. Their children, in turn end up with poor education, low income, poor housing, etc. Thus, poverty is perpetuated from one generation to the next except for the small proportion who is able to break out of this circle. Many children thus become frustrated and alienated from society, and drift into crime. The poor are ill prepared to participate effectively in development; they are more concerned with survival (Okojie, 1994: 185).

3.5 Urban Youth and Underemployment

In urban centres, young people that are from the middle and upper income earners' background proceed to tertiary institutions like colleges of educations, polytechnics and universities. But the irony of this is that most youth from poor backgrounds drop-out of school and end up in vocational training as apprentices.

Youth Underemployment in the Formal Sector: Youth from poor backgrounds who cannot get more education are absorbed into formal sectors in either government or private establishments where they get a low income. They engage in unchallenging occupations and become clerical officers, typists, messengers, porters, drivers, telephone operators, etc. Very few of them are able to breakout of those low income jobs by undergoing further education that qualifies them for the higher status jobs. They therefore remain poor like their parents before them.

Youth in the Vocational Sector: Various activities are open to the youths in the vocational sector. They include apprenticeship trading and casual labour.

Apprenticeship: This is a system of learning and teaching skills or a trade. It could be a traditional skill or a trade, such as blacksmithing, woodwork and calabash carving etc, which were passed from the father to the children through the apprenticeship system. Most of primary and secondary school leavers who cannot find jobs in the formal sector migrate to the urban centres from their local areas to learn a trade. Thus in all over the cities, working youths are engaged in various forms of apprenticeships like sewing, hairdressing, carpentry, welding, etc, usually for minimum returns. No formal structural training is provided, and sometimes no wages are paid. Apprentices provide cheap labour for their masters or mistresses in return for learning the trade, and there may be no specific duration for their apprenticeship.

Trading: Some of the school dropouts in urban centres are engaged in trading activities. After two or three years of learning how to trade, many of them will end up establishing their own shops either at the market place or at residential street shops, while large numbers of them become hawkers and vendors. Trading does not have any gender bias. Male or female can engage in selling whatever they desire, such as provision items, textiles, books, machine or motor spare parts, stationery items, foodstuff, etc. There are numbers of young people that are engaged in street trading and trading in traffic hold ups to earn a living. Children hawk various items just to assist their parents or guardians. Many school dropouts are found at motor parks working as bus conductors, drivers and mechanics or even touts. They help to augment the low income of their parents.

Casual Jobs: There are certain groups of youth that are engaged in different casual income earning activities. They help the traders and customers to carry their goods in the market, work as porters in hostels, motor parks, airports, etc. Many are also engaged in illegal activities like stealing in market places and motor parks. Youths also make up the numbers of touts at airports and motor parks. Sometimes they are helpful but often they try to exploit travellers. Generally, poor youths end up in low-incom jobs like their parents because of their limited human capital. Such people, because of their low income earning capacity also end up living in poor housing and poor neighbourhoods similar to those they grew up in. Thus, poverty is perpetuated from one generation to another (Okojie, 1994: 187-188).

3.6 Urban House Planning Policy

There should be urban house planning policies in all urban centres and cities that will facilitate better construction of the new housing units for the low income groups, and improve the existing living conditions.

Youth's involvement in development programmes, employment programmes and development schemes is important.

Youth's Involvement in Developmental Programmes: Involving young people in development will serve as a way of developing them to meet the future needs of the society. Programmes such as sports, music, educational campaigns, workshops and symposia, will help in training the youth for societal development.

Employment Opportunities: To secure full-fledged employment for the youth, there should be programmes that are meant for youth empowerment and employment. They should be directed towards helping the youth to acquire productive skills and assisting them to set up and run their own businesses. Efforts should be made to see that the programmes fulfill their objectives.

Developmental Schemes: Urban administrations should upgrade residential facilities and the environment in general. Projects that include drainage construction, road construction and development, refuse disposal and renovation of homes can ensure better living. Efforts should be made for better housing programmes and the urban poor could be encouraged to upgrade their own apartments through better developmental schemes.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What is urban planning?

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has dealt with residential planning, urban and rural development, housing system, urban youths' employment, underemployment and the housing plan in general.

5.0 SUMMARY

Poor urban planning has been a major problem to the urban populace. We hope that this unit will help you to manage your urban area properly.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What is urban planning?
- 2. Discuss urban residential planning.
- 3. How can urban centres be well planned and properly managed?

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MODULE 2 CONFLICT AND ITS ATTRIBUTES

Unit 1	Meaning/Definitions of Conflict
Unit 2	Understanding Conflict
Unit 3	Domestic and School Violent Conflict
Unit 4	Violent Conflict and Security
Unit 5	Conflict Management Strategies

UNIT 1 MEANING/DEFINITIONS OF CONFLICT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning/Definitions of Conflict
 - 3.2 Types of Conflict
 - 3.3 Causes of Conflict
 - 3.4 Theories of Conflict
 - 3.5 Conflict Analysis
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Hitherto, the misconception of conflict for violence has been the major fundamental problem of understanding conflict to very many people today, but the fact still remains that conflict itself is an integral part of human natural existence that occurs within or between individual(s), groups or states, though at different levels of intensity. It is a universal phenomenon that occurs at anytime and anywhere, and whenever it is amicably resolved, it tends to bring improvement and understanding for all those involved. Conflict is good; it is natural, inevitable and unavoidable. It is as old as man himself; therefore, it is not limited to any local environment. The inability to manage conflict situations positively or constructively makes them to be violent. However, in the course of this unit, various definitions will be examined. The intention here is to explore those definitions in order to enlighten us, broaden our views and develop our horizons on this subject matter.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- precisely define conflict
- give examples of conflict to substantiate the definition
- identify, describe and discuss the different levels at which conflict can occur
- predict the challenges and consequences of conflict.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning/Definitions of Conflict

Etymologically, the word conflict was derived from a Latin word called *confligere*, which means to clash or engage in a fight or a battle over certain things, goals, or values. It is a battle between or among individuals and groups of individuals, due to perceived incompatible goals.

Conflict emerges when parties compete over perceived or actual goals, values, or interests. Thus, it occurs when the contenders confront one another with opposing actions and counter-actions. Sometimes, conflict serves as an indicator of change or the need for change. It is an interaction that aims at beating or defeating opponents.

According to Coser (1956:8), conflict is the struggle over values or claims to status, power, and scarce resources, in which the aim of the groups or individuals involved are not only to obtain the desired values but to neutralize, injure or eliminate rivals.

Weeks (1994:7) says, conflict is an outgrowth of the diversity that characterizes our thoughts, our attitudes, our beliefs, our perception, and our social systems and structures. It is as much a part of our existence as its evolution.

Rupesinghe (1998:27) claims that, "...while individual people continue to relate to each other, but in pursuit of differing goals, there will always be conflics of one kind or another".

Maoz (1982:1) defines conflict as a"...stage of incompatibility among values, where the achievement of one value can be realised only at the expense of some other values. Conflict may arise within a single organism pursuing multiple goals as well as between organisms striving at incompatible goals.

Wright (1990) says, conflict could be defined as "opposition among social entities directed against one another".

According to Kriesberg (1988:2), "A social conflict exists when two or more persons or groups manifest the belief that they have incompatible objectives".

To Howik and Meijer (1994), "Conflict is incompatible behaviour between parties whose interest appears to be incompatible or clashing". Ross (2001) sees conflict as a natural phenomenon of human experience and inevitable to human kind.

Having viewed different definitions on this subject matter, there is no doubt that conflict is an inevitable and a natural phenomenon that is as old as man himself. Albert (2001:3),tells us that conflict is a critical mechanism through which goals and aspirations of individual groups or groups of individuals are articulated. It is a creative solution channel to every human problem and means to the development of collective identity. Therefore, conflict is a multi-facial phenomenon that can emanate from different angles. However, the functionality of conflict cannot be well understood without reference to violent conflict, types of conflict, manifestations of conflict, escalation and de-escalation processes, conflict theories and causes of conflict.

Specifically, conflict has been ignorantly seen as a negative factor or an issue that needs to be avoided or ignored, which is a typically wrong Rather, the context in which it occurs needs to be considered because conflict can also bring progress, development and mutual understanding, if it is managed constructively or positively. Interestingly, in the Chinese language conflict means, "an opportunity or chance for change" as well as "risk of danger". In essence to the Chinese, conflict is neither positive nor negative, it is the response to the conflict that determines its outcome. The background or context, attitudes, perceptions and environment among other things influence the response to conflict situations. The people with negative connotations of conflict tend to handle conflict in a destructive way. Otherwise, having a positive attitude to the conflict situation helps in managing it constructively, and in such a way that it yields positive results like development, change, friendship, improvement, communication, progress, peace and love.

More importantly, the costliest peace is cheaper than the cheapest wars; the differences in man's nature otherwise make conflict an inevitable phenomenon and a recurrent fact of life. The interveners in any conflict situation need to understand the situation very well and should be able to develop a proper managerial approach to it before intervention.

3.2 Types of Conflict

Knowing the different types of conflict will enhance your ability to differentiate one conflict scenario from others.

Intra-personal Conflict: This is a common but very dangerous type of conflict. It occurs within a person. It sometimes depends on a person's past experience or what a person may be undergoing at a certain period. Examples are use of time, choice of a partner or making a right choice out of varieties, moral questions, goals and aspirations. The ability of a person to manage his/her intra-personal conflict will determine how successful he /she is going to become in life. Intra-personal conflict could manifest itself as hunger, sexual needs or deprivation, trying to make a right choice, frustration and transferred aggression, reaction to denied opportunity, or a bad mood, etc. It could lead to a greater conflict, if it is not well managed. Adolph Hitter of Germany caused World War II due to his intra-personal conflict.

Inter-personal: This is a conflict between two parties or among more parties over perceived incompatible issues. Inter-personal conflict could occur when two or more parties are competing over certain goals, values or interests. Sometimes, it is an interaction that aims at "beating" or defeating opponents. It could manifest as frustration and transfer of aggression to others. Examples are conflict between husband and wife, friends, parents and children or a defeat suffered by a person from his/her colleagues.

Intra-group Conflict: This is a conflict between or among a group of individuals, or factions within a group. It could be within a political party, whereby members are agitating for political power or seat. Intragroup conflict could also manifest as conflict within an ethnic group or religious fanaticism.

Inter-group Conflict: This type of conflict occurs between or among two or more groups like one club against another club, one class against another class, and one family against another family. This is rampant among political parties, ethnic groups and religious groups.

Communal Conflict: This is conflict occurs within a particular geographical location due to many perceived incompatible goals. It is a state of antagonism among a race or community members where cooperation is lacking. Ideological, philosophical, ethnic, religious, economic, political agitations, etc, are the most responsible or fundamental factors of communal conflict within a society.

Intra-state Conflict: This is a conflict within a state that involves different categories or groups. It could manifest itself as ethnic agitations, inter-religious or economic competition and political, philosophical and ideological differences that are most often structural in nature. Examples are agitation for political power among a state's local governments or inter-regional political agitations within a particular geographical location.

Inter-state Conflict: It is a conflict among the states of a nation. It could be as a result of resource revenue allocations or formulas. Interstate conflict could also occur as a result of boundary adjustment between or among the states involved or when the state's national resources like land, forest reserves, rivers etc, are tampered with by other states.

Intra-national or National Conflict: This is a conflict within a nation that involves different ethnic groups within that nation. It could be interethnic, inter-religious or a competition for the resources, as it is in Nigeria's revenue allocation. Examples are civil wars which took place in Liberia, Sierra Leone, Burundi, Rwanda, Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan, Ethiopia, Somalia, and even in Nigeria.

International Conflict: This is conflict between or among nations of the world. It may occur as a result of ideological differences, territorial claims, political competition, etc. It is a conflict that can lead to a world war if it is not well managed. This was the reason behind the establishment of the United Nations organisation in 1948, after the Second World War.

3.3 Causes of Conflict

Limited or Scarcity of Resources: Since human needs are insatiable and limited resources cannot meet man's needs, man has to compete with his fellow man for whatever is available. The conflict over resources can be easily identified and is more potentially managed. Such conflict occurs when two or more parties need the same resources that may not be enough. They could be economic or natural resources. It is the most common cause of conflict, such as the conflict between Israel and Egypt over the Suez Canal, United States of America and Panama over land, the Niger Delta people over crude oil exploration, etc. Sometimes, the uneven distribution of resources may be a source of conflict.

Values and Cultural Diversity: This is one of the factors responsible for conflict within the human society. The problems of values and cultural diversity are most often difficult to understand and resolve, they

are philosophical, ideological and based on the belief systems. Most often the people are ready to die for what they believe;, they see it as something that must not be tampered with because it depicts who they are and it represents them anywhere.

Psychological Needs: These are behavioral, attitudinal and situational needs that cannot be seen but which affect the psyche of the individual. For example, if an individual is denied of love, security of life, belongingness and friendship, it may result to frustration and aggression. It is psychological or traumatic in nature in terms of the effects.

Information Management: Information management is very important in all human relationships. Conflict occurs when the necessary information is unavailable, distorted or mismanaged.

Perception: This is how we see, understand or interpret the situations around us. Perceptions could generate conflict among individuals or among groups in the following ways: People might not see the same issue the same way; what we see is sometimes different from reality. It is a reflection of whom and what we are. In some cases, we draw absolute conclusions from the little that we can see. In terms of perception, there are factors that can influence actions, they are: information management, educational background, experience/exposure, religion/belief systems, culture/ethnicity, gender, heredity, environment, etc. All these will determine people's response to any conflict situation, because we cannot respond to conflict situations the same way. Therefore, in order to ensure peace and stability, we must tolerate one another and try if possible to harmonise our perceptions.

Injustice: Injustice is a major cause of conflict because human nature is averse to injustice. People do not want to be cheated or denied access to what they consider important.

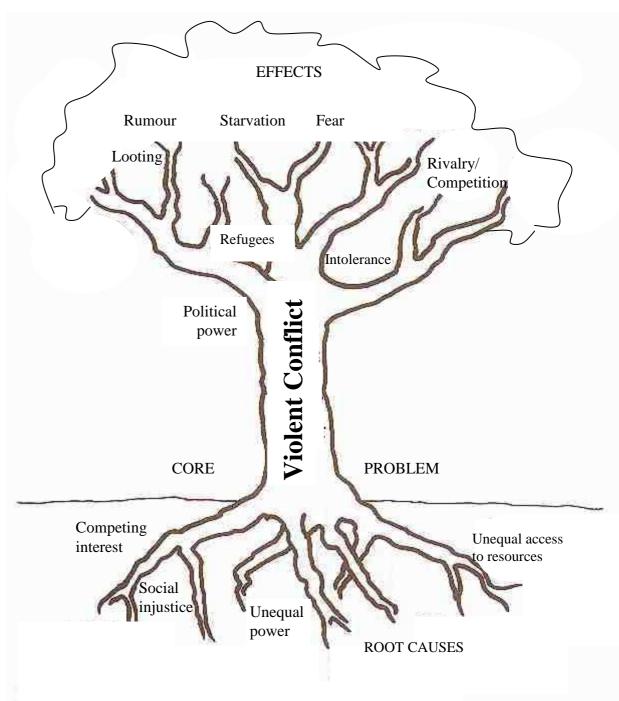


Fig. 4 Root causes versus manifestations of any conflict

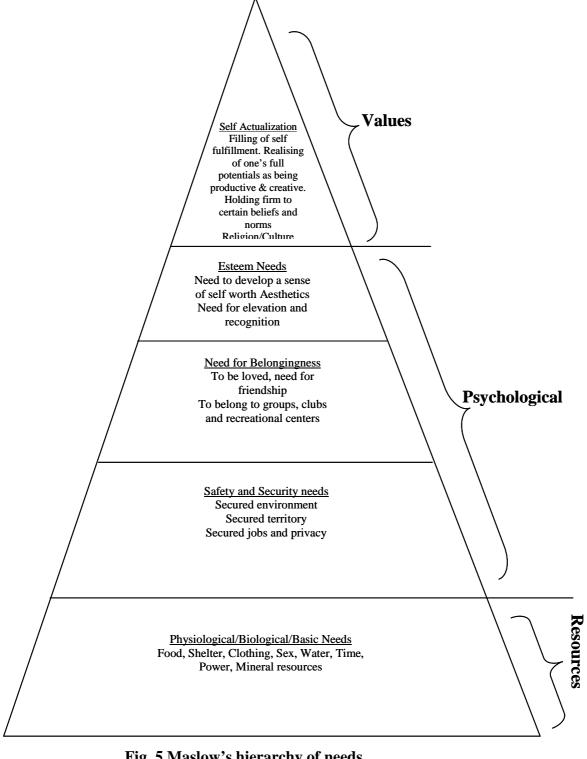


Fig. 5 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

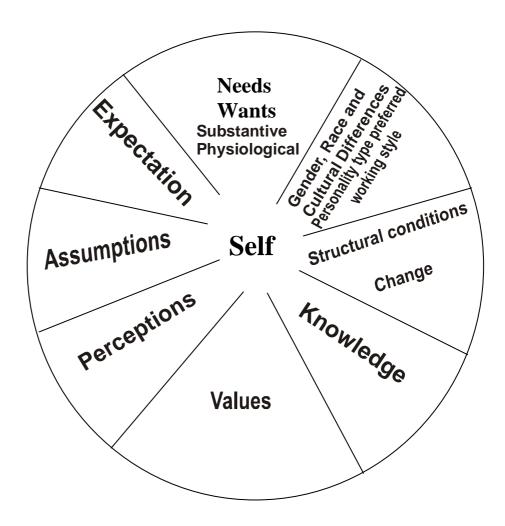


Fig. 6 Conflict causes (perceived or actual) adopted from Maslow's theory

3.4 Theories of Conflict

We have examined the definitions of conflict, its features and attributes, but here we are viewing its different perspectives. Therefore, it is necessary and crucial for us to explore the relevant theories of conflict in this section, in order to have a better understanding of how conflict scenarios emerge. The following conflict theories will be examined: biological, structural, economic, human needs realist, frustration-aggression, relational, psycho-social and cultural theories.

Biological Theory: According to Hobbes, it is inherent in human nature to be selfish, solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short. The theory believes that since man's ancestors were instinctively violent beings, and through evolution man evolved, therefore all men must bear destructive impulses in their genetic makeup. According to conflict theorists like Hobbes, St.

Augustine, Malthusian and Sigmund Freud, human beings are driven by a natural instinct to self-preservation.

To Neibuhr (1953), humans are driven by a natural quest "will-to-live" and "will to power", in order to seek power, personal security and survival at the expense of others around them. This theory also supports the innate theory of conflict which states that, conflict is innate in all social interactions among all animals, including human beings; and since human beings are the higher animal species they have the tendency of fighting naturally over things that they cherish. It is believed that conflict will be definitely inherent in man; this can be explained from man's inner properties, attributes, hormonal compositions and heredities. Therefore, the aggressive instinct will be provoked when man is being threatened and challenged.

More importantly, Sigmund Freud described the destructive tendencies in human beings as a product of a "dialectical struggle" between the instincts associated with life and survival that is called *Eros*. While the instincts associated with death are called *Thanatos*. It depicts that all societies have to learn how to control, or develop a control and coping mechanism in terms of life or death instincts. According to Freud, both instincts are always in a struggle, and the one that wins the contest of domination, will overcome and manifest itself. Whenever Eros instincts are released first, its resultant effects will be aggression against others, which tends to conflict in nature, but when Thanatos becomes an overcommer or releases first, it will be a suicide mission or a tendency of self-killing end results.

Structural Conflict Theory: In this theory, the structure of a society determines the character of its superstructure and that encompasses the political, legal, cultural, religious relations and organisations or institutions of the society. The belief of structural conflict theory is that conflict is built into the particular society due to how it is structured and organised. Thus, this theory examines the social problems like political and economic exclusion of others, injustice, poverty, disease, exploitation, inequity, etc, as sources of conflict. It maintains that conflicts occur because of the exploitative and unjust nature of human society's structure and domination of one class by another. According to Faleti (2004), Karl Marx et al blame the bourgeoisie for an exploitative system based on its relations of production and division of society into proletariats and capitalists. Exploitations create conflicts within the society, and the capitalist societies are accused of being exploitative--- this commonly results in conflict. Marx also said, we will be resolved through a revolution where the bourgeoisie will be overthrown in a socialist revolution led by the workers, which will bring about the establishment of a socialist order led by the working people.

Furthermore, there will be "socialist internationalism", a situation whereby the workers all over the world will unite, and will not be limited by state boundaries, since the state itself is an artificial creation of the bourgeoisie to dominate others.

Economic Theory: In this theory, Karl Marx states that:

In the social production of their human needs existence, men inevitably enter into definite relations, who are independent of their will, namely relations of production and the appropriate to a given stage in their development of material forces of production. The totality of these relations of production constitutes the economic structure of a society, its real foundation that arises on a legal and political superstructure, which corresponds with the definite forms of social consciousness. The modes of production of material life conditions are the general process of social, political and intellectual life.

In view of this assertion, the people in conflict are assumed to be fighting over incompatible goals, but not about, something that is material. The social conflict emerging from this could be as a result of greed or grievances. Bredal and Malone (2000:1) agree that social conflicts are generated by many factors, some of which are deep-seated in ages. The conflict has become a "functional utility" and embedded in economic disparities. Even in a war situation, the crisis is in stages of internal conflict having become a vast private and profit making enterprise.

Human Needs Theory: According to Faleti (2004), the position of human needs theory is similar to that of frustration-aggression and relative deprivation theory. He believes all humans have basic needs that they are seeking to fulfill, and the denial / frustration of such needs by the other groups or individuals could affect them or cause conflict. This is because all basic human needs include physical, psychological, sociocultural and spiritual needs in which if care is not taken, the denial of one opportunity or having fair access to another opportunity could amount frustration and aggression, which can lead to violent conflict. According to Maslow the motivational and personality proponent, the psychological needs---- safety needs, belongingness and love, esteem and self actualisation are part of the factors that cause conflict. Burton (1979:72) sees response, stimulation, security recognition, distributive justice, the need to appear rationally and develop rationality, and the need for a sense of control or the need for defense, as crucial to human survival and can lead to conflict if they are tampered with. Burton recognised food, shelter, sex and reproduction, etc, as basic things. Azar (1994) listed security, distinctive identity, social recognition of identity and effective participation in the processes that shape such identities as

basic needs. Burton said it is the relationship between frustration and aggression that forces humans to be violent in nature, due to their denial of basic needs. He further said, human needs for survival, protection, affection, understanding, participation, creativity and identity are shared by all the people, and they are irrepressible and cannot be easily given up. No matter how much a political or socio-cultural system tries to frustrate or suppress these needs, it will either fail or cause far more damage in the long run.

Frustration-Aggression Theory: According to Berkowitz and Yates (1962), this appears to be the most common explanation for violent behaviour stemming from inability to fulfill needs. Anifowose (1982:6) states that the theorists who rely on this explanation use the psychological theories of motivation and behaviour, as well as frustration-aggression. Hence, the feeling of disappointment may lead a person to express his/her anger through violence that will be directed at those he/she holds responsible or people who are directly or indirectly related to them. Nevertheless, the feelings of frustration become widespread among the populace, where many people are getting fewer opportunities than what they deserve.

Psycho-Cultural Conflict Theory: Ross (1993:18) said it depicts how enemy images are created from deep-seated attitudes about human action that are learned from early stages of growth in the explanation of conflict. He contends that though there are different forms of identities and those that are based on people's ethnic origin and the culture that is learned on the basis of that ethnic origin is one of the most important ways of explaining violent conflict.

Ross postulated that identity is seen to be the reason for social conflicts that take a longer time to resolve. Conflicts that are caused by such crisis of identity are usually the most dangerous and the most violent in nature. Identity is an unshakable sense of self worth, which makes life meaningful and includes the feeling that one is physically, socially, psychologically, mentally and spiritually safe. The view of psychosocial theory on this postulation is that the people's brains or minds could be easily manipulated towards conflict or violent conflict through aggressiveness. This theory believes that aggression is what a man can learn, and even the society sometimes teaches its members to be violent in nature, due to what is obtainable in that society. It cited the example of suicide bombers in the Middle East.

Systemic Theory: This theory sees every society as a systemic mechanism that functions together, and if there is conflict or peace in any society, the systemic media will be responsible for such. Systemic factors that may lead to changes in people's material comfort include

environmental degradation, which can reduce access to the means of livelihood, and or uncontrolled population growth, especially, in urban centres. Also are resource scarcity and its allocation through lopsided political processes and competition, the negative effects of colonial and Cold War legacies, breakdown of cherished values and traditions that play crucial social control functions, widespread poverty in the midst of plenty, the domination and marginalisation of minority groups by those in the majority, and ethnicity. These are all examples of systemic causes of conflict (Faleti, 2004:53). Systemic conflicts are found in every aspect of human life, and affect large numbers of people. Hence, the systemic factors that directly or indirectly bear much pressure on the less privileged, and the preventive strategies that are meant to support sociopolitical stability, initiate people-friendly economic and political reforms and state policies that genuinely seek to prevent or reduce conflicts between individuals and groups by seriously addressing the underlying issues often yield positive results in the long run because the people will "see" and feel the impact of such actions as soon as they begin to yield fruit.

Relational Theory: It states that the cultural and value identity differences as well as group interests all influence relationships between or among groups of individuals in many ways. In sociological perspectives, cultural value identities create the tendencies of seeing other people as intruders or interlopers that need to be prevented from encroaching on established cultural boundaries. The political perspective sees power agitation or power consciousness and its advantages that are sources of tension between or among the interest groups in the political system as conflict inducements. Where multiple groups of individuals share a common resource that is fixed in nature, the chances are that each will attempt to eliminate, neutralise or injure the "other" according to Coser, or monopolise such a resource (Maoz; 1982). The phenomenon of inferiority and superiority most often twists our perceptions of others and this invariably produces conflict.

The Realist Theory: This is similar to the biological theory, in terms of the root causes of conflict that are inherent in human nature, which seems to be selfish and engaged in the pursuit of that personalied self interest called power. Realism in Morton (1973), states that the competitive processes between actors, primarily known as states, is the natural expression of conflict by parties engaged in the pursuit of scarce and competitive interest. This theory has three component parts, which are descriptive realism that sees the world as an arena of conflict, explanatory realism which seeks to show the genetic defects that push humankind into negative behaviour (Koestler; 1967), and makes wars become inevitable, due to no mechanism or control mechanisms of

stopping them from occurrence (Walt, 1959:232); and the prescriptive realism that builds on the arguments of description and explanation.

Realism says that the decision makers have a moral justification of depending on their basic interest and ensuring self-preservation by using all necessary means. In view of this, all parties involved need to deal with the outcome and consequences of the conflict, since it is inevitable. The realist theory justifies the use of force in international relations or diplomatic relations.

Conflict Analysis

In this section, a preview analysis on how conflict situations occur in stages is the subject matter. A conflict situation progresses as the parties or groups involved are aware of an incompatible goal or value and interest between or among themselves, and an attempt to act or move to gain more advantage over opponents leads to different stages in the Lederach (1977:65) states that "a conflict is not a static phenomenon, but it is expressive, dynamic and dialectical". Invariably, each conflict situation contains certain predictable elements and dynamics that are amenable to regulations and changes. In other words, the escalation of a conflict is most often propelled by opportunity provided and willingness of the parties involved. The resources are the opportunities available to the contenders, while willingness is the desire Thus a conflict occurs, when the contenders are or need to act. convinced of such action to change their situation and are ready to execute the acts irrespective of the consequences. The time, context and history of a conflict situation are important in determining its stages; coupled with the early warning signal or conflict indicators, attributes and features. Sometimes, the parties involved pretend initially or use avoidance strategy. For example:

- from no awareness the lack of knowledge about the conflict
- to lower awareness or avoidance strategy –the awareness of the conflict and the status of the parties, but the oppressed party remains passive;
- to a higher awareness-where the parties are being educated to know the consequences and the means to organise action and response to the action;
- to confrontation between the oppressed and the oppressor by either violent or non-violent means;
- to dialogue for understanding, conciliation, bargaining or mediation;
- to the restructuring of their relationship and community to ensure peaceful relations.

Stages of Conflict

Most conflicts whether personal, group, national or international unfold through stages rather than through suddenly eruption. There are six different stages in conflict emergence, identified by conflict scholars. They are: the latent stage, emergence stage, escalation stage, optimal stage (violence or crisis point), de-escalation stage and the transformation stage, which are cyclonical in nature if the situation is not managed properly. In the actual sense, the six identified conflict stages are further sub-divided into smaller stages along the conflict graph, which are injustice, ignorance, insensitivity, intolerance, perception, communication break or gap, lack of professionalism, subjectivity and provocation – Escalation. Others are third party intervention, dialogue/negotiation, better communication, tolerance, shifting position, mutual understanding and trust - de-escalation.

Simon Fisher *et al* (2000). Identify stages of conflict as follows:

The latent stage: It is a pre-conflict stage, a period when goals between or among the parties to a conflict are incompatible, which could lead to an open conflict. At this stage, the conflict is not well known because the parties involved may be trying to hide it from public view (avoidance strategy), and communication will be undermined or distorted between them.

