



POL 813
HUMAN SECURITY, DEVELOPMENT AND SOCIAL
CHANGE

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COURSE DESCRIPTION

This course is designed to give students an in-depth understanding of the concepts of human security, development and social change; Nature and role of states in human security; the role of the UN and multilateral actors; Governance, elections and political change, instability and national development, economic and social stability, employment-poverty-income gap; Leadership, political authoritarianism, Extremism, conflicts and human capacity development, Indigenous models. Role of NGOs in development; Types of human security Sources of threat to human security; Institutional approach in the analysis of social change; causative factors in social change; the impact of social change on traditional institutions; social problems and social change

INTRODUCTION

Human security emerged as a field of study to analyze and understand the global changes in political, economic and social vulnerabilities of humanity. The proponents challenged the traditional notion of national security, which emphasizes military security; by advocating that the proper attention for security should be at the individual person (human) rather than nation-state as entity. The field of Human security is a people-oriented and multi-disciplinary analysis of security encompassing a number of disciplines of study, such as international relations, strategic studies, development studies and human rights. Hence, it is significance that the learners of Human Security have the grasp of the UN the relevance of human security, development and social change in in enhancing the desired security, social well-being and economic and sustainable development.

COURSE AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The general aim of this course is to provide an in-depth analysis of the field of Human security as a people-oriented and multi-disciplinary analysis of security while exploring the impact of the field to human development, social change and economic development.

The specific objectives of the course are to:

- a) Impact learners on the origin, factors and policy framework for the emergence of Human Security;
- b) educate learners on the **dimensions, approaches, actors and threat to** Human Security;
- c) enlighten learners on the Concepts, Impact and Approaches in the Analysis of Social Change; and
- d) Impact leaners with the Concepts and Context in the Application of Human Security, Social Change and Development.

WORKING THROUGH THE COURSE

To complete the course, you are required to read the study 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 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 assignment for assessment purposes.

At the end of the course, you will be expected to write a final examination.

THE COURSE MATERIAL

In all of the courses, you will find the major components thus:

- 1) Course Guide
- 2) Study Units
- 3) Textbooks
- 4) Assignments

STUDY UNITS

There are 25 study units in this course spread through five modules. These are as follows:

Module 1 Origin, Nature and Scope of Human Security

- Unit 1 Origin, factors and Policy Framework for the Emergence of Human Security
- Unit 2 Definition and Nature of Human Security
- Unit 3 Scope of Human Security
- Unit 4 Security and Development
- Unit 5 Human Security and Human Development

Module 2 Dimensions, Actors and Threat to Human Security

- Unit 1 Dimensions of Human Security
- Unit 2 Human Security as a Category of Research
- Unit 3 Gender and Human Security
- Unit 4 The International Law, Political Obligations and Human Security
- Unit 5 Roles of the States and International Organizations in Human Security

Module 3 Human Security, Development and other Policy Frameworks

- Unit 1 The Elements of Human Security
- Unit 2 Human Security and other Policy Frameworks
- Unit 3 Human Rights and Human Security
- Unit 4 Human Security and Development Assistance
- Unit 5 The Formulation of a Human Security Index (HIS)

Module 4 Concepts, Impact and Approaches in the Analysis of Social Change

- Unit 1 Concept and Process of Social Change
- Unit 2 Identity Threat and Guiding principles of Social Change
- Unit 3 Approaches in the Analysis of Social Change
- Unit 4 Social Change and Human Security
- Unit 5 Social Change, Peace and Development

Module 5 Concepts and Context in the Application of Human Security, Social Change and Development

- Unit 1 Human security and Regional Security Structures
- Unit 2 The pan-Africanization of human security
- Unit 3 Canada, Norway, and Japan Applications of Human security
- Unit 4 Human Security in the R2P Era
- Unit 5 Covid-19 and Human Security

As you can observe, the course begins with the basics and expands into a more elaborate, complex and detailed form. All you need to do is to follow the instructions as provided in each unit. In addition, some self-assessment exercises have been provided with which you can test your progress with the text and determine if your study is fulfilling the stated objectives.

TEXTBOOKS AND REFERENCES

At the end of each unit, you will find a list of relevant reference materials which you may yourself wish to consult as the need arises, even though I have made efforts to provide you with the most important information you need to pass this course. However, I would encourage you, as a postgraduate Master of Science degree student to cultivate the habit of consulting as many relevant materials as you are able to within the time available to you. In particular, be sure to consult whatever material you are advised to consult before attempting any exercise.

COURSE OVERVIEW

There are 25 units in this course. You are to spend one week on each unit. One of the advantages of Open and Distance Learning (ODL) is that you can read and work through the designed course materials at

your own pace, and at your own convenience. The course material replaces the lecturer that stands before you physically in the classroom.

All the units have similar features. Each unit begins with the introduction and ends with reference/suggestions for further readings.

PRESENTATION SCHEME

Units	Title of Work	Week Activity	Assignment (End-of-Unit)
Course Guide			
Module 1	Origin, Nature and Scope of Human Security		
Unit 1	Origin, Factors and Policy Framework for the Emergence of Human Security	Week 1	Assignment 1
Unit 2	Definition and Nature of Human Security	Week 2	Assignment 1
Unit 3	Scope of Human Security	Week 3	Assignment 1
Unit 4	Security and Development	Week 4	Assignment 1
Unit 5	Human Security and Human Development	Week 5	Assignment 1
Module 2	Dimensions, Actors and Threat to Human Security		
Unit 1	Dimensions of Human Security	Week 6	Assignment 1
Unit 2	Human Security as a Category of Research	Week 7	Assignment 1
Unit 3	Gender and Human Security	Week 8	
Unit 4	The International Law, Political Obligations and Human Security	Week 9	Assignment 1
Unit 5	Roles of the States and International Organizations in Human Security	Week 10	Assignment 1
Module 3	Human Security, Development and other Policy Frameworks		
Unit 1	The Elements of Human Security	Week 11	Assignment 1
Unit 2	Human Security and other Policy Frameworks	Week 12	Assignment 1
Unit 3	Human Rights and Human Security	Week 13	Assignment 1
Unit 4	Human Security and Development Assistance	Week 14	Assignment 1
Unit 5	The Formulation of a Human Security Index (HIS)	Week 15	Assignment 1

Module 4	Concepts, Impact and Approaches in the Analysis of Social Change		
Unit 1	Concept and Process of Social Change	Week 16	Assignment 1
Unit 2	Identity Threat and Guiding principles of Social Change	Week 17	Assignment 1
Unit 3	Approaches in the Analysis of Social Change	Week 18	Assignment 1
Unit 4	Social Change and Human Security	Week 19	Assignment 1
Unit 5	Social Change, Peace and Development	Week 20	Assignment 1
Module 5	Concepts and Context in the Application of Human Security, Social Change and Development		
Unit 1	Human security and Regional Security Structures	Week 21	Assignment 1
Unit 2	The pan-Africanization of human security	Week 22	Assignment 1
Unit 3	Canada, Norway, and Japan Applications of Human security	Week 22