The emergent stage: It is the stage of manifestation and confrontation, when the conflict is well known or manifests. It is characterised by occasional arguments, disagreements, fighting, low levels of violence, search for allies by the parties involve in terms of mobilisation of resources, strained relations and polarisation.

The escalation stage: This is the stage where all the parties involved are aware that something is fundamentally wrong in their relationship. Then, they will take positions, seek support, experience communication breaks or gaps and form different alliances. The contenders attack one another, and their perception is distorted; though it may not be as severe as it is ought to be at the optimal stage, which is the violence, or crisis stage.

The optimal stage (violence or crisis stage): This is the peak of conflicts that are often violent in nature. At this stage, the outcomes vary in terms war, intense fighting, killings, injuries, population displacement and a large population of refugees, the use of small arms and light weapons, and weapons proliferation, etc.

The de-escalation stage: It is believed that all conflict situations must pass through this stage. This is a stage of cease fire declaration, or the

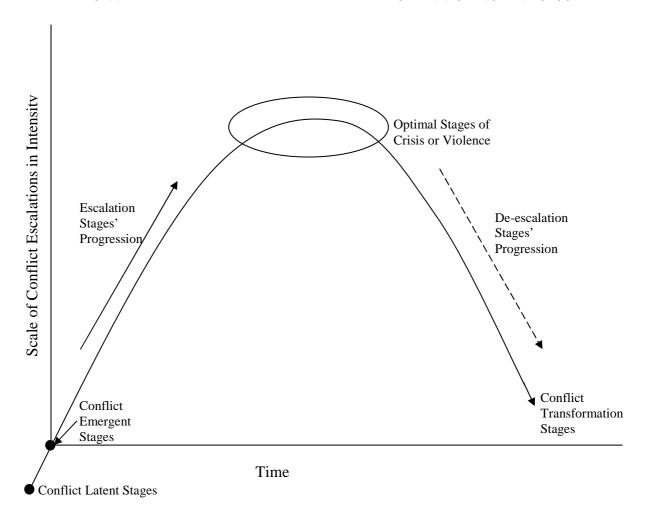
stage whereby one party may be willing to surrender through third party intervention, which could be either government intervention or the intervention of international organisations that are stronger than the warring parties. It may be an intervention that imposes cease fire situations or stops the contenders. The critical issue here is that violence and hostility must be stopped or decreased, which will give room for some discussion, dialogue and negotiations to commence, and provide alternative means of managing the conflict positively.

The transformation stage: It is a post conflict peace building stage that encompasses programmes like Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration (DDR). The violence at this stage must have ended and the crisis stage must have been overcome by the contenders. A stage that addresses all the underlying causes of conflicts and those incompatible goals creates the conflict in the first instance. The underlying causes of the conflict will be tackled, in order to prevent such cyclonical reoccurrence of conflict.

The conflict stage is referred to as a "conflict process or conflict progression". They are all constituting useful conflict components analysis. The stages of conflict can be used along as timelines, in order to analyse the conflict properly. A timeline is a simple tool that presents a chronology of a conflict situation, and tracking events back to their most distant significant point of history, which includes major events along the time continuum that affect the conflict. These include all efforts that are put into transformation of such a conflict, which may or may not have succeeded. Thus, in analysing the conflict, the background, steps or stages of conflict and timelines are interrelated so closely, and greatly enhance an understanding of the conflict within the appropriate historical and social context (Best; 2004:65-66).

Table 1: The Conflict Escalation and De-escalation Progressive Graph Table

Escalation	De-escalation
Injustice	Third party intervention
Ignorance	Awareness, dialogue and negotiation
Insensitivity	Sensitivity and mutual understanding
Intolerance	Tolerance
Mis-perceptions	Better perceptions
Communication gaps	Handle with care and professionalism
Subjectivity	Objectivity, trust and open mind sets
Provocation and	Ceasefire, post-conflict peace building and conflict
violence	transformation



Conflict Escalation/De-escalation Chart

Note: In an ideal situation, a conflict progressive graph is most often in a Zigzag manner, which will depict the different stages of the conflict.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1. What is conflict?
- 2. What are the causes of conflict?
- 3. Mention types of conflict.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has dealt with the meaning of conflict and its attributes by considering the definition, types, causes, theories of conflict, conflict escalation and de-escalation analysis.

5.0 SUMMARY

The fundamental issue about conflict emergence has been discussed extensively in this unit. You should be able to use the knowledge you have gained for the management of conflict in your area of endeavour.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What are the theories of conflict?
- 2. Define conflict and mention its types.
- 3. Discuss conflict escalation and de-escalation analysis.
- 4. Mention and discuss the causes of conflict.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 UNDERSTANDING CONFLICT

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Power and Conflict
 - 3.2 Handling Styles
 - 3.3 Issues and Actors Analysis
 - 3.4 Impact of Conflict
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Many people mistake conflict for violence. Conflict is not always destructive in nature but sometimes turns out to be positive; if it is positively handled or managed. The ability to manage the conflict situation positively or constructively is what is required from the parties involved so that the end result will not be destructive. Burton and Nwolise (2004) see "...conflict like sex, which is an essential creative element in human relationship. It is the means to change; the means by which our social values of welfare, security, justice and opportunities... indeed conflict like sex is being enjoyed". Since conflict is an inevitable and natural phenomenon, what is succinctly unacceptable to man is violent conflict.

Several causative factors responsible for the emergence of conflict in human relationships are injustice, resources, psychological needs, perceptions, incompatible goals, values, information mismanagement, etc. In other words, the prevention of a particular conflict situation requires an understanding of the dynamics of such conflict and the mechanisms of maintaining peace and stability. This is because peace is not merely the absence of total conflict, it is a product of compromise through the mutual beneficial negotiations between or among the social entities that encompass individual groups or organisations. Conflict is a functional phenomenon that helps the individual groups or organisations to identify a position and seek for justice in a positive or constructive manner. It is a tool of propelling progress, unity and development and it accelerates a creative solution to human and any other collective identity problems. Ross (2001) states that "if the disadvantaged groups and individuals refuse to consider an open conflict, they deny themselves what is most often an effective means for bringing about needed

change". Therefore, what should be avoided is destructive conflict while creative or positive conflict should be romanced.

Creative/Positive Conflict

A conflict is said to be positive when the parties involved constructively handle it. Conflict is natural or functional when its terms of management are heading to mutual understanding and development in a relationship. Burton (1972:137-136) states that it is logical that when the conflict is handled collaboratively, it will eventually bring about positive outcome through harmony, peace and order. Conflict in its positive sense brings about equity, justice, negotiation, collaboration and reconciliation.

Destructive Conflict

Destructive conflict is most often characterised with violence, in physical, metaphysical, psychological, structural, political, economical, biological, ecological and socio-cultural terms. Such conflict results or occurs due to an unequal distribution of resources, incompatible goals and values, information mismanagement and psychological needs. Destructive conflict usually undermines the needed consolidation in a relationship and even threatens the necessary mutual understanding. In short, a conflict is destructive when its interplay exceeds certain points of consensus among the parties involved.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain what conflict is all about
- differentiate between positive and destructive conflict
- explain how to properly manage conflict.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Power and Conflict

Sequel to understanding conflict, power and conflict interplay cannot be well explained without reference to leadership and followership. According to Gardner (1995:6):

Citizens must understand the possibilities and limitations of leadership. We must know how we can strengthen and support good leaders, and we must be able to see through the leaders who are exploiting us, playing on our hatred and prejudice, or taking us down dangerous paths... If we are

lazy, self-indulgent, and wanting to be deceived, if we willingly follow corrupt leaders, if we allow our heritage of freedom to decay, if we fail to be faithfully monitored by the public process-then we shall get and deserve the worst.

Having examined Gardner's statement above, it is obvious that the leadership and followership are the determinants of what is obtainable in a society in terms of peace or conflict, due to their power differential interplay. Albert (2003:1) states that, "...this is simple because leaders naturally emerge from the ranks of followers and the mastery of followership is a *sine qua non* for the master of leadership, leaders also owe their legitimacy to the followers". Lee (1993) says, "In democratic societies of the world, leaders and followers jointly decide societal goals and objectives. Therefore, their interdependence is crucial to the success of any leadership and societal development". But the mutual understanding obtainable in a society depends on interactive processes taking place between or among the social elements, in order to achieve certain aims and objectives. This phenomenon most often brings about power and conflict interplay ---this will be discussed in this section.

Power and Conflict

Power is an essential crucial element in any society and it needs to be carefully exercised in terms of leadership roles or followership roles, either in governance or other institutions in the society. Morgenthau (1966) defines power as "...anything that establishes and maintains the control of man over man, covers all social relationships which serve that end, from physical violence to the most subtle psychological ties by which one mind controls another". Hugo (1977) conceptualises power as "the ability to control the actions of others", which means power is relative and ephemeral. Therefore, power is an ability to influence or control others or events. It could manifest itself in the form of physical strength, status, control of resources, support of allies, persuasive ability, etc. Power could be hard or soft, symmetrical or asymmetrical in nature. Hard and asymmetrical power usually produces violent conflict, while soft and symmetrical power most often yields positive or constructive end results.

Boulding (1989) refers to hard power as threat power in which you have to say to a party literally, "Do what I want or I will do what you don't want". It could end up in a counter threat or defiance reaction. Boulding states that soft power can be divided to two variables---exchange power and integrative power. Exchange power deals with bargaining and compromising approach in conflict management. Also, integrative power symbolises persuasive and transformative long-term problem-solving. Folger *et. al* (1997 & 99:107), states that once a conflict is

triggered, the moves people make depend on the power they can marshal and exert. Parties' ability and willingness to use power and their skills at employing it, determine the moves and counter-moves that sustain the conflict. Available power establishes the set of actions that individuals may use and set limits on the effectiveness of others' moves. A power move usually brings about a reduction of others' options by limiting the forms of interaction that the other person can engage in, by eliminating a possible resolution to the conflict or restricting the others' ability to employ countervailing power. These constraints influence direction that shapes the parties' perceptions of each other, kindling hope or desperation, co-operation and competition.

More importantly, in the process of exercising power, leadership and followership have directly or indirectly misused power to create conflict within the society. Power differences between the leadership and the followership sometimes can set in motion pre and post conflict transformation. No wonder Folger (1997:95), defines power as the architecture of conflict. Power is the capacity or the potentiality of effective changes and even influences other people's behaviour and attitudes.

Giddens (1987:7-9) discusses power to be a "transformative capacity" that is the capacity to intervene in a given set of events, so as in some ways to alter them. He considers power to be "...the capacity to effectively decide about the courses of events, even where others might contest such decision". Hence, power is a resource or capacity that man possesses in order to exercise rights and privileges, but sometimes it creates an intense social conflict within a societal medium if it is not carefully expressed and exercised. Simon (1990:9) states that power is dispersed through the body of a society and exercised through the "discipline, surveillance, individualisation processes normalisation". To Albert (2003:12), ...its dynamics and visibility are however not always so obvious. Everybody has one form of power or the other, but not everybody knows this. Those who know their power sometimes do not know how to utilise it effectively. Leaders can exercise power over their followers; the followers too, do exercise power to overcome their leaders if it is tactically exercised, especially during the electoral period. The followers can use their power to resist exploitation, discrimination, oppression or bad governance.

According to Scration and Chadwick (1996:225) when followers fail to exercise the power they possess over their leaders, especially electorate power, the leaders most often simply assume that they have the legitimacy to engage in political criminality and irregularities. But an attempt to question their authority in power is perceived as subversive elements trying to wrest or withdraw power from them. Thereto, power

can be classified into five different types in conflict studies; they are expert, referent, legitimate, reward and coercive power. These power differentials and how they usually manifest as conflict are discussed in this section.

Expert Power: It is the ability and carrying capacity of knowledge that man has tactically or technically on a particular issue to influence others, for either good or bad. A man that is knowledgeable about a particular task is said to be powerful among those who acknowledge and appreciate such ability. The expert's ability and knowledge can salvage a society that is bedeviled by economic crisis. Power can hardly be wrest easily from leaders and (vice-versa) from the followers.

Sometimes members of the civil populace wield expert power and can manipulate or influence their leaders to do their wishes. In the process of exercising power differentials, power tussle most often snowballs to social conflict that can destroy the society's harmony.

Referent Power: This type of power is methodical and can hardly be achieved with the use of force. It is but willingly conferred on the leader by the subordinates because of the leader's distinguished service to humanity, and as a result of the degree of reverence that the people have for him. According to Albert (2003:13), Referent power is a logical product of expert power. It provides one of the ways for counteracting the problems stemming from a lack of expertise. Referent power comes out of the strong interpersonal ties, which the leaders have succeeded in building with their subordinates. Whenever a leader is respected and he is able to exercise control over his subordinates, he is said to have been exercising referent power. Referent power is the ability and capacity to influence other people's motives and behaviours, such a leader or a person that possesses referent power is seen as a role model. It is a systemic way of arrogating power to oneself through superlative charisma that distinguishes and influences others in a society. It is a common phenomenon in religious societies, especially where religious fundamentalists are in charge. They can easily manipulate their followership to any act of conflict. Referent power can also manifest itself in terms of power differential struggles among the leaders, which can eventually lead to a serious conflict.

Legitimate Power: It is a kind of power conferred on a person through the constitution of a society, and coupled with the support and backup of the populace. It operates in representative democracy. Examples are presidents, governors and senators. Legitimate power can produce conflict when it is misused. Those who occupy positions of legitimate power require the ability to use such power judiciously.

Reward Power: This is a situation whereby a person arrogates power to himself due to the control he has on certain vital resources in the society. It could be political god fatherism or economic power, which can influence or promote his subordinates' goals and interests. It is often misused by the people and commonly ends up in conflict. For example, political god fathers in Nigeria have resources like money and control of thugs to promote their candidates' interests and goals, through the manipulation of their opponents' electoral rights. In most cases the god fathers end up using coercive power against their political opponents in order to achieve their aims. Ironically, the god fathers' reward power vanishes when the followers stop recognising them Reward power ceases to be the moment the recipients of such reward fail to value it. Reward power always ends up in a conflict situation because it thrives on "give and take.

Coercive Power: This is often exercised by authoritarian leaders in any society. A good example of those who exercise such power are military dictators "It is the ability and capacity to control others through the fear of punishment or the loss of valued outcomes" (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy; 1996:131). Coercive power usually results in conflict due to its mode of expression, in terms of the application of force.

3.2 Conflict Handling Styles

Assertiveness: It is the attempt to satisfy one's own needs and a desire at the expense of other persons in a relationship, due to the incompatible goals and values perceived.

Co-operation: This is an attempt to satisfy one's needs and concerns as well as the needs of other persons.

Domination/Competition: This is a process whereby the parties involved in a conflict will be very assertive and not co-operative. It is based on egotism or a self centredness; it is a power struggle. It is a winner must take all system.

Accommodation: This is not being assertive but cooperative. It is the opposite of competition. You try to be considerate, that is, trade-off certain things for the other people's benefit; sometimes even neglect your own concerns to satisfy the concerns of other people, it is a sacrificial situation. It is selfless and generous, though it may be as a result of weakness or low self-esteem.

Avoidance: This is being unassertive and uncooperative, and it is the dangerous approach to handling a conflict. It is a way of not bothering about yourself and other persons. The contenders are aware that there is

a conflict but do not bother to address the issue. It is sometimes called a diplomatic way of handling conflict, which is, postponing the evil day.

Collaboration: This is a situation in which the contenders are assertive and cooperative. It is the opposite of the avoidance strategy. This is putting resources together in order to find a lasting solution to a problem. It involves dialogue, good listening, understanding and acceptance of one another's needs and concerns, and even creating solutions to meet the needs.

Compromise: This is being partially assertive and partially cooperative. It is reaching an agreement while considering the other party; it is an attempt to find a solution that partially satisfies both parties.

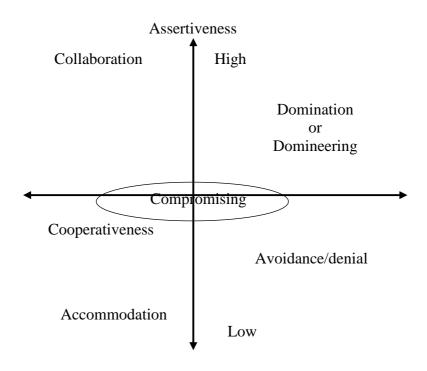


Fig.8 Conventional conflict handling styles

The four actual conventional conflict-handling styles are avoidance/denial, confrontation, joint problem solving and third party intervention strategies, which are discussed below:

Avoidance/Denial Strategy: This is a situation whereby the contenders decide to avoid each other or the reality of things that are at stake, or avoid the other person and pretend that the conflict does not exist even though they are hurt or angry. Ross (2001), states that "...if the disadvantaged groups and individuals refuse to consider an open conflict, they deny themselves of what is sometimes the most effective

means of bringing about the needed change. It is a strategy that makes one to feel more hurt, frustrated, annoyed, and resentful. It is sweeping the contention under the carpet, where it will accumulate and become unbearable one day. This strategy gives room for a win/lose option, an option whereby the gain of one person will be loss of another person. It is not the best approach in tackling any conflict as it most often produces negative results. Although it may be useful at a certain point it is not the best.

Confrontation/Fighting Strategy: It is destructive in nature and keeps on reducing the carrying capacity of a person or society. It involves threatening, pushing, hitting, yelling, hurting, the use of insult, and tenaciously holding on to one's point of view and disagreeing with the other party's view. This strategy often leads to violence and creates a lose/lose option. The parties involved lose totally; neither of the parties gets their needs. In some cases confrontation might end up in win/lose, where the stronger party will win the battle. It is a zero sum game or winner takes all.

Joint Problem Solving Strategy: This is a situation where the parties involved realise that there is a problem and they decide to solve it amicably, either through dialogue or negotiation. The parties normally show respect for individual differences and look for a way to resolve the problem. It is a situation of no winner and no vanquished. No one is wrong or right. It creates room for a win/win solution, a situation whereby both parties are satisfied with the result. They are satisfied because their needs have been met and their relationship has been restored.

Third Party Intervention Strategy: With this strategy, a mediator or an arbitrator intervenes in the conflict between or among the parties. The parties involved or another person may consult them. The mediator or arbitrator may also be interested in finding a lasting solution to their problems. It is often expected to produce good results like a win/win, but it is sometimes manipulated to be a win/lose system. The contenders must trust the interveners and once they lose confidence or trust in their mediator or arbitrator, the best option for their interveners will be to quit. Negotiation or dialogue is the tool employed by the mediator or arbitrator. The parties involved in a conflict must be ready to listen and cooperate with the mediator.

3.3 Issues and Actors Analysis

Actors (stakeholders) analysis comprises issues like actor-issues analysis, issues proliferation, conflict mapping, agenda, peace constituents and external bodies (shadow parties). They help in

addressing the issues that are at stake in a conflict situation. Actors or stakeholders are the parties that share a common interest in a conflict or are affected by it in a similar way. They are the central actors in achieving peace and stability. Actors or stakeholders' analysis helps in identifying the major contenders in a conflict, their position, interest, needs, and peace agendas. Others are to assess their capacity towards peace and conflict, and draw strategic conclusions about their position in conflict prevention and peace building activities. The purpose of this is to identify "peace constituencies", to clarify assumptions and show the potential risks and "spoilers", which will throw more light to the actual issues in the conflict. The main actors in a conflict are those that can significantly influence the conflict or are most vulnerable to it. They are primary, secondary and shadow or external actors or stakeholders.

Primary Stakeholders (Actors): These identified parties are directly involved or affected in a conflict. They are the active participants in a conflict. A conflict analyst or intervener must be able to determine their position, underlying interest, values and perceptions. The kinds of power they are exercising, either symmetrical or asymmetrical power must be known. For example in Nigeria, Ngige and Uba of Anambra State and Adedibu and Ladoja of Oyo State respectively were the primary stakeholders of the crises in the two states in 2004/2005. However other actors or stakeholders needed to be considered before the conflict could be resolved.

Secondary Stakeholders (Actors): These are the intermediary entities in conflict situations that may play a significant role, and even have the ability to affect the conflict. They could be government, non-state agencies, institutions, political parties, civil societies, religious leaders or followers, law enforcement agencies, etc.

Shadow or External Stakeholders (Actors): These are the unseen bodies, or entities in a conflict situation. They are difficult to identify. They are not directly involved and are often difficult to identify, but they have a vested interest in the conflict. They could be a donor agency, international organisation, a private organisation, religious organisation, fundamentalists or other non-governmental bodies. But their vested interest makes them to be more relevant. The shadow parties usually provide support and resources for the conflict. They can hardly be trusted because of their interest in the conflict.

Actors and Issues Proliferation

According to Mitchell (1988), Conflict has three inter-related components; that is, conflict behaviour, attitudes and context. They are in the form of a triangle with the conflict situation at the centre. The

three factors (behaviour, attitude and context) are triangulate round the issues of contention.

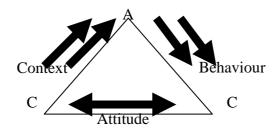


Fig.9

The conflict is all because of the goals and values perceived by the parties involved. Issues and actors proliferation is the multiplication of the people involved in an issue. If it is not well handled, it can generate a larger conflict. The issues must not be treated or dealt with at the immediate environment so as to avoid any multiplication of the actors or issues. The major causes of issues and actors proliferation are resources, values, psychological needs, information management and perceptions. Attitude has to do with the perception of the parties involved; when the parties are frustrated, or develop a negative attitude, due to the frustration or competition reinforced by the incompatible issues that are Conflict behaviour is the specific actions of the parties involved, which are directed against other parties so as to stop them from achieving their goals. In a conflict situation, the attitudes of the contenders are translated into their actions, and these are the causes of conflict. Therefore, if these attitudes are negative, the accompanying behaviour will be negative too, which could lead to a confrontational conflict. All the three reinforce each other and cause conflict.

The analysis is helpful in conflict transformation and resolution, where the interveners have to focus on removing the underlying causes of the conflict that will in turn lead to more positive attitudes and behaviours from the contenders. (Shedrack; 2004:75). A negative attitude will engender negative behaviours, which can create and sustain the conflict.

Issues Analysis

The issues analysis in a conflict must not be taken for granted in managing the situation. The issues must be identified, understood and well treated, if the intervener will achieve a positive result. There are many conflict analysis tools that can be used for conflict resolution or management, but one of them will be considered in this section, which is the avocado or onion/doughnut tool or method.

Onion/Doughnut or Avocado Method: This tool or method states that every conflict situation has three different layers, which are position, interest and needs. This method reveals that a conflict situation is always in layers, and what appears to be at the surface layer is a mere statement of the parties involved and that is actually different from their interests and needs. It compares most of the conflict situations to an onion or doughnut that has three layers; and it is expected of any conflict analyst or intervener to unravel the layers one by one before he/she can get to the innermost part of the conflict, where the interests and needs lie. The outermost (first) layer is known as position, while the peripheral (second) layer is the interest and the inner most part (third layer) is the need. In any conflict situation, the position of the parties involved may be the same but their interests and needs can hardly be the same, because the interests and the needs are often developed out of fear of the unknown and the lack of trust. Therefore, before a conflict can be resolved or managed properly, the needs of the contenders must be met.

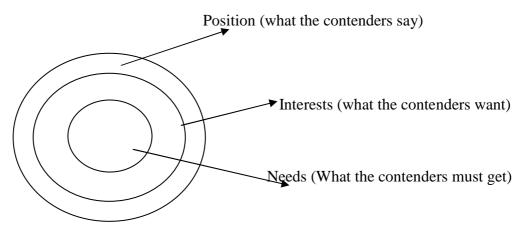


Fig. 10

Note

Initially, when the times in a relationship are stable, the relationship will be good, and the trust will be higher too. Action of the parties involved and strategies will be higher too. Whenever the reactions of the parties involved and strategies are critically studied, it will be revealed vividly that such a relationship basically stems from their needs. They may be willing to disclose the needs to their partners, and discuss them openly. But the analyst or intervener must understand their position, interests and needs very well, in order to be able to manage their conflict positively or constructively. Also, in a volatile or dangerous situation, whenever there is mistrust between the parties involved they may want to keep their basic needs in hidden; because if the other parties should

know their basic needs, it may reveal their vulnerability and weakness, and perhaps give them an extra opportunity or power to hurt them. If the parties involved are successfully hiding their needs, such a conflict may be difficult to deal with and even too difficult to transform. The knowledge lacked about their needs and mistrust may likely change their perception and orientation, if it is not critically examined.

More importantly, in a situation of a complex conflict and instability, actions may no longer come directly from their needs. The parties' actions or reactions may be collectively and abstractly different on the level of interests, and they may rely on this; or whenever they are under attack, the parties may take up their position and defend it.

Agenda and Conflict Mapping

In a conflict analysis, the agenda of the contending parties must be identified, in order to understand the exact needs that are obtainable. Understanding the position, interests and needs of the contenders is more crucial, and the power exercised by them must be understood, whether it is asymmetrical or symmetrical in nature, in order to be able to handle it properly. The contenders' relationship initially before the conflict and during the conflict must be well understood too. The conflict interveners or conflict managers must be able to handle all these conflict issues analysis with care, in order to achieve positive results.

Mapping: This involves the use of a certain symbol to describe or reflect a given conflict situation. The mapping system in conflict analysis is always drawn in such a way that the parties involved in the conflict can be easily identified, as the primary, secondary and shadow parties or stakeholders. Their relative spheres of influence and power differentials are also important, so as to know whether some parties are more influential than others or if they are of equal strength or whether the parties are connected with a good relationship or are in an alliance. It includes the nature of total relationship between or among the contenders, whether their relationship is close or cordial, fairly close, intermittent, discordant and contentious (Shedrack; 2004:73-74). It is a simple graphical and symbolic representative of a conflict situation, where the parties involved are placed in a different relationship of bond. The mapping system can be used for a variety of purposes, such as to have a better understanding of a conflict at a glance, and so as to be able to clarify their power differentials, find out where the alliance lies and to identify what has occurred in the situation.

In conflict intervention, the mapping tools or methods are essential, and the intervener must be able to interpret the symbol and should also be able to bring the contenders to the same level. They must not be allowed to express or exercise any power differentials, whether it is symmetrical or asymmetrical, so that the needed result will be achieved successfully.

Legend: It is a symbolic representation of what actually occurs in a conflict situation.

This in the represents the stakeholders in a conflict, especially the primary and secondary stakeholders. Although, the sizes of each circle may be different--- that depicts their power differentials.

: A straight parallel line that is in between the two circles represents good relationships

A uble str B arallel lines that are in between the two circles means an alliance

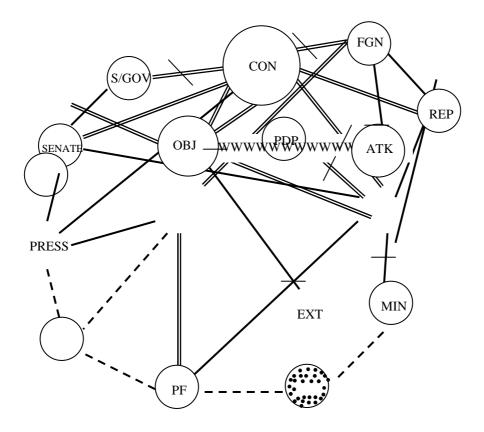
: A straight line with a cross vertical line that is in between the two circles means a broken relationship.

: Double straight parallel lines with a cross vertical lines that are in between the two circles mean a broken alliance

---: A broken line that is in between two circles means an intermittent relationship.

wwwwwwwwwww. A zigzag line that is in between two circles means a conflict situation

: A entrated dotted point in a circle with a "C" means shadow par c'e external bodies in a conflict.



Key:

0OBJ - Obasanjo

ATK – Atiku

CON – Constitution

PF – Police Force

REP - Representative

EXT - Shadow Parties

MIN – Ministers

PDP – People's Democratic Party

FGN – Federal Government

S/GOV – State Governors

Fig. 11 Stakeholders' mapping example: political crisis between Obasanjo and Atiku 2003-2007

3.3 Impact of Conflict

Since conflict is an inevitable phenomenon, it is mandatory for man to develop an appropriate mechanism on how it can be managed positively or constructively. Laue (2005:14) states that, "Conflict is an escalated competition at any system level between or among the groups, whose aim is to gain advantage in the area of power, resources, interests and needs, and at least one of the groups believes that this dimension of their relationship is mutually incompatible". To Schmid (1998:12) Conflict occurs in every society and relationship; it is a confrontation between individuals or among groups, which results from opposite or incompatible ends. In other words, means of livelihood and socio-

economic differences are responsible factors of conflict, which is inevitable in all human endeavours.

Lund (1997:2) sees the expression of hostility as attitudes over incompatible values or pursuance of divergent interest over resources, power, identity and status. Laue (1992:4) defines conflict as a permanent feature of human life and it tends itself to various definitions, by involving the escalated competition between or among two or more parties...over a set of mutually incompatible goals.

However, in as much as conflict is bi-facial in nature it could be destructive or constructive depending on the overview of the issues or forces involved. Conflict has engendered the decimation and disintegration of many societies, compelling victims to migrate or seek relatively peaceful existence locally. The attendant consequences of conflict are of great concern in contemporary discourse on the subject (Adesanya; 2005:181). The impacts of conflict have been on political, economic, socio-cultural, psychological, ecological, and health development. The attributes and features of the impact are in disagreement, disunity and distrust, collapse of economies, threat or worsened health conditions, displacement of people, environmental degradation, destruction of land and agricultural produce and other natural resources, etc.

According to Adesanya (2005:182), "Scholars and humanitarian agencies have also focused their attention on demographic and economic consequences of conflict on the vulnerable groups like women, children and the aged, and as well as physically challenged persons in the conflict situations. The nature of their vulnerability has been hitherto identified as diseases, poverty, starvation, rape and sexual violence. In this section, the impact of conflict in general will be examined.

Impact on political systems: Conflict destroys national political systems, killing current and future leaders, sowing bitterness and division between communities, destroying or altering traditional political institutions, and changing power relations and national political institutions. The genocide is targeted at populations, the distribution of power or assets depend on who is harmed or speared. The distribution of power and resources are often along ethnic cleavage or regional lines. Conflicts worsen political inequalities, for example, when the powerful are enriched by stealing assets or poverty affects a group's ability to exercise human rights. Democratic institutions are compromised when crisis suppresses press freedoms and civil rights. Conflict makes life a constant process of adopting basic insecurity and paramount crises for the generations caught up in crisis. Violent conflict threatens, intimidates or actually results to injury, destruction of lives and

properties. Repression, terrorism, mass killing, genocide, coups d'etat, civil strife, ethnic conflicts, serious wars have destroy the principles of many states. The local, national and international insecurities are caused by the incessant violent conflict. Mass population displacement and the problem of refugees cannot be overlooked among the consequences of conflict. Violent conflict erodes international order, the tenor of international relations and the viability of multilateral institutions.

Impact on economic systems: Violent conflicts and complex emergencies have profound short and long-term consequences on economic resources and institutions. Conflict destroys local and national economies, capital and investment, and even skews productive economic activity to a hopeless situation. Assets and resources are depleted, physical and social infrastructure, human capital, local economic insecurity and labour forces are destroyed or wasted. Violent conflict disrupts trade and economic activities. The investment of the public, private sectors, and aid agencies, domestic and foreign entrepreneurs will be reduced. Most of the resources that ought to be committed to economic systems are diverted to the military activities. The proliferation of arms and ammunition is one of the greatest impacts of conflict. Funds for projects like the long-term economic, agricultural processes and other development programmes will be diverted to emergency relief and reconstruction systems.

Impact of conflict on socio-cultural systems: Conflict usually destroys societal socio-cultural fabric and coping mechanisms, and often, the civil populations are the ones directly affected by and large. Returning to normal community life takes years, due to the deliberate destruction of social institutions and ways of life. It destroys wider family and kinship relationships, and exacerbates the divisions between or among groups. It also increases intra-group insecurity and hostility, disrupts inter-group economic relations, and promotes diseases. Conflict prevents people from meeting their basic needs; civilians, especially women and children usually bear the brunt of conflict. Conflict imposes special burdens on children, they are drafted to armies and the numbers of orphans and homeless children are in multiplications. It impairs physical and mental development, destroys schools, and immerses children in a culture of violence.

Psychological impact of conflict: The impact of conflict on the psyche of man has been intense and traumatic. It has turned many societies into theatres of violence. Civilians, especially women and children bear the brunt of conflict. Conflict impairs physical and mental development, destroys schools and immerses children in a culture of violence, fueling the desperation that forces children to pick up guns before they reach adulthood. The populations are displaced and many are homeless.

Impact of conflict on the ecological system: Conflict negatively affects the physical and biological components of the environment. Most times, it results in total destruction of environmental components, such as land, plants, animals, farmlands, etc. Forests and other ecological systems are destroyed.

Impact of conflict on health: Conflict results in killing, destruction, spread of disease, displacement, famine and immorality. The people rely on donors for food, water, drugs and other basic needs. The funds and resources that are supposed to be used to enhance human life are invariably used for purchasing war equipment and for organising peace missions. The health centres and hospitals get destroyed.

Impact of conflict on development: The impact of conflict on development could be positive or negative. The positive aspect of it is that after the conflict or post conflict relationship, lessons about the past would have been learnt and the people would be more careful with their relationships. It will help mutual understanding, unity and creativity. That is why Burton (1987:137-138) states that "Conflict like sex is an essential creative element in human relationships. It is the means to change, the means by which our social values of welfare, security, justice and opportunities for personal development can be achieved indeed... Conflict like sex is to be enjoyed". Conflict sometimes inspires innovative ideas and developmental competitive spirit. It is a mechanism for ensuring justice and protecting human rights. Conflict is destructive sometimes that is why Momah (1991:59) states that "Conflict in its totality is evil... It destroys or ruins, maims, changes boundaries, topples governments, peoples, and brutalises the human psyche, wrecks precious family togetherness, and most often regrettably sows the seed of other conflicts".

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1. What are the impacts of conflict?
- 2. Discuss the issues and actors analysis.
- 3. Explain the power and conflict analysis.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have successfully dealt with the understanding of conflict by considering power and conflict analysis, conflict handling styles, issues and actors analysis, and the impact of conflict.

5.0 **SUMMARY**

Since we have examined conflict and its attributes or features, there is no doubt that you would be able to manage any conflict in your area of specialisation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. Can man understand conflict? Discuss.
- 2. Discuss the impact of conflict.
- 3. What are conflict handling styles?
- 4. Can power differentials brew conflict? Discuss
- 5. Explain issues and actors analysis.
- 6. Do you subscribe to the assertion that states that conflict is a bifacial phenomenon? Discuss.

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UNIT 3 DOMESTIC AND SCHOOL VIOLENCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning of Domestic and School Violence
 - 3.2 Causes of Domestic and School violence
 - 3.3 Management of Domestic and School Violence
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
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- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Domestic violence no doubt snowballs into school violence. This is more so as the home and the school remain indispensable agents of socialisation. More importantly, the way a society is being structured determines its status and reflects what is obtainable in such a society, in terms of norms and values, socio-political systems, equality and inequality in the distribution of resources. Ekiran (2004:184) states that "The family is supposed and expected to be an arena of love, peace, harmony and tranquility where members will naturally find a haven to rest after a tension soaked and stressful working day. It is expected to be the protector and guardian of its members from external aggression among other roles". But ironically, it has become another place of tension, multifarious problems and a danger zone to many people. Therefore, in as much as school violence remains a by-product of the society's activities, school violence can hardly be independent of domestic violence.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- determine domestic and school violence
- discuss causes and types of domestic and school violence
- explain and discuss the management of domestic and school violence
- outline the impact of domestic and school violence on other components and elements of the society
- explain and discuss domestic and school violence extensively.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meaning of Domestic and School Violence

Domestic violence defies precise definitions or meanings; nevertheless, it can still be defined as: Violence that is physically or metaphysically directed towards another member of the family, by a member of the same family. This can threaten or reduce the ultimate well being of such a family.

According to Gidden (1998:163), it is a sort of domestic and physical abuse that is directed by a member of the same family against another member or to other members of another family, which could manifest itself in the form of an aggressive behaviour. It can also be regarded as unruly behaviour, whereby members of the same family are at each other's throats. It is internal aggression perpetuated by a member or members of the internal living arrangement that is aimed at a member or other members of the domestic union (Ekiran; 2004:185). It is now a known fact that the home has become a dangerous place to many people and a person of any age or of either sex is liable to domestic violence at any time. In a situation like this, children bear the end result of such violence especially when it is between husband and wife. (1998:163) states that women are said to be more on the receiving end of family violence than other members of the family. He also said that many wives are found to be as violent to their husbands and children, as many husbands are to their wives and children. Females are sometimes more restrained than males. Wife battering, which is the actual physical brutalisation of wives by husbands is hardly reciprocal or the other way round. Therefore, once there is violence in the family, every member of the family will be one way or the other affected. The following are types of domestic violence: physical and emotional child abuse; wife and husband battering; sexual violence; psychological assault; molestation; coercion and gender violence. We will examine all these but you will need to elaborate on them.

Physical and Emotional Child Abuse: This is physical application of force against children or maltreatment of children in the home. This has transformed many children to homeless miscreants, as a lot of them in this situation stay in the garages or sleep under bridges along the streets-all because their homes have become places of tension and danger zones. Millions of children worldwide dread their families and are even seeking for an alternative to human interaction. Such children engaged in drug trafficking and drug abuse, become notorious, become street traders and fighters, armed robbers, assassins and fraudsters.

Wife and Husband Battering: Wife battering, which is the actual physical brutalisation of wives by husbands is hardly reciprocal and hardly happens the other way round. Women are less physically strong than men, but in spite of this all members of the family are usually affected.

Sexual Violence: This has to do with sexual abuse and harassment, unwanted or undesired sexual relationships, sexual intimidation, forcible sexual intercourse or rape and prostitution. Sexual violence can be severe and traumatic. Sexual violence can result in diseases like HIV and AIDS. Sexual violence is not only physically injurious to the victims and perpetrators, it is also psychologically damaging. Even the psychological damage resulting from such experiences can be far worse than the physical damage.

Psychological Assault: This usually manifests itself in trauma and has a great effect on human reasoning. It also usually manifests itself in frustration and aggression which the victim may transfer to a nearby person or object.

Molestation: This can occur in any form; it is getting annoyed or being frustrated within the family, due to a misfortune or being unfortunate, or being unable to attain certain goals. It might be sexual harassment or loss of virginity, being insulted at a tender age; though it depends on the family's cultural norms, values and belief system.

Coercion and Gender Violence: This is a situation of gender discrimination and the use of force between male and female in the family. It could be in the form of unwanted or undesirable relationships within the family. The parents sometimes prefer one sex to the other, and this can cause enmity, animosity, disagreement, disunity and distrust for life, within the family. Such a situation can result in family collapse.

3.2 Causes of Domestic Violence

The factors responsible for domestic violence are many, but we shall discuss a few associated factors in this section. They are cultural norms; diversity of family; family legacy of violence; situational stress; social isolation; non-religious affiliation; parental rights of maintaining children's discipline; poverty and moral ineptitude.

Cultural Diversity of Family: There are some societal norms that may encourage child labour, those who value such norms prefer female children. The male children may need to resort to begging. The ladies are always given better treatment, purposefully for teenage marriage. They hardly go to school; the situation ends up producing frustrated

youth that become tools of violence in the hands of religious fanatics and dishonest politicians. Such children would have been maltreated right from their homes and so they take out their frustration on the larger society. "Some cultures are prone to be violent and believe in the use of violence so as to maintain the status quo or to achieve their desired goal. The pattern of child rearing in many societies endorses violence. Most children must have at one time or another been shaped by either of or both of parents' ideas if only in a minor way" (Anderson, and Sabatelli; 1999:188, Ekiran; 2004:185). This is a reflection of what is obtainable in such a society's culture.

Male domination of the family system with a corresponding use of physical force to maintain home stability is another form of domestic violence. Women are subordinate and not recognised on vital issues concerning family or home, and even in the affairs of their children. For example, Tivs culture allows men to marry many women for sexual comfort; whenever a man has an august visitor he subjects his women to sexual relationship with such a visitor. This results in domestic violence.

Family Legacy of Violence: Domestic violence here originates from the family's history. Some families are aggressive; domestic violence is inbuilt in their genetic makeup. It may be due to an environmental factor in the past. A family or home would then be said to have a history of violence that is passed to the offspring.

Situational Stress: It is most often traumatic and psychological in nature; this may be after a day's work when a person might have been over-worked in the workplace. If care is not taken, it could result in a transfer of aggression to another person. It may also occur as a result of relative or total deprivation of an opportunity, after much expectation.

Social Isolation: Some men forbid their children and wives from associating or interacting with the other members of the family or society. Such a situation may affect those involved to the extent that their mode of conduct in the society will be barbaric ---due to their lack of exposure. Some religious ethics are also responsible for this.

Non-religious Affiliation: Some religious groups teach people how the needed peaceful co-existence can be achieved. If a family is not attached or affiliated to any religious society, it may lack the good religious ethics that can help to stabilise peace in the home. The religious societies also help in educating parents on how to bring up their children properly.

Child discipline: This is in two phases; first and foremost is a situation whereby the children lack proper parental care. The second situation is that in which the children are over disciplined and even get battered in the process. Sometimes over- discipline of children ends up producing street boys and girls. In such a situation, the children may abandon the home, due to victimisation and child abuse. Early marriage is another factor that leads to domestic violence; there is a probability that those that marry at a tender age would engage in physical combat because of their immaturity.

Poverty: Poor families are more prone to violence than wealthy families. The fact that their basic needs are lacking gives room for child labour and child abuse. Children may end up as street boys and girls, fighters, thugs, armed robbers, and fraudsters.

Moral Ineptitude: Excessive intake of alcohol which leads to intoxication, sexual violence and immorality are examples of moral ineptitude. In some cases, the female children from homes where these prevail give birth to children whose fathers cannot be identified.

Impact of Domestic Violence

The impact of domestic violence is twofold: the impact of domestic violence on vulnerable groups and the impact of domestic violence on the society.

The Impact of Domestic Violence on Vulnerable Groups: Domestic violence affects the vulnerable groups like women and children more, both at home and within the society generally. They suffer malnutrition, maltreatment, human trafficking and child abuse. These vulnerable groups sometimes exchange their rights and values for their basic needs, in order to survive. Abandoned wives and female children could permit sexual exploitation and harassment in exchange for their basic needs. In most cases, they lose the opportunity of getting basic education and health care. Divorce is another negative result of domestic violence; it often leaves children confused.

The Impact of Domestic Violence on Society: Most of the time children who are victims of domestic violence are tools in the hands of unscrupulous politicians and religious fundamentalists.

School Violence

School violence can be defined as an uncomfortable behaviour expressed by the people in schools, through anger or dissatisfaction, due to the unsatisfactory services rendered to them, that threaten the achievement of their goals within or outside the school system.

According to Ekiran (2004:189), "Campus violence or any type of violence for that matter, could be described as unruly behaviour perpetrated by its perpetrators to express anger and dissatisfaction over some social issues that the perpetrators feel have affected them or are likely to affect them one way or another". It is an aggressive behaviour that more often than not involves physical combat that could inflictbodily and psychological injury on both the perpetrators and innocent people. Unfortunately, it has now spread to the secondary schools and More importantly, campus violence is a by-product of domestic violence. Thus, children that experience violence from home will grown up to be violent in nature. Those who have been exposed to or are victims of domestic violence are more likely to employ violent methods in tackling issues with their colleagues and school authorities. According to Omololu (2004: 50), "Campus violence is of course defined in terms of the adjective 'violent' to refer to any deliberate or forceful act that can cause or is capable of causing physical harm or injury and damage to the body of a person or property. The definition may also be expanded to include acts like sexual harassment that may cause emotional or psychological damage." Campus violence is one of the major challenges of contemporary society and educational system. It is a problem that has attracted the attention of all stakeholders in both the larger society and educational environments; they include students, teachers, school administrators, parents and government. It is a greater threat to peace and stability in higher institutions and colleges, causing unnecessary and avoidable disruptions to the academic calendar and impacting negatively on the quality of education.

Anifowose (2004: 68) describes it as when some students or groups of students within an educational system over step their bounds, either legitimately or illegitimately in an attempt to express certain ill feelings or demands to the extent that students, other individuals or groups within the system suffer some degree of its constraints. For example, in the last three decades, students' violence in Nigeria's tertiary institutions has risen in scope and intensity to the point of threatening the Academic work has been disrupted and many educational system. campuses have remained shut for many months because of periodic violent outbursts. That was why the Gowon regime in 1974 stated that the reaction of the student community throughout the country, due to the Ibadan incident of 1st February was one of lawlessness, arson, assault of law enforcement agents and boycott of classes. At Lagos University, five policemen were kidnapped and held hostage. At Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, a soldier was held hostage and beaten up. At the University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University), the students got into the police post there and burnt the furniture. At the University of Benin, the students deflated vehicle tyres and smashed vehicle screens. Sometimes school violence supersedes other forms of violence in terms

of frequency of occurrence, volatility and effect on the entire society. The following kinds of school violence will be examined in this section: cultism, sexual violence and harassment, unionism, sports hooliganism and religious violence.

Types of School Violence

Cult Violence: Cultism is a serious problem in our educational system. Omololu (2004:51) states that closely associated with campus violence is campus "cultism". The cult groups are also referred to as secret societies due to their clandestine nature. While members of some "secret societies" like Armoc and Ogboni Confraternity are known to the public, the university cult members and their activities are not so well known. Since members of such secret cults are not known, no one can claim to be responsible for their activities. One of the earliest reported incidents of cult related violence occurred in 1981 at the University of Lagos. Ever since then, there has been a catalogue of incidents. For example, on October 9, 1992, there was a confrontation between two rival cults that resulted in the death of a student in the University of Ibadan (Ifaturoti; 1994:150). Various offences such as arson, rape, murder, vandalism, looting, robbery and intimidation of persons on the university campuses have been attributed to the phenomenon of secret cults. In several instances, weapons like axes, machetes, knives and even guns have been reported to be freely used in inter-cults violence. Cultism involves many people and even a few school administrators are alleged to support cult activities on campuses, in terms of either sponsoring or harbouring cult members. The situation has deteriorated to the extent that schools, which should be places of exchange of knowledge and ideas have become places where secret cults battle for supremacy. The cults exhibit a hierarchical structure that comprises leadership and followership.

Sexual harassment: Physical harassment and assault can occur, due to the refusal of a lady to enter a relationship with male students or members of staff. Sexual harassment can also occur as a result of the way some females dress--- half-naked. Some are prostitutes within and outside the campuses. Sometimes victims are abducted at parties or at social concerts (Omololu; 2004:339). Sexual violence is not only physically injurious to the victims it is also psychologically traumatic. The psychological damage done by such experience is far worse than the physical one. This is because, almost all persons involved experience a sense of victimisation, and the feeling that one has lost a measure of control over one's world (Feldman; 1995). Hagan (1998: 203) described sexual harassment as "...an unwelcome, uninvited, coercive, or threatening sexual attention, often in a non reciprocal relationship". Sexual harassment is just a step to sexual assault and rape. If the

environment is conducive sexual assault and rape usually follow sexual harassment.

Unionism: This usually occurs through the activities of students' union bodies. It could be as a result of perceived un-tradable need for social amenities, or activities of law enforcement agents or even government. It may start as a mere protest, which often turns out to be violent or riotous at the end. For example, in 1971, the insistence of the students of University of Ibadan on the removal of a catering manageress later ended in the killing of Kunle Adepeju---a student---by the police. The Kunle Adepeju memorial service which is held on 1st of February of every year is usually a cause for violence.

The riots are becoming a feature of the Nigerian educational system, and they are manifest mainly in Nigeria's tertiary institutions. This has strengthened the belief among students that violence or force is the midwife of development and progress. Abduction of people is also another form of the campus violence. Those abducted are the "enemies" at a particular time; they could be the vice-chancellor, registrar, accountant, deans, heads of department, hall wardens, teachers, or any of the staff's relatives.

Sports Hooliganism: This commonly occurs during inter-schools' sports competitions. At such events many students are sometimes reportedly maimed or killed and property destroyed.

Religious Violence: This is a situation whereby a religious event that should be peaceful is allowed to become violent. Many times it is because one religious group is trying to claim supremacy or superiority over the others.

Other activities that lead to school violence are examination malpractice, harassment and threat or intimidation of lecturers for marks, forceful and illegal disruption of examinations and seizure/destruction of examination materials such as answers scripts, and physical assault on invigilators.

Causes of School Violence

The causes of school violence can be classified into the following factors: Socio-political factors; lack of control mechanisms; the need for social amenities; embargo on students' unionism; cult rivalry; communication break; socio-economic distortions; youthful exuberance; peer influence and inadequate parental control.

Socio-Political Influence: Students have increasingly come to realise that the use of force often produces the desired outcomes in contrast with persuation. Thus, governmental repressive control measures through the police against real or imagined opposition and protesters in the larger society are models behaviour which can give rise to private violence as a medium of protest(Anifowose 2004:71). Students therefore see themselves as the only pressure group in the society that can effectively challenge the government to effect changes. violent protests on the campuses on different occasions have been triggered by demonstrations against any government policies that are unacceptable and unpopular, such as the withdrawal of subsidies, and encroachment of the civil and political liberty of society. It is also believed that the agents within the schools and outside schools, or individuals sometimes use students to foment violence for their ulterior motives. Military incursions in African countries' socio-political systems are responsible for violence in schools.

Lack of Control Mechanisms: State security agents abuse the power given them since the generality of the people do not seem to know the extent to which these law enforcers should use force or violence. Often school violence is precipitated and escalated by resentment against the states' security agents that are drafted into quell students' violence.

The Need for Social Amenities: The inability or failure of the relevant authorities to provide necessary social amenities and meet the demands of the students often results in school violence, more so when peaceful conventional channels have failed.

Embargo on Students' Unionism: The incessant imposition of ban on student unionism by the schools' authorities or government often triggers agitations that result in confrontational behaviour. The student union is seen by the students as the only potent instrument of bargaining with the government and university authorities for meeting their demands. Once the student union is banned, students will not be able to exercise their rights, and in a reaction to this they take laws into their hands and protest violently.

Cult Rivalry: It is no longer news that cult rivalry claims many peoples' lives and destroys property. The issues could be on position, money or amorous relationships. The cult clash at Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife in 1999, was said to have claimed the lives of eight students; the trouble was said to have been caused by the institution's chapter of the Black Axe Confraternity. Another case was the one at the University of Uyo in 1996, where the Ku-klux klan engaged the Vikings Confraternity in a battle; four students lost their lives through the use of dangerous weapons. A bloody confrontation among members of the

Black Axe Confraternity threw Enugu State University of Technology into confusion some years back (Ekiran; 2004:193). Even attempts at anti-cultism campaign programmes on campuses sometimes lead to violence.

Break in Communication: Information management is very crucial; bad management of information can lead to a misunderstanding which will result in violence.

Socio-economic Distortions: The formulation and implementation of bad socio-economic policies are other reasons for school violence. Students are no longer serious due to the bad economic situation; they prefer to seek for means of the livelihood at all costs--whether good or bad. In Africa students protest violently if they feel the economic situation is unfavorable.

Youthful Exuberance: Many university students are immature and delight in violence. This may be due to the relatively high degree of autonomy or independence they enjoy. Some simply enjoy deviant behaviour. Some others operate under the influence of peer pressure.

Inadequate Parental Control: Some students happen to be people who are not properly brought up; people who are over pampered and whose views about life are wrong. For example, there have been various allegations that most cult members are the children of the elite who use their positions, contacts and influence to protect their children in order to avoid any punishment for their wrong doing (Omololu; 2004).

Impact of School Violence

A Culture of Violence: School violence simply promotes a culture of violence in the society. This leads to thuggery, armed robbery, corruption and bad governance, which are the bane of developing countries.

Loss of Educational Virtues and Values: A situation of constant violence will promote confusion. The students will develop wrong values and acculturate negatively. They are likely to regard vices like laziness, violence, robbery and terrorism as virtues.

Destruction of Lives and Property: Violence often results in the destruction of lives and property worth huge sums of money.

3.3 Management of Domestic and School Violence

Management of Domestic Violence

Re-orientation Programmes: The society should be given a re-orientation on how to handle issues that are at stake within families. Such re-orientation programmes should encourage people to avoid early marriages because they usually result in divorce, wife and children battering, promiscuity, infidelity and child abuse. The re-orientation campaigns should involve the use of the mass media; it should also be channeled through public enlightenment programmes. The religious groups should be involved too.

Home Planning System: Families should be encouraged or courageous enough to have proper planning; they should plan how to take good care of the family and all that pertain to it. Families should build discipline and godliness into their members. The heads of families should ensure the needs of family members are met, to prevent or at least reduce domestic violence. The vulnerable groups within the families and homes should be well cared for too in order to avoid sexual violence, fraud hooliganism and armed robbery.

Home Conflict Management Mechanisms

Conflict management mechanisms or systems that specialise in home and family affairs should be established within the society; they will be responsible for managing home conflict. Since domestic conflict may not be intense those involved should be discouraged from going to court. Court procedures are too cumbersome and they take time to resolve. Besides, several family conflict situations can hardly be resolved in the law court because of their peculiarity. Therefore, home and family conflict management mechanisms that ensure thorough negotiation and reconciliation should be encouraged.

Management of School Violence

We shall consider the following: better planning and managerial skills, provision of social amenities, good educational programmes and better security measures.

Better planning and Managerial Skills: School authorities and government need to ensure better planning and good managerial skills for all schools. They should be able to fashion out new administrative and managerial strategies, to ensure and maintain peace in the institutions.

Provision for Social Amenities: This is the major problem that always leads to violence in schools. Many schools or campuses lack basic social amenities, they experience water shortage, and power failure; besides, the hostel facilities are unhealthy. As a matter of fact, to remove a major source of students' unrest, the government should commit substantial fund to the education sector, and the school authorities should also use the fund provided judiciously, especially in the higher institutions.

Good School Programmes: Good academic programmes should be entrenched into the schools' curricula in order to create stiff competition among the students. This will reduce social vices on campuses. Adequate provision of basic facilities that are required for academic exercises should be made; such as laboratory equipment, good libraries and comfortable classrooms or lecture theatres. The authorities of each school should provide for scholarship awards or reward schemes for their best students to encourage them.

Good Security Measures: The government and the school authorities should provide good security measures to ensure peace. The school administrators should handle crises rationally, with dispatch, in order to avoid exacerbation of such crises and the escalation of violence. Since conflict is inevitable, it is therefore mandatory for people to fashion out better strategies to manage it constructively or positively. More importantly, the use of the police force to suppress or quell school protests should be carefully done. School administrators should have very effective security arrangements to handle the issue of cultism; measures should actually be put in place to eradicate cultism.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1. What is domestic violence?
- 2. What is school violence?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have dealt with domestic and school violence by looking at their meaning, types, causes, impact and management. You should be able to differentiate between domestic violence and school violence.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has extensively discussed and explained domestic and school violence. You are expected to broaden your knowledge on the topic.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1a. What is domestic violence?
- b. State types of domestic violence.
- 2a. What is school violence?
- b. State types of school violence.
- 3. Discus the causes and impact of school violence.
- 4. Explain the management of domestic violence.
- 5. Explain the management of school violence.

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UNIT 4 VIOLENT CONFLICT AND SECURITY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Violent Conflict and Security
 - 3.2 Effect of Violent Conflict on Security
 - 3.3 Preventive Measures of Violence
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Indeed, the effect of violence on security of any society cannot be underestimated; in terms of the risk of lives, destruction of the properties, disunity, distrust, psychological pains and traumatic agony, accumulation of miscreants and thugs, underdevelopment, disintegration, displacement, socio-cultural problems etc. All these and more will make up the subject in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss violence and security
- state the effect of violence on security
- discuss the effect of violence on security
- suggest possible solutions to the effect of violence on security
- propose necessary solutions to insecurity.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Violent Conflict and Security

Violent Conflict

Violence is destructive. It may be directed at either animate or inanimate objects. The most obvious form of violence is overt physical assault on another person or group of persons. Violence is associated with illegitimate or legitimate use of force. In political systems, violence occurs when groups or individuals overstep their constitutional bounds

to the extent that some other groups experience some degree of constraints (Anifowoshe; 2004:67). Violence has been used by the groups seeking power, or by the groups holding power, and by groups in the process of losing power. It has been also pursued in the defence of order by the privileged, in the name of justice by the oppressed, and in fear of displacement by the threatened (Anifowose; 1982:1). Max Weber (1966:506) states that "The state owns the exclusive right of use of violence against its elements and components, and the state's elements or components may use violence to the extent or degrees permitted by the state's authorities". Bruce (1968:111-112) states that "Violence has always been part of the political process... protest activities of one form or another efforts to dramatise grievances in a fashion that will attract attention and ultimately the destruction or threatened destruction of life and property appear as expressions of political grievances even in stable, consensual society...".

For example, state security apparatus like the police is legitimately to administer law and order through the use of violence. Violence can therefore become illegitimate; when used by the state's security apparatus when its use of violence is questionable or brutal in nature. But when violence is legitimately used, it is often not equated with or seen as violence. The state's use of violence is considered to be proper when it is carried out through recognised accepted channels.

Violence manifests itself in a variety of forms that include riots, political assassinations, demonstrations, revolutions, civil wars, coup d'etats, guerrilla warefare, suicide, lawful or unlawful arrest, etc. The effect of violence cannot be underestimated, when it is negatively exercised either by the state or by non-state actors. Its intense effect causes risk of lives and property, disunity, psychological pains and trauma, disintegration, displacement, socio-cultural problems, underdevelopment, etc.

Security

Security can be simply defined as orderliness, stability and peaceful coexistence, the absence of fear, threats, anxiety, tension and apprehension of losing life, liberty, property or other important goals and values. "A nation is said to be secure to the extent that it is not in a position to lose its core values of life, property and liberty, if it wishes to deter aggression or win war when it is unavoidable" Lipmann and Aja (1999:31). In other words, the relationship between life, services and security is crucial. It is serves as a protective measure, medium, substance and insulator of life to all other sectors in a system. No nation or a reasonable society will take the issue of security for granted or carelessly. Security is the state of being free from the terror of threats stress, strain or fear of losing life and values of life. Types of security are: political, domestic, economic, industrial, human and others such as work place security.

3.2 Effects of Violent Conflict on Security

The degree of the use of violence within a state or any society is in disparity between or among all the state's or society's elements like state's institutions, non-state actors, groups and individuals. In addition, the fact that the state's institution or authority has exclusive right of violence use over the people creates an imbalance in their relationship with the people. Often, the state misuses its legitimate right to use violence and this usually creates confusion and crises. The resultant effect of this within the state is insecurity that may yield disunity, distrust, trauma, agony, disintegration, displacement and underdevelopment.

Political and Structural Disruption: The effects of violence on the political security of any society or state may be disunity, distrust, disagreement, agitation, and total disharmony. Such a society will definitely lack the needed mutual understanding, which is the basic need for the attainment of its goals. In a situation like this, the socio-political structure would be disrupted and this could result in insecurity and socio-economic problems. The security needs of both the state and its population at large will be disrupted.

Psychological Pain and Agony: Violence is psychologically painful and traumatic. It results in weapon proliferation, thuggery, assassination, murder, armed robbery and anarchy. The ex-combatants that are not disarmed and reintegrated into the society will be dangerous and definitely transfer their frustration and aggression to the society.

Displacement and the Emergence of Refugees: The displaced persons who become refugees will be dangerous to the security of any society. All because the refugee camps are full of different characters. Also as people become displaced, they are vulnerable to threats of personal security. Their living conditions will encourage the spread of diseases. They will lack access to food, water, medicine and shelter, and most often will rely on donors for survival.

Underdevelopment: The effect of violence on security will definitely bring about underdevelopment in the society, since violence involves the destruction and disruption of the society's components and its features. Due to the individuals' agitation for means of livelihood, there will be an increase of cases of unemployment, youth restiveness, gangsterism, robbery, fraud, drug trafficking and abuse and assassinations.

Crime and Arms Proliferation: Violence will naturally produce feelings of insecurity in the society, which may be generally dominated by the hoodlums. People will then begin to acquire arms unlawfully, for protection and vengeance. This on its own will encourage trafficking in arms and weapons of destruction. It is difficult in today's world to find a society that is capable of controlling arms trafficking effectively.

Human Rights Violation: There is no doubt that in any violent situation, there will be violation of human rights. This is because, in violent situations norms and values of the society will be totally ignored. Many people will be killed and abused. Violence runs counter to fundamental human rights set out to include: the right to life; the prohibition of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment, as well as torture; and the right to freedom and security.

Structural Disruption: This has been a major problem to all societies because violence usually ends up disrupting the social structure of a society. It will lead to a large concentration of the poor, homeless and unemployed people who can easily be recruited for political violence. They are the categories of people that turn a peaceful demonstration into a bloody confrontation.

Subversion: This is in connection with the unlawful activities of individuals or organisations, which seek to discredit or overthrow a government. This type of unlawful activity includes the illegal acquisition of weapons in an anticipation of the fall of a government and the subsequent disturbances connected with the breakdown of law and order.

Sabotage: This is a deliberate unlawful act committed by individuals or organisations with the aim of embarrassing or undermining a government and its security machinery, so as to create a general feeling of poor security in a society. Acts of sabotage are mainly targeted at the essential facilities and services, such as public buildings and transport systems.

Ethnic and Social Agitation: It could be through protests, demonstrations or disturbances and militancy that intend to display a loss of patience and trust in the state or another organisational authority. Social agitations carried out by young people and students in particular have occurred in dangerous proportions, with the demonstrators using unlawfully purchased arms.

Ethnic problems develop in a multi-ethnic society, where different groups are formed on ethnic or tribal bases. Societal integration will be jeopardised when these groups assert their ethnic or tribal interests in a militant manner. Ethnic and social agitation includes ethnic hatred, discrimination and oppression, religious and ideological conflict and socio-economic deprivation. Others are political inequality and marginalisation, infringement of rights, injustice, inadequate channels of peaceful communication, existence of violent traditions, disaffection weakness of government, police and judicial organs and erosion of confidence in the regime.

Terrorism: Insurrection is a rebellion against a government, while the terrorism is connected with an act of violence and intimidation carried out for a specific purpose. Resistance movements that engage in armed struggle create a crisis around a certain phenomenon. Armed struggle and terrorism can only occur if the rebels and terrorists have previously taken care of acquiring firearms, ammunitions and explosive substances, which can only of course be acquired unlawfully.

3.3 Management of Violent Conflict and Insecurity

Preventive measures are the necessary steps taken in ensuring maximum security in any society that encompasses good governance and peace building that are the subjects of this section.

Good Governance: The essence of good governance is to guarantee a congenial environment where aspirations and lawful activities can be carried out freely to ensure stability and development. It is the running of the affairs of a responsible government of any society, in a manner that produces progress and development for the government and the governed. Good governance comprises economic reconstruction, demobilisation and reintegration of all armed forces, ensuring public safety and security, preventing the renewal of hostilities, restoration of the rule of law that include human rights protection, confidence-building programmes between the security forces and the civil society; developing a vibrant and educated civil society that understands security issues and concentrates attention on reform at all levels; and a conducive political landscape (including strong leadership, political parties and a system of parliamentary supervision).

It is a process whereby the policy makers duly take the necessary actions and right decisions. Such governance easily gains the backing of the citizens. Therefore, the good governance prevents the emergence of violence and even ensures maximum security in any society.

Peace Building: This should be in the short and long term programme, it is a required measure for removing the causes of violence and a way of strengthening the social structures of any society. Peace building could be a post conflict measure that forestalls the eruption of violence

in future. It should strengthen the socio-political structures of any society. It is an aggregate of actions and measures that need to be taken after the cessation of violence, to prevent any renewal of such event.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1. Discuss the effect of violence on the security of any society.
- 2. What are the preventive measures required?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have successfully dealt with the effect of violence on security.

5.0 SUMMARY

The effect of violence on security has been discussed and explained better in this unit. It is therefore expected of you to develop your horizon on it.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. Mention and discuss the effect of violent conflict on the security needs of any society.
- 2. Discuss security and violent conflict.
- 3. Mention the preventive measures and discuss them.

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UNIT 5 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Conflict Management
 - 3.2 Alternative for Dispute Management
 - 3.3 Multi-track Diplomacy
 - 3.4 African Traditional Methods of Conflict Resolution
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Conflict management strategies are the strategies required for the peaceful existence of the society. Therefore, in this unit, the various issues on these strategies of conflict management that will be examined are the alternatives for dispute resolution, multi-track diplomacy and African traditional methods of conflict resolution.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss conflict management
- mention and discuss the various alternatives or dispute resolution mechanisms
- mention and discuss the multi-tracks diplomacy
- discuss African methods of conflict resolution.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Conflict Management

The issue of conflict resolution and management has been a point of argument among the scholars of conflict studies. To many scholars, conflict management can only be achieved while its resolution is an ideal phenomenon and unachievable; it is like healing a wound and removing its scar. Maill *et al* (2001:21), state that, "Conflict resolution is an expected situation where the deep-rooted sources of conflict are addressed and resolved, and the behaviour is no longer violent, nor the attitudes hostile any longer and the structure of the conflict has been

changed". Mitchel and Banks (1996), said, "Conflict resolution is an outcome in which the issues in an existing conflict are satisfactorily dealt with, through a solution that is mutually acceptable to the parties, and self sustaining in the long run and productive of a new positive relationship between the parties that were previously hostile adversaries. It is also a process or procedure by which such an outcome is achieved". But in the actual sense, conflict is an inevitable phenomenon that keeps occurring in all human relationships. It has been a fundamental question that is unanswered by the scholars of conflict resolution, because in principle conflict resolution connotes a sense of finality. But reflecting on the advocates of conflict resolution's definitions, it is vividly revealed that resolution is unachievable. No wonder Best (2004:95), states that, "The term conflict management is perhaps an admission of the reality that conflict is inevitable, more importantly conflict on values can never be resolved. Therefore what the practitioners can do is to manage and regulate them".

What is conflict management? Conflict management is the transition from a hostile nature, attitude, behaviour and character of the contenders in a conflict to its termination, and the cessation of hostilities through negotiation, conciliation, joint problem solving and third party intervention. It is synonymous with conflict regulation and prevention that covers the entire area of handling conflicts positively at different stages. According to Best (2004:95), "Conflict management includes those efforts made to prevent conflict by being proactive, which also encompass conflict limitation, containment and litigation". Conflict management involves its transformation as to build longer standing relationship through the process of change in the perceptions and attitudes of the parties involved. According to Jeong (2000), "Conflict transformation entails the coming into being of new situations involving conflict issues, perceptions, relationships and communication patterns".

3.2 Alternative for Dispute Management

This involves soft mechanisms and peaceful conflict management systems that explore less painstaking and least expensive means of managing conflict satisfactorily, as well as preserving the relationship of the contenders. It may involve voluntary will and sometimes involuntary will. Alternative for dispute resolution (ADR) provides for other methods of dispute management that are preferable to the conventional means, which is litigation (court approach). The ADR approaches are proposed and developed in order to promote the use of non-violent methods in conflict management. The ADR comprises communication, collaboration, facilitation, negotiation and mediation, while the involuntary will of **ADR** involves arbitration,

adjudication/litigation (autocratic-court's approach) and peace enforcement.

Community-Based Developmental Programmes: This system is the initial preventive measure of ADR, which plays a significant role in ensuring peaceful co-existence among community members. Community based developmental programmes create social bonds that are helpful in preventing dysfunctional conflict among community members, by engaging them in different developmental programmes.

Good Governance: This is another preventive measure in ADR mechanism, since the essence of good governance is to guarantee a congenial environment where aspiration and lawful activities can be carried out freely, to ensure stability and development.

Note

The ladder of ADR's voluntary and involuntary will system shows that the higher you go the hotter or tougher it becomes.

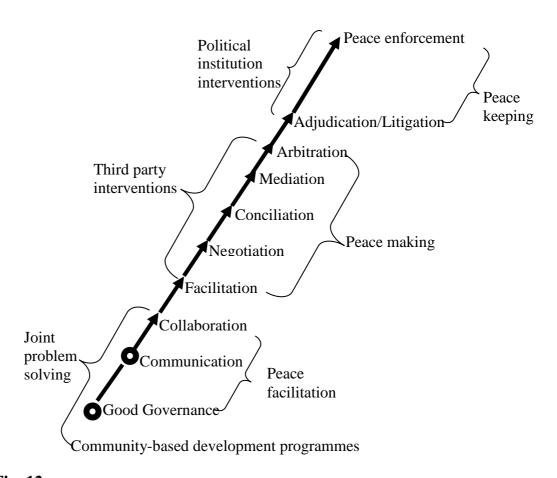


Fig. 12

Communication: Communication has three components or features that are benevolent, malevolent and ambivalent. It is benevolent, when the information received is beneficial or positive in nature. Malevolent, when it is not favourable, consists of evil and not beneficial. Ambivalent, when it brings about confusion, mix-up and ambiguity. Information management is a crucial weapon that can help in building relationships. It removes doubt and suspicion. (Shedrack; 2004:103). Most of the non-violent methods of conflict management, such as collaboration, facilitation, negotiation, conciliation, arbitration and adjudication are largely dependent on effective communication.

Collaboration: This is a process in which the contenders work together to stem their conflict. Collaboration can be achieved through joint task projects, among the contenders on identified common themes, goals, values and issues. The assumption is that collaborating together in doing a project will definitely build more friendship, mutual respect and understanding among them. This is of varying degrees; it could be on the inter-personal level, group, community, national, regional and international levels. For instance communities could share a community school, health centre, market or bridge. This could create a chain of collaborative activities that end up supporting peace building.

Facilitation: It is a process of consultation and invitation of the parties involved in a conflict to a dialogue. Albert (2001:36) says facilitated dialogue occurs in a situation whereby a neutral third party tries to restore communication between two warring parties, with a view to helping them to (re) consider the areas of disagreement and do something about them. It requires that both parties to the conflict are helped to discuss and see the issue in the conflict, and work through them with a view to promoting better working relationships. This process helps in providing for a better environment, where the clarity of purposes, stages, issues and expectations will be achieved.

Negotiation: Fisher *et. al* (2000:115) state that "... negotiation is a structured process of dialogue between the conflicting parties about issues in which their opinions differ". Falkenberg, (1982:7) sees negotiation as "a process whereby two or more parties, who are faced with a problem or a conflict about some limited resources, attempt to agree on how best to resolve their problems or resolve the conflict". To Miall *et. al* (1999:21), negotiation is a process whereby the parties within the conflict seek to settle or resolve their conflict. Moley and Stephenson (1997:26) say negotiation...is any form of verbal communication, direct or indirect, whereby the parties to a conflict are of interest to discuss, without resorting to arbitration or other judicial processes, and the form of any joint actions in which they might take to manage a dispute between them. According to Fisher and Ury (1981;

XI), negotiation is a basic means of getting what you want from others. It is a back and forth communication designed to reach an agreement, when you and the other side have some interests that are common, and others that are opposed. To Kennedy *et. al* (1987:14), negotiation is a process of resolving conflict, between two or more parties whereby both or all modify their demands to achieve a mutually acceptable compromise..., a process of adjusting both parties' views of their ideal outcome to an attainable outcome.

According to Albert (2005:2), the process of negotiation allows the participants to establish contact with each other directly by written words of symbols, or through an intermediary:

- create at least a minimally positive professional relationship
- identify topics to be addressed and determine how the discussion will be conducted
- transmit both substantive information and messages about the type and strength of feelings;
- communicate about their desires, positions or demands, possible needs and interests;
- generate options and assess their viability;
- seek to influence each other to obtain advantage or satisfaction;
- create procedures and rituals for gaining final approval for agreements;
- and develop ways to implement, monitor and ensure compliance with the understanding that has been reached.

Hitherto, negotiation, according to Moore (1996:8) is the commonest way for reaching a mutually acceptable agreement when parties do not have the opportunity of third party interventions. It is a voluntary bargaining process in which contenders try to educate each other about their needs and interests with a view to shifting away from their rigid positions, which had hitherto made the differences between them difficult to resolve through informal conversations. Therefore, in general terms, there are three types of negotiations: positional, interest based and principle negotiation, that comprise soft, hard and quassi-soft/hard attributes as strategies. The soft attributes give room for concessions in order to achieve quick mutual amicable agreement. The hard attributes believe in a zero-sum game and always wish to use every conflict opportunity to test their strength and capacity. They often press hard and desperate to win the other party. Fisher and Ury (1981: XVII) say the hard negotiation attributes "want to win", yet they often end up producing equally hard responses that exhaust resources and harm their relationship with the other side" The third attribute is quassi-soft/hard, which is neither soft nor hard in nature.

More importantly, from the definitions of negotiation offered above, it is clear that communication is a crucial tool that cannot be overlooked or underestimated, and when communication is threatened or stopped, conflict will be escalated, which will make the negotiation process become difficult.

Types of Negotiation

Positional Negotiation: This is a zero game negotiation, in which the contenders are always working towards their own interests in the negotiation process. It is distributive bargaining, an activity of dividing limited resources, in a situation whereby one party wins what the other party loses. Their communication or interactive process is usually drawn towards a win-lose outcome. Such bargaining process occurs when the perception of the two sides in relation to their issue does not coincide and they are unwilling to abandon the issue or modify their perception of it (Walton and Mc Kersie; 1965:11). Anstey (1991:126) said since emphasis is on protecting the position of the parties rather than their interests and needs, it often compounds the already bad situation. Once the positional negotiation hammers on his/her hard position, the opponent will definitely also adopt the same behaviour, which will metamorphose to a difficult situation, in which they will not be able to reach any concrete agreement. From the view of Fisher and Ury (1981:4-5), when the negotiators bargain over positions, they tend to lock themselves into those positions. The more you clarify your positions and defend it against attacks, the more committed you become to it. The more you try to convince the other side of the impossibility of changing your opening position, the more difficult it becomes to do so. Your ego becomes identified with your position. You therefore have a new interest in "saving face" - in reconciling future actions with past positions, making it less likely that any agreement will wisely reconcile the parties' original interests....

As more attention is paid to positions, less attention is devoted to meeting the underlying concerns of the parties. Agreement becomes less likely.... Any agreement reached may reflect a mechanical splitting of the difference between final positions rather than a solution that is carefully crafted to meet the legitimate interests of the parties. The result is that they frequently end up with an agreement that is less satisfactory to each side than it could have been (Albert; 2005:3). Positional bargaining gives room for much time to be wasted and even denies the effective agreement reached on certain issues, or in other words overdrives issues that will not end up in resolving conflict. It commonly resorts to anger and resentment that complicate issues. It is hard to achieve sustainable peace in positional negotiation.

Interest Based Negotiation: This is a negotiation process that gives room for mutual respect and understanding between or among the contenders who are really interested in preserving the existing good or bad relationship between them. It encourages cooperation more than positional negotiation, in the sense that it focuses on interest and needs rather than position. It could also be called a joint problem solving strategy.

Principle Negotiation or Bargaining: This is a quasi-positional and interest based negotiation. It is neither hard no soft in nature in terms of the negotiation process, but comprises the combination of both attributes of positional and interest-based negotiation. It was etymologically developed from Harvard negotiation programmes. It is based on meritorious bargaining; that is, a little bit to the right and a little bit to the left. It is a situation whereby the contenders in a conflict situation focus on how the conflict can be amicably resolved in terms of fairness.

Conciliation: This is a third party intervention in a conflict. It involves an intermediary effort that aims at persuading the contenders to work out a better option of resolving their conflict peacefully. It also involves the facilitation process, whereby the contenders will be provided an avenue or opportunity of negotiation and dialoging on how the resolution can be achieved. The conciliators help in reducing the tension between or among the conflicting parties, but hardly take part in the negotiation process. The conciliators are sometimes called "shuttle diplomats", because often they use their personalities to influence and initiate a peace process and peaceful resolution.

Mediation: It is a conflict negotiation that is commonly facilitated by the third party. Miller (2002:23) says, "Mediation is the voluntary, informal, non-binding process undertaken by an external party that fosters the settlement of differences or demands between directly affected parties". It is noteworthy that a mediator remains a mediator, when the conteders still trust and have confidence in him/her. But as soon as they lose confidence and trust in him/her, he/she ceases to be a mediator. Miall *et. al* (1999:22) acknowledge mediation as the intervention of a third party, ... a voluntary process that the parties involved retain it, control its outcome (pure mediation), although it may include positive and negative inducements (mediation with muscles). The contenders must admit or acknowledge that there is a problem that needs to be solved first and foremost, and they must be sincerely committed to its management.

The mediator cannot enforce any solution on the parties of the conflict, but serves as a control mechanism to the peace process and negotiation. It is a voluntary service, which must be carefully done so that the

conflict issues will not snowball into a larger conflict. The mediation process as a conflict management procedure occurs at all levels, be it interpersonal, communities, states, and nations. The role of the mediator is to provide an enabling environment, where the parties in a conflict will be able to carry out their negotiation and dialogue sessions peacefully, so as to manage the issues constructively. More importantly, there should be a rule to follow, which will serve as a guide for the contenders.

Mediation should be objective, neutral, balanced, supportive and non-judgmental and the mediator must be able to drive the contenders toward win-win outcomes rather than a win-lose situation.

Arbitration: This is a semi-officially done third party intervention, which is a step higher than mediation in conflict management. The contenders do not have ultimate right on their conflict issues any longer; they lose control over their conflict situation to an arbitrator. Although it is a non-violent method of conflict management, in this situation, the arbitrator has supreme power over the contenders and their conflict. According to Shedrack (2004:108), "Arbitration is the use of and the assistance of neutral third party intervention in conflict situation who hears the evidence from both parties, and thereafter renders a decision that is usually called an award, which is expected to be binding on the parties". It is similar to mediation and close to adjudication or litigation, but quite different in practice. Arbitration is different from mediation, in the sense that the decisions of an arbitrator are binding, unlike mediation. It is also different from litigation, in the sense that it is done outside the courts, and its enforcement mechanisms differ from that of Arbitration allows the contenders to choose their arbiter, litigation. unlike litigation, though slightly costly. Arbitrators fulfill their role by virtue of their position in society. Arbitration has several properties of mediation and adjudication/litigation (Shedrack; 2004:109).

Adjudication/Litigation: This is a win-lose situation that is very judgmental in nature, which depicts a zero-sum game of the winner takes all. It involves the use of the courts and litigation paradigms. The contenders that choose this method of conflict management have no control of the conflict. The court's verdict is final; it is legally binding on the conflicting parties. The verdict will be further enforced by the law enforcement agencies like the police force, where necessary. Litigation consumes more time and is more expensive when compared to the other systems of conflict management.

Peace Enforcement: The peace enforcement processes comprise peacemaking and peace keeping operations, whereby the critical decisions on the crisis have to be taken on time or else the situation

would be worse and eventually escalate to the point of violence. The United Nations develops these two peace enforcement mechanisms, in order to prevent serious human security threats and intense violence.

In the United Nations' peace enforcement conflict management framework, there are three different types of peace enforcement charters, which are Charters VI, VII and VIII. These three United Nations peace enforcement charters have their rules of engagement, in the military peacekeeping mission operations that are situational in terms of their periods of operations. More importantly, the consent of the contending parties must be sought, before peace enforcement engagement. The peace making agreement must be signed, which will serve as a means of peace making. The first charter of the United Nations peace enforcement or peace keeping mission operations engagement is Charter VI, which allows for limited arms and ammunition with little or no force. There is no room for heavy coercive apparatus against any of the parties, but it mainly allows for military self-defence. The commandant of Charter VI must be a soft-minded leader, and the military operation's beret must be blue; that symbolises their rules of engagement. A good example of this military operation was in Liberia and Yugoslavia, during their protracted wars.

Charter VII of the United Nations peace enforcement is the second military peace keeping mission operations' rules of engagement, whereby the military peace keepers are allowed to use heavier military weaponry than Charter VI, but also at a minimal rate in terms of operation and in terms of the arms and ammunition required. The commandant of Charter VII will be a bit tougher compared to that of Charter VI. The soldiers should wear green berets; that symbolises its rules of engagement. A good example of this was in Somalia, Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Charter VIII of the United Nations' peace enforcement is the third and the toughest. It involves the full application of force and it has the toughest commandant. The heaviest military apparatus are used and the soldiers wear red berets. A good example of this was in Iraq and Afghanistan.

Peace enforcement is only acceptable in situations in which there is massive destruction of lives and property and where there is total collapse of law and order. Peace enforcement involves the use of the police force and the armed forces. The introduction of the police and other law enforcement agencies may occur when there is need for the use of extraordinary measures such as force to restore law and order. But if it is not carefully done, it can end up in human rights violations of various descriptions.

3.3 Multi-Track Diplomacy Approach to Conflict Management

Multi-track diplomacy approach is a circular flow of conflict management. Diamond and McDonald (1996:4) see multi-track diplomacy as an approach of that encompasses nine different tracks of conceptual and practical frameworks for ensuring peace building. Multi-track diplomacy emphasises that the different participants and stakeholders' efforts are required in the peace building process. It encompass different attributes or features like strength, weakness, opportunity and threats (SOWT). Diamond and McDonald (1996:4-5) briefly discussed the nine different tracks of multi-track diplomacy as:

Government: This is the track-one of the multi-track diplomacy. It is a process where responsible government in a society may get involved in peace making and pace building, and even invest more on the establishment of state institutions or agencies that could help in managing conflict. It serves as a protective body organ to the interests of all the people. The government can also sponsor a conflict management workshop in order to promote the needed sustainable peace, and directly or indirectly get involved in negotiation, conciliation and mediation processes. International organisations are part of the governmental institutions that usually help in ensuring and supporting peace building, as part of global efforts to reduce socio-cultural, economical and political tension around the world. The support encompasses the provision for peace building workshops, and community development programmes that ensure sustainable peace.

Strength: The government is always exercising legitimate or an authoritative power, and enjoying enough resources, jurisdiction, sovereignty, monopoly of coercion and compelling of obedience.

Weakness: Enjoying abuse of power, lack of transparency, lack of political will at times, insecurity, instability, unaccountability, bureaucratic delays.

Opportunity: It is strong, dynamic, ably represented, enjoying a conducive environment, policies and financial buoyancy.

Threats: Preponderant use of coercion.

Non-Governmental Organisations: These are private establishments within the civil society that could provide an alternative support system for any society, in which the state political institutions are unable to provide for sufficiently, in terms of quality and quantity that relate with the realm of conflict management through the activities of its

professionals. The activities of non-governmental organisations are in the area of analysis, prevention, management, provision for funding grants and maximum support for conflict management programmes. In Non-governmental organisations' activities in peacemaking, peace building and preventive diplomacy procedures, better results are achieved when they are carried out in partnership with the government.

Strength: Enjoying brainstorming, multiple ideas, flexibility, funding, grants, experts' or specialists' participation.

Weakness: Funding or financial constraints.

Opportunity: Rapid responses to any or certain issues or events.

Threats: Questionable acts, character defects

Corporate Organisations: No business can thrive in an area or region bedeviled with violent conflict; business enterprises and corporate organisations enormously contribute to peacemaking in various forms. They provide economic and commercial opportunities, which prevent conflict. They also help in building local and international friendship and understanding, and open informal channels of communication as well as other ways of supporting peace building activities.

Strength: Financially buoyant and good economic diplomacy. **Opportunity:** Employment, investment, Development, and etc.

Weakness: Profit making.

Threats: Influencing policy formulation and implementation.

Private Individuals: Individuals are usually involved in peace building and developmental programmes and activities through citizenship diplomacy, exchange programmes, private or voluntary organisations, personality influence and other peacemaking activities. Examples of such individuals are Nelson Mandela, the late Julius Nyerere and Olusegun Obasanjo--all of Africa.

Strength: Independence, credibility.

Weakness: Authoritative decision making, hidden agenda (insincerity).

Opportunity: Flexibility.

Threat: Bias.

Research, Training and Educational Institutions: These are the think-tank of any responsible society or organisation. They cover three areas of research work and even connect to the educational institutions, specialised institutes and research centers. They provide training programmes in conflict management and peace specialists skills of mediation, negotiation and general conflict transformation.

Strength: They have expert power and knowledge and are research

based.

Weakness: Bias, destructive criticism, etc. **Opportunity**: Information, multiple ideas, etc.

Activism or Societal Watchdog and Advocacy: This covers the practices and activities of civil organisations like human rights protection and peace campaigns against youth restiveness, violence, proliferation of arms and weapons, social and economical injustice, and protest against governmental policies or bad governance that threaten peace.

Strength: They have useful information, they act as the conscience of the rulers and decision markers, etc.

Weakness: Extremism, ideological difference, etc.

Opportunity: Timely information, mass mobilisation, etc.

Threats: Their criticisms could be destructive, they sometimes use

violence and they could become a threat to national security.

Religion: Since a lot of respect is accorded the religious leaders, the ideas of pacifism, humanism, non-violence, brotherliness are promoted by the dominant religious leaders. Also, the religious systems are used to preach against violence and to encourage peace within the society.

Strength: Mass appeal, the believers' readiness to comply, etc.

Weakness: Instrumentalism and manipulation.

Opportunity: All religions preach peace.

Threats: Bigotry, extremism, human rights abuse, etc.

Funding: This is a salient factor and critical issue that determines what will be the outcome, and how successful a peace programme would be. Most funding organisations are in the developed countries and they provide the resources needed for peace building activities.

Strength: They have the needed resources; they are efficient, influential and, flexible.

Weakness: Distance, ignorance of the activities, etc.

Opportunity: Stability, orderliness, etc.

Threats: Insecurity, misappropriation of funds, corruption, etc.

Media and Communication: The media and all the channels of information dissemination are the aggregate of public opinion and the voice of the people. Media organisations help in promoting peace

through their programmes. They also help in covering all other activities and efforts made by the other actors like government, non-governmental organisations, business and corporate organisations, private individuals, educational institutions, activists, religious bodies and funding organisations.

Strength: Coverage, followership, influence on perception, etc.

Opportunity: Sensitisation, awareness, education, etc.

Threats: Bias, insecurity, etc.

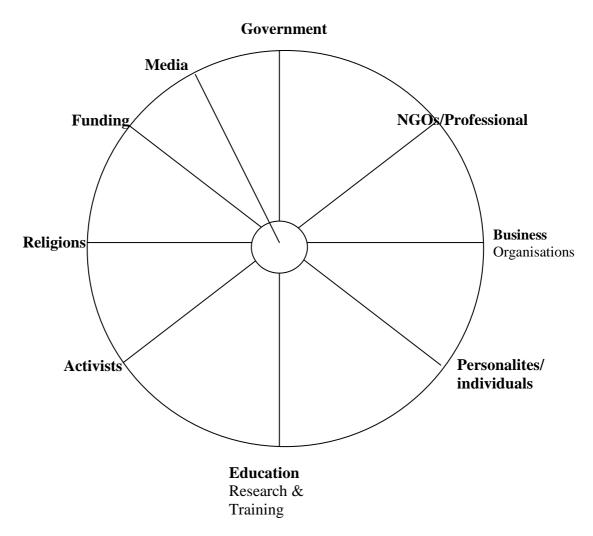


Fig.13 Multi-track circular flow of functions

Note

All the nine tracks enhance the effort of one another. Their functions are not mutually exclusive. They complement one another on peace building.

3.4 African Traditional Methods of Conflict Resolution

Prior to the advent of Western civilisation in Africa, Africa as a continent was naturally endowed with its own social institutional values that ensured peaceful co-existence and the maintenance of social order. The African way of maintaining peace began at the level of the individual and household system. The underlying principle is that a man who is free of inner and domestic conflict is able not only to behave in a less aggressive manner but also to relate well to his neighbours and the larger community (Oguntomisin, 2004). Consequently, different communities in pre-colonial Africa had varying conventions concerning individual behaviour, so as to mitigate intra-personal, inter-personal, domestic and community conflict. The approach is tending to have differed from the Western method of dispute resolution. speaking, African peace mechanisms are categorised into two social formations: centralised authority and segmentary system (egalitarian political system). The centralised authority comprises paramount rulers like kings, chiefs, elders, compound heads, street heads and family heads; while the segmentary system comprises age-grades or sets, marriage alliances, tributes, inheritance, clubs, rituals, ancestral cults, deities, market associations and political emissaries and diplomatic missions.

Centralised Authority: As the head of the family, a man was expected to be at peace with himself and his household, by ensuring that he and members of his household related well with others in the compounds and wards of their village or town. The compound and ward heads also, as well as the village heads or kings had similar responsibilities in their respective domains. They guarded their communities' norms, customs and values by applying appropriate sanctions against any breaches. A breach of conventions was regarded as "a crime", a disturbance of the individual or communal equilibrium. Imposition of sanctions on individuals or a group of deviants was a justifiable means of restoring the preexisting balance in the society and was a traditional device for crime prevention or deterrent of deviant behaviour (Oguntomisin; 2004:1-2).

There are three types of identifiable sanctions, especially in West Africa. They are moral, legal and ritual sanctions. A moral sanction was imposed on actions that were contrary to the conventions and set-values of the society that were consequently likely to lead to social disorder. An authority such as the compound head, the ward chief, the priest or the king, may impose this type of sanction verbally. In a more serious way and in consonance with the severity of the offense, moral sanctions were expressed in mass action. Such sanctions carried punishments ranging from public disgrace to ostracism.

Secondly, the legal process would or may recommend that the miscreant should be disciplined after being found guilty. The legal sanction involved the use of the ruler's force apparatus by the recognised authorities to enforce the law on the offenders. The paramount rulers like kings and their councils of chiefs made laws to ensure peace and maintain social order in their domains.

Thirdly, ritual sanctions were deeply rooted in the people's religions that are described as "the engine of law". In the societies where the king had divine authority, and the *ipso facto* the *pointi fix maximus* could impose ritual sanctions.

In many communities, certain gods or goddesses were believed to be naturally averse to immoral behaviour or any form of injustice. The various forms of sanctions mentioned above crated fear in people and minimised the opportunities of engaging in anti-social activities that could lead to public disorder or crate the atmosphere for political instability and violence, inter-community or inter-group acrimony (Oguntomisin; 2004: 3-4 and Brown; 1951:261-277).

Segmentary System: Another system in which the maintenance of peace and social order is ensured in African societies comprises the use of age-grade or sets, marriage alliance, payment of tributes, inheritance, clubs and associations, rituals, ancestral cults, deities, market women associations, political emissaries and diplomatic missions, blood covenants, etc. These are the mechanisms that enhance stability, peaceful coexistence and maintenance of social order.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1. List and discuss conflict management strategies.
- 2. What specific mechanisms and practices were employed in traditional African societies?

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has dealt with conflict management strategies by considering the different conflict management mechanisms like alternatives for dispute resolution, multi-tract diplomacy and traditional African methods of conflict resolution. We therefore don't have any doubt in our minds that you should be able to manage any conflict that may emerge in your area.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have successfully listed and discussed conflict management strategies and mechanisms in this unit; our discussion on this subject is self explanatory, it is now expected of you to read through and broaden your views on how successfully conflict can be properly managed.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What is conflict management?
- 2. Define alternative for dispute resolution and explain its components.
- 3. Discuss multi-track diplomacy approaches.
- 4. What are the traditional African methods of conflict resolution?

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MODULE 3 VIOLENCE AND URBAN VIOLENCE

Unit 1	Meaning/Definition of Violence
Unit 2	Meaning/Definition of Urban Violence
Unit 3	Causes of Urban Violence
Unit 4	Youths and Urban Violence
Unit 5	Management of Urban Violence

UNIT 1 MEANING/DEFINITION OF VIOLENCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Definition of Violence
 - 3.2 Attributes of Violence
 - 3.3 Features of Violence
 - 3.4 Types of Violence
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The word "violence" is a universal concept that defies any precise or common acceptable meaning, and encompasses a great number of connotations that evoke much concern. It often implies, militancy, use of force, coercion, destruction, muscle flexing, all which a given observer would fear or condemn. Violence could be physical or metaphysical, biological, psychological, spiritual pressure directly or indirectly exercised by a person on someone else or others or something. The various issues that will be examined in this unit are: definition or meaning of violence, its attributes and features, and its types.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define violence and identify its attributes
- mention various types of violence
- differentiate between violence and conflict
- discuss the emergence of violence and how it can be avoided.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition of Violence

"Violence is an unlawful use or threat of force" Tamuno (1991:3). In the opinion of Domenach (1978:718), "Violence is the use of force, whether overt or covert, in order to wrest from individuals or groups something that they are not disposed to give of their own free will". To Mackenzie (1975:39), "Violence is the exercise of physical force so as to inflict injury on or cause damage to persons or property, action or conduct characterised this. Thus, treatment or usage tending to cause bodily injury or forcibly interfering with personal freedom, this depicts that violence involves the use of force and abuse of another person's fundamental rights."

According to Halloran (178:818), "Violence used by the state or any of its licensed apparatus or agents such as the police, military, bureaucracy etc. is established violence." The impression created here sees use of violence by state as legitimate, but to what extent is its legitimacy? Max Weber shared the same opinion with Halloran in his statement that says, "Violence is the exclusive right of the state, but all other individuals or associations may use it only to the degree permitted by the state authorities".

For Charles Tilly, "Collective violence has flowed regularly from the political process. Men seeking to seize, hold, or realign the levels of power have continually engaged in collective violence as part of their struggles. The frequent conceptualisation of force and violence tends to confuse the distinction between "legality" "legitimacy" and specific acts. Often, force is taken to mean legal and legitimate use of violence by a government for the protection of the state, while violence is interpreted as illegal and illegitimate acts carried out by non-government individuals and groups.

Violence carries overtones of "violating" and we often use violence to refer to illegitimate force. Violence is criminal, and its manifestation needs to be assessed relatively to violence use by the state. According to Albert (2003:10):

Violence has been used by groups of people seeking for power or groups holding to power and by groups in the process of losing power. It has been pursued in the defence of order by the privileged in the name of justice to the oppressed and in fear of displacement by the threatened. Thus, violence has always been part of the political process... protest activities of one form or another, efforts to dramatise grievances in a fashion that will attract attention. Hence, it is methodologically difficult

to determine the point where the state's use of violence has moved from the legitimate to the illegitimate.

According to Echoes (2004; 10), violence is a generic term that encompasses different numbers of connotations that depict an encounter of life threatening of force, which often affect several numbers of people's lives in the communities. Dokun (2005: 59) is of the view that violence could be exertion of physical force, so as to injure or abuse other people's rights. Violence of a physical nature also occurs in the use of either rape or wife battering. Dokun also said that, violence is unjust or unwarranted distortion of the truth; the Christian faith for instance forbids bearing false witness; when promotion of falsehoods takes place then, there will be violence against the truth. Also, intense or turbulent action of forces could be stated as types of violence such action includes hurricanes, storms, earthquakes, fire outbreak, floods, typhoon, etc. Fundamentally, such violence is the work of nature and human beings are only proximate to its causes, for instance, when our drainage system is blocked with refuse and channels of rivers are not free for easy flow of water, then flood can easily occur.

Similarly, Burning bush recklessly may cause violence to the environment (Dokun, 2005: 59-60).

Anifowose supports those scholars that are of opinion that the state is the only body that has the moral right to embark on any expression of violence. They all see violence as a concept that serves different purposes; Anifowose (1982: 1) reinforces this position that violence has been used by the groups holding to power, and the groups in the process of losing power. Violence has been pursued in the defence of order by the privileged in the name of justice, and by the oppressed in fear of displacement or threatened forces.

Max Weber (1947), a defender of the state's use of violence argued that violence carries the overtones of violating human rights, and non-state actors' use of violence is illegitimate. The state...is the exclusive source of the right to use violence, all other individuals or association may use it only to the degree permitted by the authority (Anifowose, 1982; Salami, 1994: 76). Anifowose is also of view that "it is difficult to determine the point where the state's use of violence moves from legitimate to illegitimate. Smith (1988:110-112) states that "violence has always been an art of the political process... protest activities of one form or another, efforts to dramatise grievances in a fashion that will attract attention and will ultimately destroy life and property. Osaghae (1994:4), differentiates "progressive violence as a struggle against capitalist oppression and tyranny" from destructive violence, which is

mostly of a criminal kind and often involves the personal aspirations of the individual pursuing his/her own personal aim.

Gurr (1970) states that the definition of violence is limited to political violence against the state; that is classified into three types of turmoil: relatively unorganised and spontaneous violence with substantial popular participation (riots, strikes, demonstrations and localised rebellions) conspiracy that is highly organised with limited participation (assassination, coups d'etat and small scale guerilla wars), and internal wars that are highly organised with mass participation designed to over throw a regime or the state (large revolution). From Osaghae's point view, such narrow disciplinary delineations do not sufficiently address the epistemological problems that involve conceptualising of violence. For example, the questions of its morality do not reflect its diversity and complexity as it is found in the urban area. This helps in evaluating the problems of whether violence is legitimate, moral or legal by making its definition more objectives and empirical, and also to enlightened the peace studies student on what violence entails.

More fundamentally, violence has to be evident at least to the victims. Violence could be expressed by a certain state against another state, or by the government against the governed. It could also be expressed against even individuals. Violence can manifest itself in many forms: physical, psychological, metaphysical, structural, etc. The expression of violence by a state against another state could be through physical or economic attacks. Violence could also be within a state, such as coup d'etat or actions of state and non-stateactors (civil wars). The aspects of governance that express violence against the governed are legal types, in form of the death sentence, terrorism, political violence and assassination, regional separatism, economic depravity and sabotage, cultural dominance and discrimination, etc. The violence expressed by individuals are all forms of banditry, occasional misdemeanors, scuffles or rape, compulsive aggression by drug addicts and drunkards, passionprovoked murder, assignation, lynching, urban gangsterism, mafia bloody sacrifices and rituals, etc.

3.2 Attributes of Violence

The attributes of violence are the following, which could also be the resultant effects of violence: deprivation, economic exploitation, gender exploitation trauma, spread of diseases, death loss of property, destruction etc.

On relative deprivation Coser (1967: 59) states that relative deprivation most often results in violent uprising when the discrepancies are considered illegitimate. Increase in urbanisation could be responsible for

conflict and violence. This is because urban centres are sometimes over populated. That is why Hauser (1963:212) states that rapid urbanisation promotes internal disorder, political unrest and government instability fed by mass misery and frustration. Urban crime or violence includes: murder or attempted murder of state officials, politicians, their relatives, children, young people or other members of the public.

3.3 Features of Violence

These are the factors that constitute violence. They are mass-action, riots, demonstration, public protests, coercion, war, militancy, terrorism, murder, armed robbery, street fighting, assassination, etc.

3.4 Types of Violence

Individuals or a group of people or a society may experience violence, which may be personal or societal violence. The types of violence are: structural, physical, ecological, psychological, biological, institutional, socio-cultural and even metaphysical violence.

Structural Violence

It is a systemic problem, which can determine or reflect what is happening or obtainable in any society. It may be violence against individuals or against groups of people. This could be because of differential opportunities in accessing social services, needs, or resources. Structural violence may be targeted at the socio-economic system of a society, in order to paralyse their means of sustenance. The disproportionality of the distribution of social goods can cause psychological and physical violence. A system distribution that is characterised by structural violence may be legitimised by the prevailing political or socio-cultural norms and even religious beliefs. It should be noted that some degree of structural violence exists in all complex and highly differentiated societies.

Physical Violence

This is a physical manifestation of violence. It could be direct or indirect application of force against an opposition. Physical violence can manifest as terrorism, assassination, suicide bombing, murder, militancy, war, etc.

Ecological Violence

This kind of violence is commonly exercised on the environment and its components through the activities of man or natural forces. It could

manifest itself as pollution, ozone layer depletion, gas flaring and even total degradation of the environment.

Psychological Violence

This is not a physical manifestation of violence; it is metaphysical and traumatic in nature. It may happen as a result of feelings, thoughts, pressure, perception, injury and trauma experienced by a person or a group of people due to the occurrence of one or more events. Psychological violence usually has a greater effect on human feeling, thinking, actions, health, personality and physical appearance. The causes of psychological violence can be war, trauma, assault, murder, armed robbery, etc.

Biological Violence

It is a process of artificial alteration in the natural existence of any living organism. Biological violence usually has a great effect on living organisms, due to man's activities or natural occurrence. Examples of biological violence are mutation, hybridisation, cloning, etc that may improve or mar the growth and reproduction of living things. Biological violence may also occur in the process of living organisms' response to stimulus. The effect of biological violence usually lies on health conditions and the total body system of an organism.

Institutional/Socio-cultural Violence

This can manifest itself in terms of structural violence but it is mostly political and socio-cultural in nature. It may be as a result of socio-cultural values and norms of a society being trampled upon. It is a collective violence that results from the political process. It usually occurs because of systemic problems, and its side effects usually are on government institutions. Institutional violence manifests itself in different forms, such as terrorism, militancy, political violence, assassination, etc. It could also occur due to ideological and philosophical differences, in terms of religious fundamentalism, and socialistic or capitalistic ideological practices.

Terrorism

Terrorism is an expression of violence against humanity. Chomsky (2002) states that terrorism is the use of force on civilian populations in an effort to achieve political or religious control. Therefore, terrorism encompasses guerilla warfare, economic and political warfare, coups d'etat, threat, suicide bombing, murder, assassination and destruction of lives and property. Terrorism can also occur through a tyrannical

dictator that manipulates legal structures, in order to suppress his opponents.

Violence and Vulnerable Groups

Generally vulnerable groups are women and children. Violence against them could be physical, psychological, or socio-economic. Violence against them can occur at the family, community and state levels; and it is usually in the form of early marriage or force marriage, genital mutilation, sexual harassment, child labour, forced prostitution, rape, wife battering and abuse of various kinds.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1. What is violence?
- 2. State the attributes and features of violence.
- 3. Mention and explain three types of violence.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Having defined violence, its features, attributes and types in this unit, it is believed that you would be able to differentiate between violence and conflict.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have explained violence, its types, its features and attributes. There is no doubt in our minds that you would be able to manage any kind of violence and conflict which may occur in your environment.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What is violence?
- 2. List and differentiate between the attributes and features of violence.
- 3. List and explain four types of violence.

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UNIT 2 DEFINITION/MEANING OF URBAN VIOLENCE

CONTENTS

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- 3.0 Main Content
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- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Urban violence is the subject matter of this unit. Urban violence is peculiar because it is a problem of urbanisation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define urban violence
- discuss the attributes and features of urban violence
- mention various types of urban violence
- discuss the problems of urbanisation
- explain various ways of managing urban violence.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Definition of Urban Violence

Albert (1994:9) refers to urban violence as a problem of urbanisation. According to him, it is different from ordinary violence that occurs anywhere, at anytime and under any condition. He emphatically defines urban violence as those acts of violence produced by characteristics of (or attaining their water-mark in) the cities as a result of their social, political and economic importance. Albert further states that urban violence is presented not as an innate drive, but rather as one of the negative responses of individuals to the frustrations produced by urbanisation.

According to Stren (1992: 7), one of the most visible and disturbing characteristics of poor cities of the developing world today is the decline in their infrastructural base. As urban populations grow, and as the available resources decline, public infrastructure will be degraded to a point where cities are seriously losing their capacity to operate as productive entities. To be more productive, cities need well-functioning infrastructures, such as roads, water system, electricity networks, and telephone systems. Schools, hospitals and the likes are in order to facilitate the kind of service... that will permit both households and firms to operate efficiently.

However, Gugler cautions people on revolutionary movement, due to the neglect of rural areas that usually prompts many people move to urban centres, which eventually becomes a problem to the entire world. According to Gugler (1982: 68), control over the capital city is usually of crucial importance.

Farhi (1990: 18), states that it is only logical to assume that political conflict takes the form of interaction between the state and organised urban groupings. This is because, in an urban setting, all classes demand access to the collective material conditions of daily life, and the state increasingly intervenes to resolve or ameliorate the contradictions ensuring from these conflicting demands. She said much concentration of human infrastructural needs in urban centres results in larger populations of urban poor, which directly or indirectly induce violence. Modernisation's scholars of social change and transition are also of the view that over urbanisation intensifies conflict and violence.

Osaghea (1994:20) on why some areas are over urbanised: "There are three answers; the first is that it serves as the fulcrum of social, economic and political processes and the city provides an enabling environment for conflict and violence. Secondly, fundamental mistakes in urban polices and planning create conditions that make violence endemic to cities. The rise of slum areas where deviant sub-culture prevails, acute shortages of housing that encourage overcrowding and informal settlement, insufficient policing, lack of `recreational facilities and neglect of the peripheries of cities in the provision of essential services are some of the consequences of planning failures.

Weiner (1960: 173), states that the large numbers of rootless, crowded, and often unmarried urban dwellers are easily prodded to violence and readily organised by political groups. Osaghea (1994:22) has noted that the high rate of divorce and break up of families, the weakening of traditional and cultural social controls, the anonymity, individualism, and in many cases, alienating tendency of urban life, all belong to social dislocation variables.

Some of those who migrated from the rural areas in search of a better life often get frustrated when their expectations are not met. They feel deprived because the system has proved incapable of providing jobs, houses, higher incomes, affordable education for the children, etc. Their frustration heightens when they compare their situation with that of the affluent. They begin to demand an equal distribution of wealth and resources. Sometimes they underscore their demands with violence.

In fact, urban areas are the hotbeds of violence, due to the concentration of different civic organisations, as well as the large reserves of violenceprone segments of the population. Trade unions, professional associations, human rights organisations, women's organisations, ethnic students' organisations several associations. and organisations are located in the cities. Strikes, lockouts, consumer boycotts, rent boycotts, riots, and demonstrations for which many urban areas have become notable are organised by these groups (Osaghea, 1994: 22-23). Most of the militant and terrorist groups are based in the urban centres, and their targets are also situated in the urban centres most of the time. Urban areas have a larger concentration of poor homeless and unemployed people who could be easily recruited to disrupt the peace of the society. They could hijack a peaceful demonstration and turn it into a violent one. Such people often enjoy a confrontation with law enforcement agents. Cities tend to have large populations of miscreants who are prone to violence. They are the instrument of political violence where structural inequalities prevail. They are known to engage in collective action, such as challenging those in authority over such matters as educational policies and social amenities, on behalf of the society.

The features and attributes of urban violence include overpopulation, scarcity of urban infrastructures, unemployment, corruption and political injustice. Others are military or civilian coups, bloody ethic militias, religious fundamentalism and conflicts, terrorism, armed robbery, suicide, riots, demonstrations, rape, hooliganism, child battering, police brutality, partisan counter violence and civil wars. Violence occurs in all human societies, but violence in urban areas is more severe and more pronounced than that of the rural areas Cities' control of the sensitive organs of government, economic and industrial infrastructures make the urban areas different from rural areas. The diverse opportunities in urban areas attract many people from different backgrounds to those areas. While in the process of competing for limited urban resources, urban dwellers often commit different acts of violence.

Discussion on Urban Violence

More importantly, it is an interesting and rewarding exercise to state the existing theories of urban violence at this point, such as psychological, sociological and anthropological prisms that explain urban violence. The best illuminating, convincing and most scientific urban violence theory is the multi-causal theory (Relative Deprivation). According to Adebayo (1994:79) "The main thrust of this theoretical explanation is that there is a gap between the 'expectation and achievement' in the social life of the urbanised, which invariably leads to frustration and the urge to react (aggression), usually through demonstrations, riots, assassination, etc.

Harlan and Joe (1933:133) state that:

The central premise of the frustration-aggression theory, simply put, is that aggression is always the end result of frustration. Given the requisite conditions, an individual whose basic desires are thwarted, and who consequently experiences a profound sense of dissatisfaction and anger is likely to react to his condition by directing aggressive behaviours at what is perceived as being responsible for thwarting those desires, or at a substitute. But, the greater perceived importance of desires and the more comprehensive it's checking, the more vigorous the aggressive response.

Nevertheless, the following elements are significant in the theory of frustration and aggression:

- the relative deprivation, rising expectations, frustration and aggression
- the relative deprivations
- rising expectations
- frustration-aggression.

The simple analogy of this theory is that when motivational and behavioural feelings of what people want in the urban centre is injured, due to the deprivations of what they want or deserve to actually get, they then turn to violence. More importantly, the people in urban centres want a good life, that is enjoying the social amenities that are lacking in the rural areas, which was what lured them into the cities from the rural areas; such amenities are better health care, good educational system and infrastructures. The migrants from rural areas to urban areas also seek job opportunities of various kinds. But overpopulation coupled with dwindling revenue sources and general mismanagement of basic necessities essential to human life, un-provided for or poorly maintained by government creates a gap (deprivation), thus leading to the differences in what James (1962:6) called "expected need satisfaction

and actual need satisfaction". Lupsha (1971:90) observes Ted Gurr that says all these explanations share the notion of a gap which creates frustration, hence, frustrations lead to anger and metamorphose to aggression that later yield violence.

$Gap \rightarrow Frustration \rightarrow Anger \rightarrow Aggression \rightarrow \rightarrow Violence$

According to Adebayo (1994:80), "The aggressiveness in urban social life is further accentuated by the growing influx of disillusioned primary and secondary school dropouts, and university or other tertiary institutions graduates who now swell the already 'filled' homes of frustrated friends and relations, all in search of non-existing jobs". Also, the level of frustration increases when affluent corrupt leaders in the society arrogantly violate laws openly and flaunt their wealth. The end product of all these are riots, demonstrations, political violence and assassinations.

Relative deprivation most often results in violent uprising when the discrepancies are considered illegitimate.

Rapid urbanisation promotes internal disorder, political mistrust and government instability fed by mass misery and frustration.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1. What is urban violence?
- 2. State briefly and discuss theories of urban violence.

3.3 Types/Categories of Urban Violence

Having defined and discussed urban violence and its theory in the previous section, the next issue to deal with is the types/categories of urban violence. In this unit, it is not in out of place to divide the types or categories of urban violence into the following: political, institutional, economic and socio-cultural urban violence.

Outline of Urban Violence

- 1. Political
- 2. Institutional
- 3. Economic
- 4. Socio-Cultural
- 5. Domestic
- 6. Youths

Political Violence: This is the most common type of urban violence; it is dangerous. It could be as a result of ideological or philosophical differences, and most often power tussle among the ruling class is a responsible factor. Political violence sometimes occurs due to the struggle between the state and non-state actors, which can eventually manifest as guerilla warfare, para-military struggle, assassination and other kinds of armed struggle. It can also occur as structural violence, in terms of systemic problems, such as political godfatherism. It may be as a result of deprivation in politics or total neglect of an area within a society. **Institutional Violence:** Institutional urban violence usually manifests as institutional systemic problems, in terms of corrupt practices in governmental institutional systems, state extra-judicial killing, inefficiency and effectiveness in public services. selective and the law enforcement agents do not perform their duty. The rule of law is put to bait and some people in the same society seem to be above the law. Some institutional systems of society may have collapsed totally, such as that of Somalia, Liberia, Burundi, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Democratic Republic of Congo, etc in the recent past.

Economic Violence: This occurs in an overpopulated urban centre, whereby organised crime like bank robbery, drugs and human trafficking are in practice. The entire system of such society is full of fraudsters, thieves, unemployed youths, miscreants, etc. Often, the question that needs to be asked is "do conflicts and urban violence result from greed (the intention to 'corner' something) or from grievance (anger arising over feelings of injustice)?" According to Collier (2003:4) "Some people (referred to as 'conflict entrepreneurs') actually benefit from chaos or crisis while the overwhelming majority of the population is affected by the negative impact of conflicts. The leaders of armed formations that are actually perpetrating violence often profit from the chaos; (and) that is while the prospect of pecuniary gains is seldom the principal incentive for rebellion, it can become for some insurgent groups, a preferred state of affairs".

Socio-cultural Violence: Since one of the means by which most cities are peopled is through migration, it follows that the urban environment consists of heterogeneous individuals as is noted by Wirth (1938:1). Heterogeneity of the urban population reflects ethnic, occupational, social religious, philosophical and ideological differentials. The case of culture-shock resulting from contacts among these people, sometimes with conflicting backgrounds is a precursor of structural violence, especially when they are not prepared to tolerate one another's inadequacies. Ethic and religious violence may be easily explained from this perspective (Albert; 1994:14). This is a reflection of what may likely occur when people of different backgrounds or ethnic origins are brought together within the competitive urban context; conflict between

the groups easily results. The outbreak of violence among them results from their competition for power and wealth.

More importantly, the competition for political appointments, landed property, economic opportunities, etc, often results in host "stranger" distributions in which natives of a particular city want to see themselves as legitimate owners of what the urban environment can offer. According to Albert (1994:14) the urban "stranger" within this context could become labeled as alien, intruder, interloper, foreigner, *novus-homo*, newcomer, immigrant, guest, outsider, outlander and host of others. The culture shock experienced by the urban dwellers generates such violent acts as armed robbery, kidnapping, assassination, rioting etc.

Domestic Violence: This is one of the major fundamental causative factors of urban violence. According to Ekiran (2004:154):

The family is supposed and expected to be an arena of love, peace, harmony and tranquility where members will naturally find a haven of rest after a tension soaked and stressful working day. It is expected to be the protector and guardian of its members from external aggression among other roles. But unfortunately, the family has become another place of tension, multifarious problems and danger zone. While the family still remains a smoothen balm to millions all over the world, the fact still remains that millions of other inhabitants of the globe dread the family and are even seeking alternative human interaction.

While seeking an alternative human interaction outside the home, family members like children, wife or husband are liable or can be lured into violence. Most often, children are the prime targets of family violence followed closely by violence of the husband against the wife. According to Giddens (1998:163) "On the other hand, women are said to be more on the receiving end of family violence than any other member of the family". Most of the responsible factors of domestic urban violence include society norms and values, family legacy of violence, stress and dissocialised, religious dogmatism, maintaining highly discipline culture, environmental problems etc.

Another issue is gender violence, which includes sexual intimidation, coercion, physical and psychological assault, molestation and forcible sexual intercourse between friends and acquaintances of both sexes (that is rape) (Udegbe & Omololu; 2004:335). All these which are interreactive in nature bounce back to the urban systemic media, where different interplays take place, and later snowball into urban violence.

Youth Violence: This is the type of urban violence that often starts from intra-personal conflict to interpersonal conflicts, due to any deprivation

suffered by the youth. It may be relative or actual in terms of deprivation that later manifests as frustration, and snowballs into violence; although gradual in nature it could graduate to inter-group or inter-societal conflict that commonly occurs out of sympathy. Youth urban violence involves small to large groups and this sequentially leads to mass or collective actions. It is destructive, so the entire society greatly feels its impact.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

State and discuss types/categories of urban violence.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Overpopulation of urban centres usually causes unemployment, violence, development of slums, and environmental problems. This shows that urban violence is not an innate problem, but rather a structural product of unbalanced urban management. Therefore, in order to put to an end to the monumental problem, the quality of urban management must improve, so that situations that engender tension, stress and violence in urban centres will be eliminated.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have dealt with the meaning and theory of urban violence by looking at the scholarly definitions, discussions and urban violence theory applications. This unit also dealt with the types/categories of urban violence by looking at the ways it manifests.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What is urban violence?
- 2. Briefly explain the urban violence theory and its application.
- 3. Why do rural dwellers migrate to urban centres?
- 4. List and explain the major types/categories of urban violence.

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UNIT 3 CAUSES OF URBAN VIOLENCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Causes of Urban Violence
 - 3.2 Discussion on Urban Violence
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The causes of urban violence will be discussed in this unit. Having defined the meaning, theory and types of urban violence in the previous units, the various issues that will be critically discussed in this section are: overpopulation, poor management, lack of resources or limited facilities, unemployment, domestic mismanagement, urban culture-shock and conspiratorial theory.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- determine the sources of urban violence
- discuss the causes of urban violence
- state the attributes and features of urban violence in general
- differentiate the causes of urban violence from one another

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Causes of Urban Violence

- Over population
- Poor management
- Lack of resource and limitation of facilities
- Unemployment
- Domestic mismanagement
- Urban culture-shock

3.1 Causes of Urban Violence

The causes of urban violence are almost infinite, it is often caused by inter-ethnic confrontations, religious and political intolerance, boundary disputes, youth unemployment, urban poverty, economic frustration that results from widespread unemployment among young people, particularly school leavers and graduates of tertiary institutions. Also, is the huge income gap between the rich and the poor –creating the feeling that the rich become richer at the expense of the poor, which means that the rich derive their wealth from the socio-economic exploitation of the poor. Others are polarisation of residential system along economic, educational and cultural values or lines, poor and grossly inadequate poor and inadequate transportation facilities, inadequate (if not complete lack of) public utilities, especially, water and electricity are grossly inadequate social infrastructures, ethnic discrimination, political disagreement and crises, refusal of government functionaries to obey their own laws, inequality of citizens before the law resulting in some offenders going unpunished; refusal of government to respect and protect the independence of the judiciary, adoption and influence of violent foreign culture, especially from television.

3.2 Discussion

Overpopulation: One of the major causes of urban violence is overpopulation. The main reasons for rural-urban migration are better employment opportunities, existence of better educational and health care facilities, and other attractions of the urban environment. Breese (1966:5) has described urban life as "subsistence" urbanisation, a situation in which many individuals live under conditions that may be even worse than the rural areas which they left and they are not able to do more than merely survive. The strains and stresses around such people make them commit violent crimes easily.

Duru (1974:66) states that the inability of urban resources to cater adequately for those residents in the cities is urban hypertrophy. The logical consequences of Breese's subsistence urbanisation, and Duru's urban hypertrophy are tension and stresses that could manifest practically as urban violence, in terms of murder, arson, rape, armed robbery, suicide, etc. According to Duru (1974:79) although incipient psychosis or schizoid personality may predispose potential migrants to move into cities, there is little doubt that the depressive illnesses, serious deviant behaviours and suicide tendencies which occur among frustrated city dwellers, have their origins in matters related to the inadequacy of achievement or protection in the urban milieu.

Poor Management: The quality of urban management is a vital factor and crucial issue that needs to be noted by a responsible society. But this is always lacking in terms of the consciousness of what the planners or managers of urban centres need to do. Health care, transport, housing and employment crises in most cases are the main problem. The urban development policies are poor so the tendency is that urban violence will continue to grow. Therefore, policies that could realistically check urban violence including provision of gainful employment, adequate housing health care, transportation, electricity, water supply and political justice for urban dwellers, need to be implemented.

Lack of Resources and Limited Facilities: Since urban centres are always over populated, the limited facilities that are available will not be enough to carter for the people; its end result will be anger and aggression that usually lead to violence.

Unemployment: Rural migrants to urban centres generally assume that white collar jobs can easily be secured there. Many of these migrants come from different geographical areas with different backgrounds and levels of exposure. But once their goal cannot be realised, they will become frustrated and the end result of frustration could be aggression and violence.

Domestic Mismanagement: A frustrated rural-urban migrant is likely to transfer his aggression to members of his family; this can metamorphose into wife and child battering or rights abuse. According to Hilgard & et al (1975:436), displaced aggression is an aggressive action against an innocent person or subject rather than against the actual cause of the frustration; a person who is reprimanded at work or who is poorly remunerated may take out his/her unexpressed resentment on the family. This kind of situation sometimes results in broken marriages. More importantly, the children reared under such conditions may have the tendency for violence.

Urban Culture Shock: This is a very dangerous cause of urban violence, because hardly can the people allow their values to be tampered with, especially in Africa where religious dogmatism is inbuilt. The heterogeneity of the urban population reflects different ethnic identities, and occupational, social and religious differentials. The culture shock resulting from contacts among these people of sometimes conflicting backgrounds is a precursor of structural violence. Most often competition for political appointments, landed property, economic opportunities etc, make urban dwellers see one another as strangers, this could later result in violence and disunity.

Conspiratorial Theory: According to Albert (1994:17) some people would argue that the degree of depravity and injustice in cities is not so great as to justify the present rate of violence in the cities. But the school of thought prefers specific cases of urban violence such as war, ethnic or religious clashes, students' and/or workers' protests to be seen mainly as the subversive antics of some unscrupulous demagogues, local or foreign, who consider their interests better protected by crisis situations.

Urban Poverty: This accounts for the bulk of urban violence, due to the increase in unemployment, inadequate housing and inadequate physical and social infrastructures. According to Obateru (1994:31), when he was illustrating the effects of urban violence on Nairobi, an urban centre in Kenya, economic data from Nairobi revealed that up to 70 per cent of Nairobi residents are dwelling... in slums. According to Davinder Lamba, the executive director of the Mazingira Institute, a Nairobi based non-government organisation, 80 per cent of Nairobi's populations are low-income earners. The 20 per cent of the population that are highincome earners occupy 60 per cent of the city land. Two thirds of the population does not have access to clean water, and water shortage haunts cities to residents. In low-income areas, sanitation systems are virtually non-existent; residents often have to cross open sewers to reach their houses (Owuor, 1993:6). In view of this, the economic situation of many urban centres throughout the world, especially the developing countries are most depressing. Urban poverty has been the major cause of human insecurity, which is the lack of access to all basic human needs for surviving. Poverty has caused under nutrition or malnutrition, poor health, low productivity, dearth of decent housing, illiteracy and lack of political power.

The Poverty Cycle

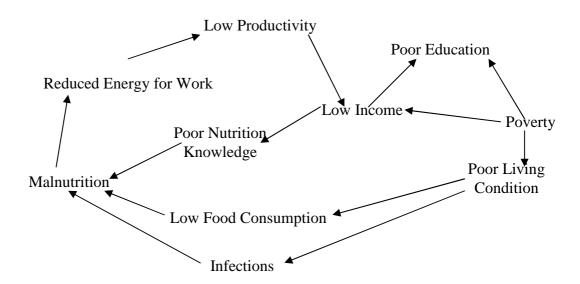


Fig.14: The poverty cycle chart: Adopted from Food Basket Foundation International Ibadan (FBII) by Akinyele, Onifade & Afolabi – 1994:101

Malnutrition: Inability of a society to adequately feed her population can lead to urban violence. Sometimes, there may be seasons of large productivity, but most of the urban centres especially in the developing countries lack modern food preservation methods and storage facilities, which leads to malnutrition. Children and women are usually worst hit by this.

According to Food Basket Foundation International Ibadan-FBFII (1994: 100), the food consumption level in Nigeria for example, is relative lower than that of Kenya, Tanzania and Senegal, but higher than that of Ghana and Cameroon (FAO, 1988). Also, a World Bank report confirms that the daily intake of energy and protein in Nigeria is below FAO recommendations (World Bank, 1991). It is not surprising therefore that malnutrition still remains a major public health problem in Nigeria. The major nutritional problems in Nigeria are protein, energy malnutrition-resulting in kwashiorkor, vitamin A deficiency, iodine deficiency disorders and anemia. Malnutrition has multiple effects; it impairs physical and mental growth, and the development and survival of infants and young children, the physical and intellectual development of school-age children, the work performance and productivity of adults, and the reproductive performance of women. Thus, malnutrition constitutes a brake on the socio-economic development to the detriment of a nation already under-privileged. Hence, it is very important to carry out an effective control programme and policy for the poor.

Some of the youth form gangs to survive—to obtain food and other basic necessities of life

Government Policies: In urban centres most of the violent occurrences are caused by polices that are unfavourable to the masses. They lead to violent protests especially when they make life more stressful for the people. In the developing countries the members of the public are usually not effectively involved in policy formulation implementation. This makes governments to introduce policies mainly at the implementation stage; such practice does not enable the governments to thoroughly assess the potential success rates of public policies. It is so because of potential policy acceptance by the public and the extent to which they will tolerate the difficulties inherent in the policy packages when they are eventually delivered.

Consequently, when the people experience stressful public policies, especially when these become intolerable, they react with behaviour that shows their lack of support. The people's attitude to the policies is usually negative and unfavourable, while their behaviour is antagonistic to the continual working of the policies (Sunmola, 1994: 408). Once the people share collective negative disposition towards the policies, it will eventually be demonstrated by acts of violence.

Stress: The psychological experiences that account for people's violent reactions to stressful public policies are examined in this section. Separate individual attitudes and behaviour concerning stressful public policies almost always become transformed collective attitude and behaviour. This collective attitude and behaviour sometimes leads to urban violence (Sunmola, 1994: 401). Sunmola states that when a person perceives a public policy as capable of threatening his or her well being, that is as a stressful policy, then the person tends to withdraw support from such a policy. However, if the person perceives public policies as non-threatening to his or her well being, that is, as a non-stressful policy, then the person tends to offer support for the policy.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

State and discuss the causes of urban violence.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, the causes of urban violence have been explained by looking at the following features: overpopulation, poor management, lack of resources or limited facilities, unemployment, domestic mismanagement, urban culture shock, conspiratorial ideas.

5.0 SUMMARY

The fundamental causes of urban violence have been mentioned and explained in this unit, we believe that you will be able to mention and discuss these factors and apply the knowledge where applicable.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What are the causes of urban violence?
- 2. Discuss the causes of urban violence.

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UNIT 4 YOUTHS AND URBAN VIOLENCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Youths and Urban Violence
 - 3.2 Discussion
 - 3.3 Youths and Urban Violence in Nigeria
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

For several decades now, urban youth violence has been a major highlight of the news, both at the local and in the international scenes. Discussions in the press and in the academic environment about its nature and extent could get very emotional. Brutal murders, kidnappings, arson, destruction of life and property and accidental violence are some types of urban violence involving young people. However, the intractable ones are political violence, students' unrest and road transport workers' clashes.

The various issues that will be examined in this unit are urban youth and violence, factors responsible, and its management.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss urban youth and violence
- list and explain the factors responsible for urban youths' interest in violence
- explain the management of urban violence.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Youth

The term youth defies any precise definition, but it may be defined as a man's life span duration when one is young. For example, the youthful periods could be between childhood and maturity, or the early period of existence in terms of growth and development. The youthful stage may be the adolescence years, teenage period, or the stage of being young.

However, it has been interchangeably used by different writers, which often means the same thing or occasionally differentiated. It could also be called that time of life that is neither childhood nor adulthood, but rather, some time in-between. Nevertheless, the definition of youth needs not to be given priority at this age any longer, but rather, the impact of young people called the youth within the society. That is why Robert Kennedy said, "this world demands the qualities of youth; not a time of life but a state of mind, a temper of will, a quality of imagination, and a predominance of courage over timidity of the appetite for adventure, over the love of ease".

In other words, in all developing countries, the certainties of rural traditions are giving way to urban life with its opportunities and risks, its individual freedoms, and its more complex social demands framework of support. Whereas in the early traditional rural communities, the extended family and established customs used to guide the transitions to adulthood; now in the rapidly changing urban environment, young people learn much about what to expect and how to behave; from their peers, and increasingly from the mass media This has transformed their mind-set. This has led to the creation of a youth culture that is urban in nature and that serves as a reference point for young people developing their identities, often while challenging their ascribed roles at home, school, and work. Young people in urban settings often develop a sense of self-identity from their surroundings; such surroundings that offer far greater social, cultural, and ethnic diversity than rural environments. The close proximity and frequent interactions of young people in urban areas facilitate the creation, adaptation, and dissemination of an urban youth culture. The interactions with urban environment can have an intense impact on the socialisation of young people, exposing them to a multitude of influences as they develop, experiment, question, and assume roles in their societies.

Music, dance, fashion, art or other cultural forms that represent the lifestyles of impoverished youth, provide young people with a new form of expression, have influenced their clothing, language and outlook or activities in life, and even shape the collective identities of urban youth. Other aspects of youth urban culture are reflected in certain risk behaviours that are prevalent among young men in urban areas, which include alcohol, drug consumption and engagement in violence. Hence, violence happens in every community across the nations, and affects people of all ages. Few individuals and families experience violence as an isolated incident. Most often than none, youths experience domestic violence, child abuse, sexual violence and suicidal behaviour most especially at home. For any violence experienced by the youth, the tendency to become victims or perpetrators of other forms of violence increases. Violence can be cyclical in nature, because violence at the

micro level can later be macro in nature if care is not taken. The violence in homes or communities often affects youth behaviour and performance in society, its connection should be considered within and outside certain environmental settings.

Youths and Urban Violence

- Urban youths and unemployment
- Youthful malady and idiocy
- Moral decadence
- Loss of educational virtues and values
- Political instrumentalism
- Domestic and family violence

3.1 Youths and Urban Violence

Before the advent of urbanisation "groups in the villages especially in an African societies, were organised into compounds for political, social, economic and administrative purposes, focusing on the maintenance of the total society (Mohan, 1966; Fadipe, 1970; Okedeji, 1972)"; although the unit of governance was small then but the control system was enough and capable of effective vigilance and management. The moral values and norms of each society began in manageable units, that is, from the nuclear family, age-grades or age groups, secret societies and cults, elders' councils to some extent where necessary. More importantly, there were agencies of discipline, properly laid and properly monitored sanctions in the traditional society. This prevented any aggrieved or injured persons from engaging in antisocial behaviour. That is why, Coser (1976) states that people who are well integrated into growth are cushioned to a significant extent from the impact of frustrations that afflict the human lot; hence they are less likely to resort to extreme behavioural attitudes.

Unfortunately, today, the advent of urbanisation and consequently growth of cities has destroyed or weakened the structures that kept people together. The influx of people into the urban areas in search of jobs and for other reasons began, where different political, social and economic organisations are operated. Nothing like communalism again, relationships are strictly superficial and individualistic. The ancient maxim of "be your brother's keeper" has changed to, "everyone for himself, God for us all". Urban communities are overpopulated with inherent complexities and diversities of problems, such as ethnic affiliations, security and safety needs, poverty, etc. That is why Raab and Selznick (1966) state that a delinquent family, disorganised and value-confused is both a source and reflection of trends in its society.

Therefore, it will be an interesting and a rewarding exercise to state and explain the factors that are responsible for urban youth violence.

The following elements are significant in this discussion and need to be elaborated upon:

- higher rates of youth unemployment in urban centres
- youth malady and idiocy
- moral decadence in value systems
- political instrumentalism in the urban society
- domestic and family violence in the urban society

Urban centres are at times overpopulated, and with different categories of people like youths, adults and elders, both male and female. Poor urban management can degenerate to intense youth's violence. Albert (2003:23) states thus "The problems created by governance could be direct or indirect. The indirect ones are where the government fails to put the necessary infrastructure of peace in place. The absence of these infrastructures soon transforms the society into an assemblage of frustrated men and women, who could be easily provoke or induced to violent acts borne out of their frustration.

Urban youth violence manifests itself in forms such as political violence, students' unrest, armed robbery, murder, assassination, transport workers' clashes, hostage taking, militancy, kidnapping, etc. The major factors responsible for youths' violence are mention in this section.

Urban Youth Unemployment: Urban youth unemployment seems to make violence to be more economical and beneficial, in the sense that urban youths see resources derived from violence as means of livelihood or means of sustenance that cater for their immediate and secondary needs. The unemployed youths are tools in the hands of political leaders and religious fundamentalists.

Youthful Malady and Idiocy: Several urban youths are addicted to drugs and sex. Youth behave irrationally and without considering the implications of their behaviour on the society. Many are killed and even injured in the process of violence.

Moral Decadence: This is a case of society's loss of norms and values. The urbanisation process has greatly impacted on many of society's cultural values negatively to the extent that urban people generally, see nothing wrong in immorality. Urban people have totally foregone the traditional principle of ensuring peace and stability or peaceful coexistence; they are not only given to violence but could be individualistic. The structures that kept people together before the

emergence of urbanisation are eroded or weakened. The society's maxim of "be your brothers' keepers" that existed earlier has been changed to "everyone for him/herself, God for us all". Youths are no longer culture conscious, many of them are disrespectful and morally decadent.

Loss of Educational Virtues and Values: Urban educational system is deteriorating at an alarming rate, unemployment of young school leavers has reached embarrassing and unacceptable proportions. The youth no longer value education. Violence arising out of students' protest has surpassed other forms in terms of frequency of occurrence, volatility and severity of effects on the entire society. The youth now believe that violence or force is the midwife of development and progress. The fact still remains that urban youth violence has left thousands of people dead, many injured and public property destroyed.

Political Instrumentalism: In terms of political violence, youths have been the major instruments, and they play prominent roles in political power agitation. They are involved in murder and assassination. Unfortunately, the leaders who are supposed to be building peace in their communities are the same people who provided the resources for the youths to engage in political violence.

Domestic and Family Violence: The family is the indispensable agent of socialisation for everybody on behalf of the society; the family---domestic care ---provides the foundation blocks on which every other stage of life is built. It is the initial personality moulders out of which other personality traits emerge in the future. But according to Giddens (1998:163) "Family violence is a sort of domestic and physical abuse directed by one member of the family against another member or other members of the family. It usually takes the form of aggressive behaviour by other members of the family against a member of the conjugal union. Many youths have abandoned their homes, taking refuge in the motor parks or under bridges in urban centres. Youths from different homes connive together to do evil. This is usually the effect of what must have occurred to them at their homes.

3.3 Youths and Violence in Nigeria

Few of the urban centres like Lagos, Ibadan, Benin city, Port-Harcourt, Onitsha, Aba and many Northern Nigeria urban centres will be used in this section. The rank and file of this kind of people are majorly drawn from motor parks touts, who have refused or are unable to get an education or that are unable to learn other marketable skills. Most of these youths are migrants from the rural areas to urban centres, who go in quest for employment. But since the majority of them are unemployed

or underemployed, they become instruments of violence in the hands of politicians and are also easily recruited by the men of the underworld.

Youths and Violence in Lagos: Lagos has been the most densely populated city in Nigeria since independence. It was Nigeria's capital before December 1990, when the Federal Capital Territory was moved to Abuja. Ever since then, it has remained the capital of Lagos State and remains the main commercial and economic capital of Nigeria. The city's residents are from different ethnic groups; its population is made up of both employed and unemployed people. Lagos as an urban centre also has several numbers of motor park touts and bus conductors of all types. One thing that is common among Lagos motor park touts and bus conductors is that they can speak Nigerian languages, as well as Pidgin English. They can strike up a conversation with any potential traveler, and once the commuter's destination is ascertained then his /her trouble would begin. Some of these touts may carry the passenger's luggage to the vehicle they want him/her to board without even seeking his/her consent. The situation can become worse when there are two groups of touts competing for the passenger's luggage; the other group may be pushing the passenger towards the vehicle that it has chosen. In this sort of situation, the touts could rough handle and even injure the passenger. Some of the touts live in the motor parks, and they become drunk even in the early hours of the day (Obioha, 1994: 176). They are usually under the influence of hard drugs too. This helps to induce them to violence, which they carry out without thinking about its repercussions.

No wonder in 1991 and 1992, the touts at Iddo Motor Park in Lagos, hijacked the University of Lagos and Yaba College of Technology students' peaceful demonstration. On taking over the demonstration, they unleashed terror on the traders on Lagos Island and burnt down Federal, State and Local Government vehicles. Many innocent people were either man-handled or wounded (Obioha, 1994: 177). According to Obioha, the wickedness perpetrated by the touts on the traders of Balogun, Apongbon, Idumota and other parts of the island, is unimaginable. These criminals who are called *area boys* and *area fathers* are members of gangs who live on other people's sweat. They demand parking fees from vehicle owners and drivers and also collect fees for sanitation from the traders in a violent manner. In many instances, their victims are forced to borrow money from strangers or request for contribution from their sympathisers to pay the ransom demanded (Obioha, 1994: 178).

Youths and Violence in Benin City: Benin City was the capital of the old Bendel State and remains the capital of Edo State that emerged from the old Bendel State. The activities of motor park touts and bus conductors are not different from that of the ones in other urban centres

in Nigeria. There are motor parks in virtually all major streets in Benin. According to Obioha (1994: 175), a passenger may pay for a journey from Benin city to Port Harcourt only to discover later that the touts gave the driver the fare that covers the trip from Benin City to Owerri; and in the late hours of the day when the vehicle is quite far from Benin, the passenger will then discover to his/her chagring that the bus the touts claimed was going to Port Harcourt was meant to stop at Owerri and would not go as far as Port Harcourt.

The surprising aspect is that, it is the motor park touts that would drive the vehicles round Benin city to pick passengers and also collect transport fares from the passengers before handing those same vehicles over to the actual drivers. The passengers who for one reason or the other refuse to pay to the touts masquerading as conductors, are usually manhandled or forced out of such vehicles at places that are some distance away from any motor park. Usually, the collection of fares is carried out as the touts drive around the city calling out for passengers for the trips. In searching for the passengers sometimes, different gangs of touts belonging to different factions of touts organisations clash. Not only do they fight each other, they also injure innocent passersby. Often, they use weapons such as bottles, cudgels, knives, rods, and other objects freely. One noticeable feature about all these is that they are hardly arrested and dealt with by law enforcement agents. Any peaceful demonstration, especially that organised by the University of Benin Students Union gets hijacked by the touts. They terrorise the people and make away with the property and goods belonging to traders.

Youths and Violence in Port Harcourt: Port Harcourt is the capital of Rivers State, which is an oil producing state, and it is a port city. Violence in this city is pronounced and operates in various forms such as militancy, touting, kidnapping, hostage taking, students' unrest, etc. Many of the motor parks in this city are situated along Port Harcourt-Aba road and Port Harcourt to Owerri road. Their common language in this city is Pidgin English. Sometimes, touts extended their different motor parks to the highways, and even to the trucks that carry goods from the port. They force the transporters and commuters to pay commissions, which are not for any services rendered by them, but for being merely present (Obioha, 1994: 174). Some of the youths in this city engage in oil bunkering, oil pipeline vandalisation, hostage taking and kidnapping, as ways of making money. They could hijack petroleum trucks and even fight pupils of primary or secondary schools. Many times violence erupts when the touts unilaterally increase transportation fares. They infiltrate peaceful demonstrations embarked upon by students and transform such to occasions for violence. When the touts go on rampage they leave many people wounded and they destroy property worth huge sums of money. These violent youth engage in

money extortion, stealing and brigandage. They make themselves readily available in inter-communal clashes (which have become endemic in different parts of the River State), as long as they are well paid and given a copious quantity of alcoholic drinks and cheap hard drugs. Just like in Lagos, every weekend, staring from Friday afternoon they arbitrarily increase transportation fares at the motor parks.

Youths and Violence in Onitsha: Onitsha is an urban market centre in the eastern part of Nigeria. The activities of some youths there, especially those at the motor parks, are almost uncontrollable. Apart from operating at the motor parks, they monitor trucks and trailers that come into Onitsha market to offload merchandise of all sorts ranging from baby food to vehicle spare parts and clothing materials.

According to Obioha (1994: 174), once these trucks arrive from Lagos or any other part of the country, the touts would decide on how much the owners of the merchandise would pay before their goods would be offloaded into warehouses. Merchants who refuse to pay what the touts demand would have some of their goods forcibly taken or damaged; besides, more than one group of touts would demand "offload" fees intermittently. Sometimes, the touts inflate transport fares and pay the drivers normal fares, leaving the drivers, conductors and passengers to sort things out among themselves. The passengers would only discover later when the vehicle might have left Onitsha that in spite of the huge transport fares they have paid to be taken to their various destinations; they could still be left to their fate along the way. Many travelers sometimes get stranded in situations like this. Many times the touts assault passengers that seem uncooperative.

Touts make life unbearable even for petty traders by demanding "landing fees" which are often high. This was rampant in Onitsha until recent times when the traders connive to attack the erstwhile "masters of the city", forcing many of them to flee to other places. However the confrontation left a lot of people homeless, because the traders dispersed these touts by destroying their habitats and hide-outs.

Youths and Violence in Aba: Aba is a commercial urban centre in Abia State. Its central location makes it assessable and attractive to a lot of businessmen and women. There are many motor parks in the place. For instance, in the Abia Central Business District, there are parks meant for commuters going to different destinations. The touts continue to compete with each other, and are always quarrelling over passengers. Their rebellious attitude usually leads uncooperation and the existence of many factions. One person may form a group, establish a territory and start a new motor park with his name (Obioha, 1994: 173).

Obioha (1994) further explained that as soon as the followers of the leader of the new faction disagree with him they break-up into another faction and form a new motor park. As it is the motor parks in the town may very soon outnumber the commercial vehicles there. The frequent increase in transport fares is associated with the activities of these touts because they decide for the drivers how much to charge, which spends on the time or period of the day and the number of commuters. Weekends are good days for motor park touts. They work till late in the night because many passengers are people who normally leave Aba to their various places of abode, either within or outside Abia State on weekends. The touts sometimes triple transport fares at such times.

Youths and Violence in Ibadan: Ibadan was the capital of the old Western Region and has remained a state capital. Ibadan is the biggest city in West Africa and second largest City in Africa, after Cairo in Egypt. The activities of violent youths there are not different from that of the other urban centres mentioned earlier. However some Ibadan youths, most especially the motor park touts are instruments of political They engage in political violence, harassment, assault, murder, etc. Virtually all the main roads of Ibadan city have motor parks for either intra city transportation or transportation outside the city and state. All these motor parks are full of touts. Many commuters are rough handled and even harassed or attacked on several occasions over transport fares charges, by the touts. They collect illegal fees and taxes from the drivers and passengers, and may severely beat up resistant drivers and passengers. They hijack student demonstrations, terrorise traders and loot markets and business areas. They are usually high on hard drinks and hard drugs.

Many of these violent youths have abandoned their homes and delight in living in places like motor parks, under bridges, uncompleted buildings, and even some the public schools. Sexual harassment and sexual violence are rampant among them and their female counterparts serve them as prostitutes. Youths and Violence in Northern Nigeria: Generally urban youth violence in the northern parts of Nigeria is associated with motor parks touts, religious intolerance, fanaticism, fundamentalism and political thuggery. Due to poor economic conditions, many youths have totally abandoned Western touting at motor parks, religious education for fundamentalism and thuggery. Religious, political and ethnic violence are pronounced and rampant in northern urban centres like Kano, Kaduna, Sokoto, Jos and Zaria. Many lives and property are destroyed during the bouts of violence.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1. Discuss youths and urban violence.
- 2. Mention and explain the factors responsible for youths' violence.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have explained urban youths and violence in Nigeria. Our discussion in this unit is self explanatory, although very limited so you will need to read widely to get more information on it.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed urban youths and violence in some parts of Nigeria.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 20. Explain urban youth and violence in three states in Nigeria.
- 21. List and explain the major factors responsible for urban youth's violence.

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UNIT 5 MANAGEMENT OF URBAN VIOLENCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Discussion
 - 3.2 Urban Managerial Factors
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, proper management of urban centres is discussed. Various issues that are discussed include: promotion of urban productivity, good urban planning, decentralisation of the state's urban resources, better orientation and information management, improvement on urban facilities and other infrastructural needs, rural development programmes, youths' development and women empowerment, better communication and good road network systems, encouragement of socio-cultural value systems, urban transport management and effective security systems. It is believed that these will educate you on how urban violence can be effectively managed.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- effectively discuss urban violence management
- enlighten policy makers on how urban centres should be well managed
- discuss the adverse effects of urban violence
- suggest proper channels for urban violence management.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Discussion

In urban centres, the major problem that usually undermines progress, development and peaceful co-existence among the populace is poor management. The lack of good governance happens to be a major problem that produces violence. As a matter of fact, the neglect of rural areas also prompts the influx of rural people to urban areas; this turns

many urban centres to places for miscreants to assemble. Efforts that are aimed at combating, preventing or ameliorating urban violence must be approached with a serious and well-structured policy. Therefore, in this section, it will be an interesting and a rewarding exercise to state and analyse urban violence management mechanisms, while the following factors are significant in urban management:

- promotion of urban productivity;
- good planning management;
- urban transportation management;
- effective security system;
- decentralisation of the state's urban resources:
- better orientation and information management;
- improvement on the facilities and infrastructural needs;
- rural development programmes;
- youth development and women empowerment programmes;
- better communication and good road network systems; and
- encouragement of socio-cultural value systems.

3.2 Promoting Urban Productivity

The apparent, root causes of urban crime and violence are poverty and economic frustration. Poverty and economic crises do not appear to cause violence directly, but indirectly they create socio-economic tension and frustration, which usually lead to eruption of criminal and violent behaviour. The exposure of the poor to the better life styles and conspicuous material wealth and extravagance of the rich exhibited in public places and on television, and their realisation of their inability to secure these good things of life, create frustration that manifests in crime and violence (Obateru, 1994: 32). Therefore, the fundamental panacea to urban poverty and economic frustration is the promotion of urban productivity through the strategies of medium and long-term economic development planning that aim at elevating the people's living standards and minimising the economic disparity between the low and higher income earners.

De Noronha (1991), states that if the global strategies of increasing urban productivity..., and alleviation of urban poverty are not implemented, it is impossible for any anti-violence initiative to succeed...unless we can restore the path of development that it includes social issues as a central component and established sound, long-term and universal social policies, and are or will not be able to overcome these new forms of criminality. The strong, and very well organised economic, social and political forces that push violence as a standard pattern of life in our cities will continue.

Good Planning and Management

This can help in achieving and enhancing the main aim of economic development planning, which is to raise the living standards of the society or populace of urban centres. This comprises reduction of the socio- economic disparity between the privileged and the underprivileged through equitable spatial distribution of physical and social infrastructures; and creating the physical environments that are functionally efficient and aesthetically pleasant for the populace. An enhanced functional efficiency and productivity are the mechanisms for raising the living standards of population, and consequently promote happiness (Obateru, 1994:36). In view of this, the Australian committee of economic enquiry (1965), rightly asserted that growth provides the means of raising living standards, promoting national security, and growth is self- generating. It stimulates enterprise, encourages innovation and provides a constant spur to technical and managerial efficiency.

More importantly, a well-grown economy facilitates economic and social mobility...the progressive state is in reality of a cheerful and the hearty state to all the different orders of the society. The stationary is dull, declining, melancholic (Commonwealth of Australia, 1985: 28). According to Obateru (1994: 36), the following strategies of urban and rural development planning can raise the living standards of the society: restricting the growth of large cities. Channelling their potential growth of selecting and strategically locating small or medium sized towns in the rural areas will result to a considerable reduction of rural-urban migration. Through this, the growth rates of large cities will be declined, which will facilitate their proper planning and promote their functioning with aesthetic efficiency as well as productivity, the end product of which is the enhancement of the living standards of their residents. Stren (1992:7), states that

One of the most visible and disturbing characteristics of the poor cities of the developing world today is the decline in their infrastructural base. As urban populations grow, and as available resources decline, public infrastructure is being degraded to a point where cities are seriously losing their capacity to operate as productive entities. To be productive, cities need well- functioning infrastructures, such as roads, water systems, electrical networks, telephone systems, schools, hospitals, etc, in order to facilitate the kinds of services... that permit both households and firms to operate efficiently.

Also, the rural developmental programme should include: channelling the potential growth of large cities into selected and strategically located small and medium sized urban centres of the rural areas to become urban growth centres of employment and infrastructural development. This should include exploitation of the national resources of the rural areas, and agricultural development that is fundamental to economic development coupled with respect of feeding the nations, sourcing for industrial development and promoting export trade (Obateru, 1994:37).

Decentralisation of the State's Urban Resources: This is inherent in better socio-economic planning that encompasses social or welfare service, and economic development strategies of mitigating the gaps of economic disparity between the low and upper socio-economic classes. Through efficient spatial distributions of such developmental opportunities and facilities of employment(s), housing, social infrastructures, transportation, public utilities and recreation facilities to enable all socio-economic classes to achieve their optimum development of both human and material resources.

Improvement on the Urban Facility and Infrastructural Needs: The comprehensive programme on facilities and infrastructural needs should be developed to address the worsening conditions of the urban populace. This should include improved housing facilities, income, transportation, health services, water supply, electricity and educational services for the teeming unemployed, semi-proletarian, proletarian and the bourgeois elements in the cities. Also, there should be a meaningful programme of empowerment and comprehensive programme of democratisation that guarantee regional, ethnic and political human rights and freedoms in the urban centres. This is to avoid any marginalisation, domination, and segmentation in the urban communities and among the ethno-religious groups. The political elite and other stakeholders should institutionalised a civil and constitutional framework within the society, under which the allocation of resources and powers will be based on fairness, justice and equity, as well as generally acceptable criteria of formulating and protecting the citizenry. They should create structures of coping mechanisms within the cities, such as organisational and financial problem solutions (small and medium, finance scale business). They should create mechanisms for providing jobs, rendering services on security, and providing sanitation and affordable housing. All these should be in addition to encouraging the development of small and medium sized secondary towns, instead of allowing a circular expansion of slums and shanties around the existing over crowded urban centres.

Urban Transport Management

In urban centres, there is a need for the Municipal Government to formulate and implement policies that will guide the activities of urban motor parks. Such policies must be thoroughly enforced by the law enforcement agencies, in order to get rid off of all sorts of undesirable

elements. This should be done to flush out motor park touts and criminals. The urban municipal government also needs to thoroughly monitor the activities of urban motor parks by using plain clothes law enforcement agents, while establishing price control measures for fares. Each local wing of the transport workers' union should be reorganised with a view to making them accountable for all their activities. The touts could be trained to maintain the roads and even paid salaries. The touts may also be employed by the municipal governments to maintain good sanitation of the cities. There should be a proper investment in public transport services, in terms of provision for urban transport infrastructure and revitalisation. The motor park touts also need to be trained in some vocational skills like welding, motor mechanic work, shoe making and other marketable skills. This will help to turn around their life of crime to a useful life that enhances and encourages urban development.

Rural Developmental Programme: There should be an effective rural development system which will ensure that activities move from the urban centres to rural areas. This will reduce rural- urban migration. Policies should be put in place to help identify the challenges of rural development and how rural- urban migration can be reduced. Efforts should be made to harmonise activities geared towards rural development. Such activities should be multidimensional in nature, and must be seen as a holistic approach that encompasses educational, health and nutritional improvements and human welfare, agricultural and infrastructural development. More importantly, financial aid and assistance need to be provided for the rural farmers, so as to improve on agro-rural developmental programmes, while local equipment as well as indigenous skills should be encouraged and modernised, in order to cope with the realities of modern systems of agriculture without having to import technology. It will not only help to compliment the rural economy, but it will also help the general economy. Hence, the target of the rural developmental programme at large should include higher agricultural productivity through enhanced access of farmers to improve varieties of seeds, technology, financial assistance, extension of educational services, etc. There should be mass mobilisation of rural dwellers to initiate and execute projects for individuals, communities and groups for rural industrialisation and national development.

Youth Development and Women Empowerment Programmes: Youth and women empowerment mobilisation programmes may also be provided, while several activities should be targeted at the youths at different levels. These could include: sports, games, songs, quizzes, debates, workshops, symposia etc. Such activities should be meant to train the youths for national development. Much effort also should be

made to implement an "out of idleness programme", especially during their holidays and prolonged teachers' strikes. Also to reduce unemployment among the youths, effective skill acquisition programmes should be organised; such programmes will encourage or assisting them to set-up and run their own businesses. Programmes that will prevent peer influence, cultism, and inadequacy of parental control, political influence and instigation must be fused into the societal system by the government.

Better Orientation and Information Management: This is very important and can help in urban and rural development programmes. Information and better orientation programme for the people will be helpful in planning and development of both the urban and rural society. In fact any society that is not well informed, will be misinformed, and a reasonable government must get its populace well inform of its programmes and activities.

Better Communication and Good Road Network Systems: These are important for the development of the society. Efforts should be made to implement such projects that will ensure better communication systems and good road network systems in both urban and rural areas.

Encouragement of Socio-cultural Value Systems: Urban centres experience so much of violence today, due to the loss of traditional social value systems and moral decadence. The leaders take advantage of the people; corruption has destroyed the social fabric of many urban and rural areas.

Effective Security System in Urban Centres: All security apparatus should be used directly or indirectly in urban centres because such places are prone to violence. This is very important, in order to prevent total destruction of life and property.

Restoration of the Rule of Law and Respect for Human Rights: The restoration of rule of law and respect for human rights are essential in ensuring safety of lives and property. They t will also help in preventing crime against humanity, and entrench fairness, equity and justice.

Building Confidence between the Security Forces and Civil Society:
- One of the ingredients of safety and security of any society is the confidence building between or among the security forces and civil society. This will enhance and encourage trust among all those concerned.

A Conducive Political Landscape: Entrenchment of proper security in the society will provide for a good political landscape. This will check

and prevent activities like terrorism, militancy, armed robbery and other forms of crime.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss urban management.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have discussed the various mechanisms for the management of urban violence. Although the unit is self explanatory you should make effort to get more information on the topic.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed various ways of managing urban violence.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. List urban violence management mechanisms.
- 2. Discuss how urban violence can be effectively managed.

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MODULE 4 SECURITY AND HUMAN SECURITY

Unit 1	Meaning/Definition of Security
Unit 2	Importance of Security
Unit 3	Insecurity and Conflict Development
Unit 4	Cooperate Security Efforts
Unit 5	Management of Insecurity

UNIT 1 MEANING/DEFINITION OF SECURITY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Meaning/Definition of Security
 - 3.2 Understanding Security
 - 3.3 Human Security
 - 3.4 Security and Development
 - 3.5 Types of Security
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Security as a sensitive issue in all human endeavours is the subject matter of this unit. Thus, various issues like definition of security, understanding security and insecurity or threats of insecurity will be critically examined.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define security as a concept
- explain security and the nature of its challenges
- state the various dimensions of security.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition/Meaning of Security

Security can be simply defined as a measure that ensures peaceful coexistence, stability and orderliness, that guarantees the absence of fear, threats, anxiety, tension and the apprehension of losing life, liberty, property or other important goals and values. Lipmann (1943:51) and Aja (1999:31) say that, "a nation is secure to the extent that it is not in a position to lose core values, lives, properties and liberties, and if it wishes to deter aggression or win war when it is unavoidable". Therefore, the security concept provides for an enabling environment or atmosphere of good socio-political orderliness in a system. In other words, the relationship between lives, services rendered and security is very important. It serves as a protective measure, medium, substance and shield, or insulator of life from all other dangerous sectors, in order to achieve its ultimate goals and values. No nation or a reasonable society will take the issue of security for granted or carelessly. The classifications of security in this discourse will reveal that all the issues about security cannot be stereotyped and based on military might but encompass all the components of the society. The concept of security can be classified into political security, domestic security, economic security, industrial security or workplace security and human security.

3.2 Meaning/Discussion of Human Security

Human security is a relatively new concept, which is now widely used to describe the complexity of interrelated threats associated with civil war, genocide, and the internal displacement of populations. The concept of security in general is now increasingly viewed as all conditions in which the people live in freedom, peace and safety, and also participate fully in the process of governance, enjoying the protection of human rights, have access to resources and the basic necessities of life, in an environment that is not detrimental to their health and well being.

Human security therefore encompasses the security of a person, property, assets, pre-condition of people's improvement of lives, and protection of human rights that are fundamental to sustainable development. National security focuses on defence of the state from external attack, while human security is solely about the protection of individuals and communities from violence. Human security is beyond the protection of citizens from external attacks, it encompasses all conditions of better livelihood of individuals, which also includes: poverty eradication, state security protection and various forms of socioeconomic and political equality. But the insecurity of man includes the

hunger, diseases, and natural disasters, threats of war or war itself, genocide, terrorism and other forms of violence.

3.3 Security and Development

The security issue is an essential component of good governance that ensures peace and sustainable development. Insecurity of a country will definitely affect the overall prospects for development, as well as the effectiveness of international assistance provided in other areas. For Stewart (2004), human insecurity involves poverty and inequality that are root causes of individual vulnerability. Security and development are deeply inter-connected. The objective of development is "the enlargement of human choices." Insecurity cuts life short and thwarts the use of human potential by affecting the objective. Lack of human security has adverse consequences on economic growth and development. Such consequences are on the people traumatised by the effect of wars and the destruction of infrastructure that reduces the productivity capacity of the economy. The imbalanced development that involves horizontal inequalities is an important source of conflict.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What is human security?

3.4 Understanding Security

Having defined the term security as a mechanism that ensures absence of threats or a fear of losing life, liberty and property, this section will discuss, the conceptualisation of security and its culture.

First and foremost, there is an assumption that everyone in the society is familiar with what security is and what it entails. However, having a broad knowledge of security is quite different from actual security culture and practice. A security conscious person is expected to have better security reflexes, alertness and agility in actions (Aja; 199:35). Anyone that is security conscious will be highly sensitive and cautious of anything perceived to be a threat. Security consciousness hinges on reflex, alertness, vigilance, agility and rationality (Aja; 1999:35). Therefore, security consciousness can be achieved through education.

Security Education: This is a situation whereby the members of the public will be enlightened and taught how to achieve alertness, vigilance and agility. Aja (1999: 36), states that, on the whole, security education is better achieved through public seminars and conferences.

3.5 Security Institutional Agency

This is an institutional defence sector and security operative outfit that is made up of the military, intelligence outfits, the police force, security council, defence council, etc. It is an institution that is responsible for socio-political, economic and cultural orderliness and stability.

Types of Security

Since the issue of security has gone beyond military focus on protection of the territory and sovereignty with the strength of the national defence forces the new concept of security therefore includes the responsibility that ensures the well being of the people. Its new outlook is the transformation of the security system, which encompasses all the actors, their roles, responsibilities and actions, so that it is managed and operated in such a manner that conforms to democratic norms and sound principles of good governance. In view of this, the concept of security can be classified into political, domestic, economic, industrial or work place and human security. These classifications are still subdivided further in this section.

Security is an essential component for good governance and e sustainable development. Recognition is growing that what happens on security has a significant impact on a country's overall prospects for development as well as the effectiveness of the international assistance provided in the other areas. Many countries and even conflict prone societies now recognise the fact direct measures which are needed to help in improving governance and accountability must include security and conflict prevention. That is why the classification of security in this unit is as follows:

Political Security: The political security of a society, state or nation includes peace building mechanism and good governance; these would serve as conflict preventive measures. Political security could be subdivided further into regional, national, state, regime and community security. Political security encompasses the different measures that enhance stability, orderliness, and even the smooth running of governance.

Regional and International Security: This is a situation whereby security measures are being taken internationally to protect the global populace threats and attacks. It could be human or usual traditional security.

National Security: National security is the ability of a nation to pursue successfully its national interests, as it sees them (Penelope Hartland-

Thumberg). "A nation is secure to the extent to which it is not in danger of having to sacrifice core values if it wishes to avoid war, and is able, if challenged, to maintain them by a victory in such a war (Walter Lippmann)". William E. Barber defines "national security policy" as "that part of government policy that has the objective of creating national and international political conditions that are favourable for the protection or extension of vital national values, against existing or potential adversaries." National security, however, has a more extensive meaning than the protection from the physical harm; it also implies protection, through a variety of means, of vital economic and political interests, the loss of which could threaten fundamental values and the vitality of the state (Amos Jordan and William Taylor). National security... is best defined as the capacity to control those domestic and foreign conditions that the public opinion of a given community believes necessary to enjoy its own self-determination or autonomy, prosperity, and well-being (Charles Maier). Therefore, a nation is secure to the extent that it is not facing the risk of losing its national sovereignty or independence and values, and is able to subdue or combat aggression or win wars that are unavoidable. The nation's survival is the ultimate goal of its governing institutions, that include individuals, associations, political parties, pressure groups, the military, para-military organisations, etc. A reasonable nation must not see national security as the exclusive duty of the military and paramilitary bodies only, but a shared burden for everyone. That is why every citizen is a national security asset as well as security operative. National security is oriented towards the creation of social harmony, promotion of political understanding, provision and protection of basic needs of the people. A nation's body comprises the internal and external ministers of affairs, all its security apparatus, such as the military, the police force and the paramilitary forces, state security services, investigation and intelligence bureau, etc. The military phase of national security is to defend the territorial sovereignty and independence of the nation against any threats or aggression from air, land or sea. Good national security can be said to have been attained when the citizens are free from fear, threats of aggression or subversions from within or outside. Healthy and sustainable growth is the mix of polices that support productivity, employment creation, enterprise and human resource development.

The protection of individual welfare is more important than the state. If the security of individuals is threatened internally by the state or externally by other states, the state's authority can be overridden. Addressing the root causes of humanitarian crises (e.g. economic, political or social instability) is a more effective way to solve problems and protect the long-term security of individuals. Prevention is the best solution. A collective understanding of the deeper social issues along with a desire to work together is necessary to prevent humanitarian

crises, thereby preventing a widespread absence of human security within a population (which may mean investing more in development projects). Human security has been suggested to be particularly useful in examining the causes of conflicts that explain and justify humanitarian interventions. Additionally, it could also be a paradigm for identifying, prioritising and resolving large transnational problems. On the other hand, successful examples of the use of Human Security principles within interventions can be found. Arms control is also an important priority for Human Security advocates, closely linked with the Freedom from Fear agenda.

In contrast to traditional security, which is focused on protecting state interests, human security criticises the use of landmines as viable weapons of war due to the massive damage they usually cause. Whereas traditionally, states would justify the negative impact of mines due to the advantage they give on the battlefield, under human security lens, this is untenable as the wide-ranging post-conflict impact on the day-to-day experience of individuals outweighs the military advantage.

The critics of Human Security note the absence of the United States as signatory to the treaty, considering this a critical blow to its effectiveness. The global threat of terrorism is an important test case for the Human Security agenda. Proponents argue that a Human Security approach would alleviate many of the deficiencies in a traditional, state-centered counter terrorist approach. Traditional measures use international sanctions or military force, direct against a specific country but not a specific target. Besides human causalities and unnecessary economic dislocation, it also fuels the feelings of unrest that may elevate to conflicts.

State Security: The issue of state security arose as a result of the different tiers in the system of government. State security consciousness lies on protection of the state's territories against any attempt of threats and aggression, in order to ensure social harmony, national unity and security at large.

Community Security: Since all the security needs of a nation cannot be met solely by the state the community members develop their own ways of providing security. Such community security apparatus includes community police and vigilante groups, which are to guard against external and internal attacks, from armed robbers and assassins.

Regime Security: This is common in an oligarchy and ethnic cleavage system, such as a military or monarchic regime. The security system of such regime is most often provided and structured in a way that protects the ruling power and class. This can be found in Burundi and Rwanda

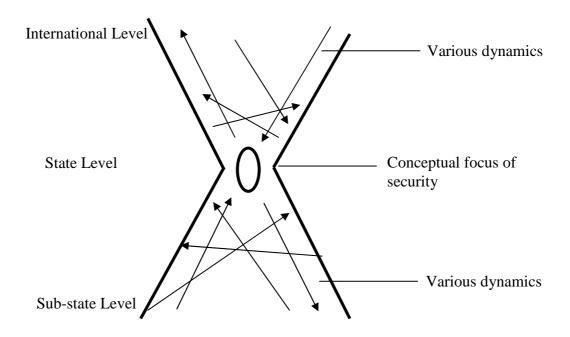
system of government between Tutsi and Hutus, and in Liberia between indigenous Africans and Americo-Liberians. They are least tolerant of the other ethnic groups. The organs and policies of their government are structured to serve and protect the political and economic interest of those in power. Little or no attention is paid to national security.

Regime security also involves personality protection, which is what dictators do such security is spiritually attached and associated with supernatural powers that are oriented towards intimidation of the subjects and opponents.

Domestic Security: This includes the protection of the lives of members of the household and their property against attack from armed robbers and other aggressors, fire disasters, etc.

Economic Security: This is to safeguard good economic performance in order to avoid poverty and to minimise the challenges of development. Economic security measures ensure protection of the economy against sabotage that may include armed robbery, fraud, money laundering and all other corrupt practices. Economic insecurity usually leads to inflation, currency devaluation and even total collapse of the economic system.

Industrial or Work Place Security: This refers to the measures and precautions that are taken in the workplace by workers against accidents and threats of attack, to ensure the safety of the workers and the organisation itself. It includes personal safety, fire disaster management, prevention of property vandalisation, precaution against hostage taking, health safety, environmental protection, water and food security, etc.



WÆVER'S 'HOURSGLASS' MODEL OF SECURITY

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

List and discuss the various types of security.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have been able to examine the concept of security as a shift from military actions that are solely focused on protection of the territory and sovereignty, to responsibility that ensures the well being of the citezenry. We examined this extensively.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have dealt with the meaning of security by considering its definition and the various types of security.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What is security?
- 2. Discuss the concept of insecurity.

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UNIT 2 IMPORTANCE OF SECURITY

CONTENTS

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Importance of Security
 - 3.2 Problems and Challenges of Security
 - 3.3 Implications of Security on Human Rights
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The importance of security is an interesting study that will be discussed better in this unit. Having defined the meaning and types of security in the previous unit, the various issues that will be critically examined here include: developmental attainment, political domination, fostering unity, protection of life and property, peaceful co-existence, and co-operation, economic recovery and reconstruction, demobilisation and reintegration of security agencies, public safety and security in preventing hostilities, restoration of the rule of law that includes human rights provisions and confidence building between the security forces and civil society, through a vibrant and educated civil society that understands security.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- apply the knowledge you have gained to any of the security needs in your environment
- state the importance of security
- explain all what security entails

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Importance of Security

Security is essential to any responsible society; it will ensure peace and sustainable development. Insecurity in one society could have an impact on the development of another. Security machinery that does not function properly can create or destroy prospects for peace, and social and economic progress. Therefore, we will examine the following

factors: development political sovereignty, national unity, protection of life and property peaceful co-existence, territorial safety and protection.

Development: The security needs of society have shifted from military activities on protection of territory and sovereignty to ensuring the well being of the populace. This is because a well secured environment will definitely give room for better political, economic and socio-cultural development. The security of a reasonable community or society should involve conditions that ensure the people live in peace and safety.

Political Sovereignty and Influence: The concept of security encompasses the expression and exercise of power among nations, to safeguard their national and international interest, politically, economically, or socio-culturally. The most powerful nations are fond of using their security might on less privileged nations, to safeguard their interest.

National Unity: Meeting the security needs of a nation helps in ensuring the unity of all members of the nation, since the issue of security involves the collective effort of the total population. In an attempt to attain this, all the members of a nation's population need to work together as one body, to achieve the needed national unity and self consciousness among them.

Protection of Life and Property: The protection of life and property is paramount to every human society and is not negotiable. Every member of the society is therefore security conscious.

Peaceful Co- existence: Ensuring security in the society helps to prevent violence. Security is an important factor in achieving good governance, as it ensures stability and orderliness. It helps in building short and long-term peace measures; especially in conflict prone societies.

Territorial Safety and Protection: Security also involves territorial protection against external and internal threats, attack and aggression. Territorial safety and protection ensures political, economic and sociocultural development of a nation or society. Other factors that emphasise the importance of security are economic recovery and reconstruction; mobilisation and reintegration of security agencies; restoration of the rule of law and human rights provisions; confidence building between the security forces and civil societies; developing a vibrant and educated civil society that understands security issues; co-operation between or among states.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What is the importance of security?

3.2 Problems and Challenges of Security

Injustice: This is a fundamental problem among all living creatures and it is often a great threat to security. Usually, those at the receiving end of injustice in the attempt to effect a change will disrupt peace. This could lead to vices like terrorism.

Cultural Diversity: This is one important threat to security in society. Since the denial human culture is the denial of human nature in general, man finds it difficult to do away with his naturally endowed culture, and can hardly allow it to be tampered with by another man. Culture is a multi-facial property of man throughout the world, due to environmental differences that result in the differences and changes in man's cultural adaptations. The cultural adaptations of man sometimes may end up in different perceptions and different belief systems, which eventually become incompatible goals and values, which could threaten the security of an otherwise well-structured society. Cultural diversity sometimes triggers violence since the diversity in human culture affects the orientation, perception and belief system of the people. Security in a society made up of many cultural or ethnic groups could be difficult.

The Lack of Adequate Resources The limited or lack of necessary facilities and man power needed to provide security is indeed a challenge to the society or community concerned.

Information Management: Information management is crucial as, misconception, distorted communication and all forms of misinformation will create problems of security.

Violence: Violence is a great threat to the security of any human society. Violence produces confusion, and lawlessness. It also encourages or gives room for proliferation of arms and ammunition, mass destruction of life and property and the situation hopelessness. The security system under such a situation may totally collapse.

Power Problem: The misuse of power, especially political power is another problem or challenge facing security. Some political godfathers use unemployed youths to perpetrate evil like assassination and murder.

Unrestrained Quest for Money: Unrestrained quest for money could be responsible for civil strife, illegal production of local weapons, armed robbery, murder and assassination and other forms of crime. . . **Desire**

for Self-defense: Possession of personal weapons without a legal authorisation could be borne by the desire for self-defence and the desperation to combat insecurity.

Rise in Crime: The rise in crime rate day by day in many societies constitutes another challenge to security. This has on many occasions fuelled the demand for small arms and weapons of mass destruction. Sometimes, in response to the determination of security agents to combat offences involving proliferation of weapons the criminals acquire weapons that are more sophisticated. Consequently, the rise in crime leads to an increase in demand for more powerful weapons.

Cultural Practices: Sometimes weapons are used in traditional rites and ceremonies; sometimes they form part of the costume. For example, the Fulanis and members of certain other traditional communities in the northern part of Nigeria, carry swords, sticks, bows and arrows. The traditional communities of hunters who live in the West and East of Nigeria also carry cutlasses and shotguns. Sometimes, cannons are fired during the official ceremonies, while some communities use dynamite and other modern explosives on these occasions. This cultural attachment to weapons has encouraged local manufacture of firearms, notably in the communities where culture and tradition still enjoy great respect. Experience shows that it will be extremely difficult for the Armed Forces and other security forces to combat this effectively.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What are the challenges of security?

3.3 Implication of Security on Human Rights

The quest for security often results in human rights violation, especially, when security activities are not carefully carried out. The impact of security measures on human rights comprises: encroachment on freedom of speech and expression, lack of press freedom, restriction on movement of people, and even violence Human rights are inalienable rights, irrespective of status, race, cultural background, nationality and membership of social group.

Human rights are classified into first generation, second generation and third generation rights. The first generation encompasses civil and political rights, which are individualistic. The second generation encompasses social and economic rights that impose an obligation on the state: economic, social and cultural right include the right to basic necessities such as food and shelter, and to social services like health and education. The third generation comprises the collective or

solidarity rights. Those affected are the marginalised group, on how their rights will be protected against threat.

Human security also emphasises the protection of human rights and respect for the rule of law. In many countries, some counter-terrorist measures violate human rights. Abuses include detention without judicial review; subjecting to torture during the transfer, return and extradition of persons between or within countries. They restrain citizens' rights or freedoms, and breach the principle of nondiscrimination. Such violations arguably serve to exacerbate the threat of terrorism. Human security argues that failure to respect human rights in one state may undermine international effort to cooperate to combat terrorism, thus more effort should be invested in the effective inclusion of human rights protection. Human security further emphasises the need to address physical, psychological and political dimensions. The psychological aspect highlights that the violence of a traditional military response simply begets further violence, provokes and consolidates support for those groups. Instead, sustainable victory in such conflict situations means "to win a battle for the society, for its mindsets and psychologies, to address sources of grievance and anxiety, and to shore up institutions of governance".

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

What is the impact of security on human rights?

4.0 CONCLUSION

The fundamental factors of the importance of security have been mentioned and explained in the course of this unit, you should be able to list and discuss them, and even explain further.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have considered the importance of security, the challenges confronting security and the implications of security on human rights.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

What is the importance of security?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 INSECURITY AND CONFLICT EMERGENCE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Insecurity
 - 3.2 Insecurity and Conflict Emergence
 - 3.3 Activities that Constitute Insecurity
 - 3.4 Security Cooperation among States or Nationalities
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Insecurity is closely linked to conflict and crises. We will in this unit consider the relationship of insecurity with conflict.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- determine how insecurity can lead to conflict
- state the features and attributes of insecurity
- predict the challenges and consequences of insecurity
- propose how insecurity can be managed and transformed.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Insecurity

Insecurity produces fear, tension, anxiety and stress. People feel threatened as their lives and property are not safe. Their human rights and other interests are also not protected. They become vulnerable to external attack and aggression. Insecurity is a challenge to any society as it causes instability and confusion by disrupting peace and all attempts at orderliness.

A state or society is said to be secure when its protective mechanisms like curbing, controlling and monitoring external and internal aggression are successfully carried out.

But a poorly functioning security system can destroy prospects for peace, socio-economic and political progress in any society or state. Generally, the security of a state is believed to solely lie on the state's political institutions, but in the actual sense of it, the issue of security totally lies on every member of the state. More importantly, the insecurity of any society can manifest itself as internal and external threats, such as military incursions, political intolerance, religious fanaticism and fundamentalism, student and youths' restiveness, militancy, and ethnic rivalry. All these are the result of bad governance. The fundamental role of the state is to protect the citizens and prevent the fear of losing lives, property and valuable goals.

External Threats: Since the degree of a society's sensitivity to the issue of security determines its level of stability and orderliness, the security conscious state must be able to formulate and implement very effective defence policies.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

- 1. What is security?
- 2. What is insecurity?

3.2 Insecurity and Conflict Emergence

Insecurity and conflict emergence are synonymous with unlawful activities in society. We shall examine the components of insecurity that lead to conflict.

Proliferation of Arms: This encourages violence and destruction of lives and property.

Drug Abuse and Drug Trafficking: In Africa many conflict prone areas like Somalia, Liberia, Burundi, Rwanda are rife with the crimes. Drug abuse and drug trafficking open doors to other forms of lawlessness.

Human Trafficking: This is a crime against humanity; both adults and children are subject to this. The women are often subjected to sexual exploitation while men are put to forced labour. The victims later vent their anger on the society.

Violation of Human Rights: violation of human rights is one of the causes of insecurity in any society; and an injustice to one is an injustice to all. Human rights deprivation often leads to conflict as victims will fight for their rights.

Environmental Insecurity: Environmental degradation and extreme climatic conditions have direct impact on human security as this means humans are prone to more natural disasters and are faced with decreasing resources. In addition, as the earth's climate changes more rapidly, an increase in violent conflict is likely, due to resource scarcity and an exacerbated North-South disparity. Sources of possible conflict include wide-spread refugee movement, a fall in global food production and reduction in water supply. Water and energy, for example, are essential resources, the lack of which has led to military and political turmoil worldwide. Altered resource availability causing food shortages results in political disputes, ethnic tensions and civil unrests, which in turn are the bases for regional conflicts that eventually go global.

Furthermore, vulnerability to climate changes can be exacerbated by other non-climate factors such as HIV/AIDS, poverty, unequal access to resources and economic globalisation, making human security all the more susceptible. A more recent example of how global warming impacts human security is the Darfur conflict. Climate changes have brought the Sahara steadily into the south and droughts are more frequent in this piece of dry land, wiping out food produce. As a result, there is less arable land, with many people fighting for it. Nowadays, many still view global warming in terms of the national security framework. These national threats, however, can be easily transposed into a human security context. These can occur in the short and long term situations.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What are the components of insecurity and conflict development?

3.3 Activities that Constitute Insecurity

Several activities constitute great challenges to the security of a society. They are violent crime, extremism, workers' revolts, subversion, sabotage, religious crises, ethnic conflicts, social agitations, micronationalism, insurrection and terrorism.

Violent and Extreme Crimes: The rate of violent crime in society today is sometimes determined by the extent of security challenges faced by the people. Some people acquire weapons unlawfully and criminals sometimes go unpunished.

Workers' Revolts: Workers' revolts may sometimes lead to insecurity. The workers concerned could become violent and destructive. They could resort to attacks on individuals, arson, looting, vandalism and hostage taking.

Subversion: It could be mutiny, coup d'etat, other activities connected with individuals, or organisations that seek to discredit or overthrow a government. **Sabotage**: Sabotage is a deliberate unlawful act committed by individuals or organisations with the aim of embarrassing or undermining government and its security machinery, so as to create a general feeling of poor security situation in a society. An act of sabotage is usually targeted on essential facilities and services, such as public buildings, agencies, transport system, etc.

Religious Crises: -A religious crisis is a social unrest usually caused by religious fundamentalism and intolerance, in which each sect fights with wild passion. The leader of the religion concerned is potentially the target of the opposing religion. The members of each religion are easy to recruit as combatants. Religious crises spread rapidly, especially, in the area or region, where one religion is dominant over another. In some cases, the ethnic dimension of the crisis tends to obscure the religious dimension and then transforms the confrontation to a political crisis.

Conflict between Communities: - Conflicts between or among communities usually stem from disputes that involve individuals or groups of individuals. The conflicts commonly relate with land acquisition, inheritances or resource allocation. The heterogeneous nature of many societies is the greatest threat to national integration. Conflict between communities encourages the people to acquire small arms and light weapons unlawfully on a large-scale. It is generally acknowledged that large-scale acquisition of firearms is encouraged and sponsored by prominent individuals or heads of clans.

Social Agitation: This could come or be inform of protests, demonstrations and disturbance, which are intended to display a loss of patience and trust in the state government or other forms of authority. Social agitations are mostly carried out by movements of young people or students in particularly dangerous proportions, with the demonstrators using unlawfully acquired firearms.

Micro-Regionalism: - Micro-regionalism develops in a plural society where different groups are formed on ethnic or tribal bases. National integration is jeopardised when these groups assert their ethnic or tribal interests in a militant manner. This ethnic militancy, which inevitably clashes with the other forms of ethnic militancy, fosters the proliferation of firearms

Insurrection/Terrorism: - Insurrection is a rebellion against a government, while the terrorism is connected with the acts of violence and intimidations carried out for a specific purpose. Resistance movements that are engaged in armed insurrection usually create a crisis

around certain issues, such as religion, ethnicity, resource allocations and political opportunism. Insurrection and terrorism can only occur if the rebels and terrorists have previously taken care to acquire firearms, ammunition and explosives.

Activities of Security Personnel: Poor pay coupled with poor living and working conditions and the lack of equipment constitute a problem to security. The situation generates corruption and also encourages security agents to partake in crime like giving out their weapons for hire to criminals. For example, the criminals operating in the villages and individual homes usually use the information furnished them by their accomplices in security agencies.

3.4 Security Cooperation among States or Nationalities

Poor Border Control: -Border porosity and extensiveness could pose a major problem to security management, especially in developing countries. It could render the effort of security agents useless, in their attempt to effectively curb illegal entry, robbery, and smuggling. porosity of borders and the heterogeneous nature of border communities cannot be underestimated in determining the challenges or problems of security management. The 1884-1885 Berlin conferences that led to the partitioning of Africa by the colonial powers failed to take into consideration the tribes and ethnic groups living along the borders. The result this is the apportioning of tribes and ethnic groups to different countries, to the extent that it is difficult in some border areas to know who is a citizen of which country. These make the trans-border communities composed of kinsmen that owe allegiance to one another, and sometimes at the expense of governments. In such areas, it is common to come across members of the same family living on the either side of a border. Such social circumstances are not conductive to effective security and they make efficient security management difficult, because members of the local communities know how to evade security checks. They hardly volunteer information on across border trafficking. The cross border communities in fact partake in trafficking and even see it as a means of earning a living.

Border Incursion: - There are several cases of murder maiming, armed robbery and numerous attacks along borders, because the terrain of such borders makes effective security difficult.

Espionage: - This is a clandestine activity designed to destabilise a country or procure information relating to the security, defence, economy, technology and weakness of the country. . Espionage activities in most cases lead to subversion or sabotage, with the objective of undermining a country's stability, defence or economy. For

example, the porous borders facilitate such activities. This threat can easily be overcome if there is cross border cooperation between the security forces and the local inhabitants. For instance, the intelligence reports on the Al–Qaeda terrorist group show that the Al-Qaeda group is involved in cross border arms and weapons trafficking.

Smuggling: - The adverse effects of smuggling on the economy, security and political stability of a society are many. Apart from depriving a country of its foreign exchange, smuggling poses a dangerous threat to national security. Weapons, ammunition, drugs, prohibited merchandise, expired medicines, etc are smuggled into many societies. The economic losses caused by these unlawful activities are huge, and cause great danger to public health, national security, political stability and peace.

Arms Trafficking: - Arms and ammunition find their way easily into the society; they are used mostly by criminals and ethnic militias. The weapons are sold illegally, the traffickers and the direct users work together with their kinsmen along the borders. A variety of weapons like AK47s, light automatic rifts, pistol and bazookas are sold. Many of such weapons are used during inter-ethnic or inter-religious confrontations. This requires a solid cross-border co-operation among the security forces and local communities, and governments need to help in effectively stamping out this security problem.

Drug Trafficking: - Drug trafficking is a serious threat to the security of citizens at large, and it has damaged many countries' reputation, and has brought much hardship and humiliation to many innocent citizens. Generally, drug trafficking goes hand in hand with organised crime and trafficking in small arms or light weapons.

Prostitution: - Women are generally involved in this practice. Many young girls with promises of lucrative jobs have been tricked into this. The women are usually smuggled across the border and they constitute a security threat to the host society. Some of them get involved in criminal activities such as armed robbery.

Government Security Lapses: - The ineffectiveness and inefficiency of government security policies pose a serious challenge to the security of many societies. There is a need for concerted effort in guaranteeing the security of lives and property of any society by the government.

Ethnicity, Religious and Economic Deprivation: - The problem of ethnicity is one of the major causes of insecurity, especially in Africa. In reality, the wealth of ethnic diversity needs to be celebrated, but rather, it is the negative politicisation of ethnicity that generates all kinds of

contraction and violence in pluralistic societies. This is combined with the decline of the state's resources and mediocre leadership, economic deprivation, lack of education and absence of constitutional guarantees. Ethnicity becomes a powerful weapon in the hands of ethnic manipulators and other warlords. Ethnicity is a powerful force for political instability and security problems. Ethnic groups whose interests are not represented by the dominant elite mobilise and seek to engage the state by expressing their need to participate in the management of the state so as to protect their rights and their autonomy. When such demands are ignored, the groups in question may then embark on civil disobedience and even violence by turning their anger against those in power who they consider to be responsible for their marginalisation. The resultant ethnic intolerance destroys peace and security and leads to violence and war.

Religious Intolerance: Religious intolerance is one of the problems contributing to insecurity in many societies. Usually Christianity and Islam are the two major religions that are in conflict. Both religions preach peace, but certain politicians and elites sometimes use their religious practices to foment trouble or promote disorderliness and violence. The politicisation of religion in many societies threatens security. The cultural, political and social ethnic composition of a number of countries are such that it is difficult to separate religion from other social domains, given that religion affects virtually every institution around life and development, whether on the governance, employment, politics, marriage, or in some cases health. Nevertheless, it is true that religion can be used to mobilise unity, peace and social harmony. Those who govern should therefore view religion as an instrument of peace and not a factor of division.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

Discuss insecurity and conflict emergence.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Insecurity and conflict emergence go together. One produces the other. The conditions or factors that are responsible for both have been discussed in this unit. You are however expected to further develop the information you have received.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has dealt with insecurity and conflict development by considering some factors of insecurity that can result in conflict.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What are the components of insecurity?
- 2. Does insecurity produce conflict?
- 3. What are the elements of insecurity and conflict development?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 COOPERATIVE SECURITY EFFORTS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Efforts of Security Agents
 - 3.2 Human Needs
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, our discussion shall be on the concept of human security; it comprises various issues like personal/individual security, community, economic, political, health, food and environmental security.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- determine the concept of human security
- access the factors that are affecting human security
- state the human security concept factors
- propose ahead on how human insecurity can be managed.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Efforts of Security Agents

The necessary cooperation must exist among state agencies to achieve maximum security of lives and property within the society. The area of necessary cooperation are the following: - intelligence; co-ordination; communication; political objectives; road blocks; security cordons; patrol; and other state security apparatus that includes security advisers, national and defence intelligence, customs service, immigration service, prison service and the armed forces, and any security related outfits.

Intelligence: - No state security apparatus can be successful in the effort to combat crime without a proper intelligent network. That is why the armed forces and other related security forces must have a variety of intelligence network. This will help in combating illegal and criminal circulation of arms and ammunitions, which will substantially reduce or

eradicate the proliferation of crime within the society. There is no doubt that small arms and light weapons are easily circulated and proliferated within the society, but through a proper and appropriate intelligent service, the groups and individuals that are involved in illegal manufacture, sales, storage and transfer, of weapons, will be effectively checked, identified, controlled and arrested. This also requires the use of sophisticated intelligence equipment like electronic communication facilities, scanners, digital fingerprint machines, radios, computers and vehicles.

Co-ordination: - The coordination of security operatives is very vital in curbing crime. This should be carried out right from the state's security apparatus and the administrative machinery.

Communication: – The success of every human endeavour depends on a reliable means of communication to a large extent, this is also applicable to the security management through this, the confidence and networks of the criminals and crime promoters will be overtaken. For the sake of greater effectiveness and efficiency of security operations, there is need for joint communication center for the activities of all security agencies.

Political Objective: - There should be a clear political objective and a resolute government policy on the efforts in combating crime within the society. This would enable the political authorities to improve the harmonisation of their involvement in security management programmes. All agencies of the security apparatus should clearly understand their functions, roles, tasks and competences so as to avoid any misunderstanding, frictions and rivalries, which can lesson their effectiveness and efficiency. Public support is a major factor in combating crime effectively, while gaining and keeping support from the people will depend on popular endorsement of the government's policy and the way in which the security forces discharge their roles.

Road Checks: - In an effort to combat crime, constant road checks must be organised and aimed at apprehending criminals and promoters of crime. For this purpose, roadblocks should be set up at the main and major highways, and even the footpaths. The number of security personnel involved in these operations will depend on the number of roads to be covered and the volume of road traffic. It is necessary to emphasise that roadblocks are essentially preventive in nature and targeted principally at the villains in society, particularly those who do not respect the laws of the land. When this explanation is given in good time, public support will be always obtained. Although, it is regrettable that the roadblocks are sometimes abused and generally regarded as a way of corrupting security personnel, in terms of money extortion.

Security Cordons and Raids by Security Forces: - These will help in detecting and discovering criminals, traffickers in arms and ammunitions and explosives. Sudden raids offer opportunity in which the security forces will have much advantage over the criminals. Such operations can supply or provide valuable information to security operatives.

Patrols: - The patrols should not be carried out on land alone; they should be on air and sea also. Helicopter patrols are essential because of arms traffickers and criminals that avoid the roads. There should be patrols in the cities, villages and borders.

Security of Arms and Ammunition: - Managing crime and proliferation of weapons requires the procurement of arms and ammunition by the security agents for the sake of self-defense and effectiveness operations. Many legally acquired weapons end up in the hands of criminals, because the security operatives lack proper bookkeeping methods and good storage arrangement, apart from the intrigues by corrupt security personnel. However there are several cases of security personnel losing arms or ammunitions to criminals. Consequently, such security system with poor methods of surveillance would lead to greater losses. Therefore, punishment for security personnel who cannot account for their weapons should be increased.

Government Responsibility: - The government has a vital responsibility in preventing and combating crime and proliferation of weapons. The prime responsibility is connected with the fact that an increase in crime and the circulation of illegal weapons will diminish the credibility of the government, owing to its inability to curb the phenomenon and combat the problems that will inevitably result. The government still has the responsibility of permitting the sale and possession of weapons. If the citizens are properly protected, there will be no need for individual permit to buy weapons for reasons of protection. Other responsibilities of the government include: strengthening of the regulations on possession of weapons; acquisition of modern equipment for detection of arms and ammunitions; provision of all necessary equipment to the armed forces and other security forces,; a survey of local dealers and manufacturers of ammunition; outlawing of all traditions and cultures that encourage the display of firearms; suspension of issue of permit to buv weapons, by individuals; and creation of public awareness about the dangers of proliferation of arms and weapons. Others are using of modern techniques to maintain law and order, to collect and gather illegal small arms from the people, prevent trafficking of drugs and cross-border crimes, demobilising and reintegrating ex-combat soldiers, and reintegrating ex-convicts to normal life, maintaining cross border cooperation between security forces and local communities and getting the people to imbibe the peace culture.

The Roles and Responsibilities of Civil Society

Combating crime should involve everybody in the society.

Civil society organisations like non-governmental organisations need to help in designing creative strategies of preventing and curbing insecurity, and also foster the establishment of well structured conditions, which are compatible with human security. The reduction of armed violence and drastic reduction of illegal use of arms require a radical social, economic and political transformation. Security management can only yield better results if it is accompanied by the creation of jobs, good social conditions and basic infrastructural.

Civil society must stand in solidarity with individuals and communities that are victims of insecurity. For example, non-governmental organisations could help to train community leaders who could in turn build public awareness of the threat posed by insecurity and also facilitate public participation in the process of talking decisions or implementing the policies on management of security. **Policy**

Awareness: - The civil society organisations and other nongovernmental organisations in are more competent in raising awareness of the devastating effects of crime and insecurity. These organisations could call for proper policies and legislature aimed at combating crime effectively. They can organise public awareness and information management campaigns on the dangers of insecurity. They should help respect for the principle of accountability in security management, speaking up against the culture of impunity, where it exists; contribute to the manifestation of national and international political will, so as to effectively combat crime and insecurity; denounce and combat the political, social and economic agitations that can lead to criminality and insecurity; help to consolidate democracy, good governance, respect for humanity rights and the rule of law, as well as economic growth through good measures. Others are to reveal the secrecy associated with insecurity and combat of public ignorance about security matters in general; ensure that an extensive publicity is given to the public on crime proliferation, and educate the media on the challenges posed by crime promoters and secure the adoption of legislation in favour of security management.

Local Capacity Building: - This medium could help citizens to participate in political decisions and entrench the culture of security management. Such actions by civil society and non-governmental

organisations should include: training local community leaders in peace building, conflict resolution and security management; running awareness of peace-building programmes on security of lives and property; organising seminars for all states security personnel and educating the community members about security management.

Surveillance and Security Monitoring Roles: - Civil society and nongovernmental organisations could help to monitor the security situation; raise public awareness on the consequences of insecurity; be the minds of the public in seeking government assistance on s security matters; initiate research projects that are aimed at awareness creation and provision of information on security consciousness; examine the situations that can result to insecurity, and solutions; inform the public through information bulletins, magazines and electronic media about the proliferation of crime and its consequences on security matters, as well as giving information on laws governing the acquisition and possession of firearms, use of weapons and penalties for unlawful possession or use; advocate restrictions on the acquisition of weapons by individuals and strengthening the capacity of the state to protect citizens; and provide better information on distinctions between the lawful and unlawful acquisition, possession and use of firearms.

3.2 Human Needs

Since the issue of security is now in multi-facial approaches, the human security concept is also manifests in various forms, which are subject of this unit.

Personal Security: Overall, proponents of human security assert that these traditional measures seem to exacerbate the problem. They advocate that governments should focus on designing people-centered interventions address enduring, underlying problems. intervention to address the threat of terrorism must be context specific, acknowledge local culture and historiography. Interventions require time to demonstrate success, but exclusionary practices will be influential in achieving human security. Concessions can be made including rebuilding of social infrastructure, economic investment, the provision of trauma counseling, inclusion of religious figures and active programmes of reconciliation. Participation of a diverse group of actors including policy-makers, private enterprises, public service providers and social entrepreneurs will foster neutrality. We need to listen, actively promote symmetry in dialogue, and be ready to accommodate alternative discourses on the experience of modernity.

Human security also emphasises the protection of human rights and respect for the rule of law. In many countries, some counter-terrorist

measures violate human rights. Abuses include detention without judicial review; subjecting to torture during the transfer, return and extradition of persons between or within countries. They restrain citizens' rights or freedoms, and breach the principle of non-discrimination. Such violations arguably serve to exacerbate the threat of terrorism. Human security argues that a failure to respect human rights in one state may undermine international effort to cooperate to combat terrorism, thus more effort should be invested in the effective inclusion of human rights protection.

Human security further emphasises the need to address physical, psychological and political dimensions. It focuses on the protection of people from all forms of physical threats and violence. The individual's life and property will be maximally protected from attack or threats of attack, even in a war situation. Sometimes, it could manifest as a refugee camp or safe haven for those that are displaced by the war. Such people are vulnerable sometimes to the problems of food scarcity, inadequacies of water, medicine, shelter, etc. They could also be target for intimidations, robberies and psychological attacks.

Community Security: This helps in protecting the people and their cultural heritage from any losses, in terms of life and property, and the threat of an attack or invasion. In 1993, the United Nations declared the year of indigenous people, in order to highlight the continuing vulnerability of the 300 million aboriginal people in 70 countries, as they faced a widening spiral of violence.

Economic Security: This is the assurance of basic income for individuals, usually from productive and remunerative work or, as a last resort, from a publicly financed safety net. The problem of economic security is more serious in the developing countries, as developed countries are not left-out as well; unemployment problems constitute an important factor that underlie political tensions and ethnic violence.

Political Security: Human rights violations are most often common in political unrest; coupled with the repression of individuals and groups. The major threats to the human health security are the infectious and parasitic diseases, which have killed many people in the past and still threaten the well being of some people today. The United Nations states that "in both the developing and developed industrialised countries, the threats to health security are usually greater in the rural areas, particularly on the children". Similarly, the adults are dying young, due to the effects of malnutrition and insufficient supply of medicine, clean water, etc.

Food Security: Food security includes an access to the basic food needs by the people, through a better physical and economic process. According to the United Nations, the overall availability of food is even the problem sometimes, and the most often problem is the poor distribution of food and lack of purchasing power. The food security of man must be dealt with at both the national and global levels.

Environmental Security: It is the protection of the people from the short and long term ravages of nature and man-made threats on the environment. The lack of access to clean water is one of the greatest environmental threats, the pollutions of air, global warning effects and the emission of green house gases are other issues of environmental security. Environmental degradation and extreme climates have direct impact on human security as it means humans are prone to more natural disasters and are faced with decreasing resources. In addition, as the earth's climate changes more rapidly, an increase in violent conflict is likely due to resource scarcity and an exacerbated North-South disparity. Sources of possible conflict include wide-spread refugee movement, a fall in global food production and reduction in water supply. Water and energy, for example, are essential resources which have led to military and political turmoil worldwide. Altered resource availability causing food shortages results in political disputes, ethnic tensions and civil unrest which in turn are the bases for regional conflicts that eventually go global. Furthermore, vulnerability to climate changes can be exacerbated by other non-climate factors such as HIV/AIDS, poverty, unequal access to resources and economic globalisation, making human security all the more susceptible. An example of how global warming impacts human security is the Darfur conflict. Climate changes have brought the Sahara steadily into the south and droughts are more frequent in this piece of dry land, wiping out food produce. As a result there is less arable land, with many people fighting for it. Nowadays, many still view global warming in terms of the national security framework. These national threats, however, can be easily transposed into a human security context.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What are the components of cooperative security efforts?

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has dealt with cooperative security effort and its components.

5.0 SUMMARY

The perceived components of human security are discussed in this unit; this discussion should give you a good understanding of human security and how to tackle issues related to it.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What are human security needs?
- 2. Discuss the components of human security.
- 3. What is human security?

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UNIT 5 MANAGEMENT OF INSECURITY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Physical Structure of Security management
 - 3.2 Management of Insecurity
 - 3.3 Human Insecurity Management
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Insecurity has over time hindered progress; we shall examine insecurity and find out how it can be managed.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discus the insecurity management
- list and explain the factors responsible for insecurity
- apply the techniques of insecurity management.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Management of Security

- Limitation of weapons in circulation
- Legal supervision and centralisation of weapons data
- Establishment of data base and arms registration
- Dialogue and partnership with arms manufacturers and suppliers by government
- Stricter suppression of illegal local manufacture of weapons

Limitation of Weapons in Circulation: The government should do more to stop the illegal fabrication and unlawful acquisition of weapons. All such weapons in circulation should be destroyed.

Legal Supervision and Centralisation of Weapons Data: Weapons should be defined or categorised, and be subjected to legislative harmonisation.

Establishment of Database and Arms Registration: These will help in controlling the availability and use of arms and tracing any misuse. It will require the combined effort of the defence ministry, security agencies, justice ministry, foreign affairs ministry and civil society.

Stricter Suppression of Illegal Local Manufacture of Weapons: It has been duly observed that the massacres and civil disturbances in the society are worsened by the availability of locally made firearms. There should be penalties for illegal home-made weapon manufacturers, while conditions attached to authorisation for ownership of weapons must be standardised.

Dialogue and Partnership with Arms Manufacturers and Suppliers by Government: -The idea of this is to stem the flow of unlawfully acquired weapons in circulation, through a little more transparency in sales and movement of arms and ammunitions.

3.2 Management of Insecurity

The factors needed for the management of insecurity can be classified as good governance, peace building and preventive measures, security surveillance mechanism, co-operation of members of the society and information management

Good Governance: It has long been argued that the "scope" of global security should be expanded to include the threat of infectious disease. The primary goal of human security is the protection of individuals, and infectious diseases (such as HIV/AIDS and SARS) are among the most serious threats to individuals around the world. With the accelerating speed of globalisation, one infectious disease in one particular country can be spread to others quickly by the intensification of international transportation. Therefore, adopting a people-centered human security model with its emphasis on prevention, individual empowerment, and treatment strategies delivered by an array of global actors is possibly a pioneering approach to deal with the increasing diversity of contagious diseases. It is shifting down from national level to individuals, communities and civil organisations, and upward to international institutions and networks. Hence, modernising international health rules and regulations, fostering partnerships between public and private sectors as well as enhancing communication and cooperation among states become more important. Human security proponents argue that by focusing on health burdens faced by the local communities and

individuals our policy response will be able to address the roots of the problem.

In addition, traditional approach of security is more of a rationale for maintaining the current power status of the state; this may sometimes outweigh individual's safety and health concerns. Apart from bewaring of military dangers, the state may also accentuate the protection of reputation as well as ensuring the state's economic development.

Peace Building and Preventive Measures: This should be in short and long term programmes for managing insecurity. Peace building and preventive measures help in removing the internal and external threats of insecurity.

Co-operation from the Public: The co-operation of members of the society is very important in handling security issues.

3.3 Human Insecurity Management

All human beings deserve to have their basic needs met but an attempt to deny people these rights may meet a violence response. The basic human need for security includes personal, community, economic, political, health, food and environmental security.

Early Warning Signals and Preventive Diplomacy: The authorities should be sensitive to early warning signals of insecurity and should respond accordingly. Preventive diplomacy measures are the steps taken in order to manage and prevent insecurity. The multi-tracts diplomacy system is a good example that will be examined in this section.

Multi-tracks Diplomacy: Diamond and McDonald (1996:4) see multi-tracks diplomacy as a system approach of peace attainment that encompasses nine different tracks of ensuring peace building. The multi-tracks diplomacy approach emphases that the efforts of different participants and stakeholders' are required in the peace building processes, and conflict management and transformation that encompasses different attributes or features like strength, weakness, opportunity and threats (SOWT) can apply to the management of insecurity.

Good Information Management: Good information management is crucial to the security network system and the management of insecurity. Inability to properly manage information could result in misconception, misinformation, distortions and the lack of information.

The Need for Sufficient Resources: Sufficient resources are required for the proper management of insecurity in any society. Unavailability of the needed resources will mar the efforts of the security agencies.

The Role of the Media in Security Management

The media plays a very important role in the management of security. The media needs to be patriotic, competent, and inform the public daily on security management. The media should also help to educate the public about the consequences of insecurity and crime.

Some sources of crime are terrorism, illegal proliferation of weapons and explosive substances. This also should include weapons acquired legally by the Armed forces and security forces that may end up in the hands of the criminals, due to the improper storage methods and as a result of theft or illegal sale.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

What is insecurity management?

Human Rights

According to Alioune (2005:18-19), since man was created in the image of God, displaying respect for man is considered by the theologians in all religions as a means of respecting God's will, and hence, a way of worshipping him. The theory of human rights was subsequently "secularised" so to speak. In other words, an explanation for the existence of these rights was no longer sought in religions or belief in God, but in pure human reason. Alioune said, "this was held along the rights that were recognised by the state through its laws and there are rights that are natural. These are rights that man possesses simply by the virtue of being born and existing. The rights in question are termed "natural," because, they are inherent in every fact of being, and being of human. Therefore, the state must not violate such rights, because they exist before the state does, and they predate the state. That is, the state needs to enshrine such rights by taking them up and copying them into its laws.

To be specific, the theory of human rights emerged around the eighteenth century in the West, which was inspired by the British, American and French revolutionaries. The declaration of men's rights and citizen of 26 August 1789 appears in the constitution of many states throughout the world. The human rights phenomenon has taken a new dimension by the establishment of special courts meant to try certain serious offences particularly in war situations. Examples of these are: -

 the criminal tribunal for the former Yugoslavia, set up by the Security Council Resolution 808 (adopted on 22 February 1993); and

• the Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (resolution 955 of 8th November, 1994); and the international criminal courts, set up by the virtue of 1998 Rome Convention, under the auspices of the United Nations. The statute of the court entered into force on 1st July, 2002.

Humanitarian Law

Humanitarian law was established as a branch of international law that deals with armed conflict and insecurity. Its purpose is to introduce a little "humanity" into war, and hence, it is closely related to human rights. Humanitarian law is the application of human rights in a context of armed conflict. It is a set of rules for all states to agree on and follow, regardless of state boundaries or borders.

Generally speaking, international humanitarian law comprises two major series of rules: -The Hague Convention, which relates to the regulations of war itself; and The Geneva Convention that relates to the protection of persons exposed to the effect of conflict in wartime.

According to the Geneva Convention (1949) "there shall be better amelioration of conditions for the wounded and sick in armed conflicts:

- protection for the civilian persons in the time of war;
- treatment of prisoners of war; and
- condition of wounded, sick and shipwrecked persons on the high seas".

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

What are the mechanisms for the management of human insecurity?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have successfully examined the management of human insecurity by considering human security needs, early warning signals and preventive diplomacy measures.

5.0 SUMMARY

We believe that you will be able to discuss the topic examined in this unit further, and even apply the knowledge you have gained where it is applicable.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. What are human security management mechanisms?
- 2. Discuss how the multi-tracks diplomacy system helps in managing human insecurity.
- 3. What is human security?

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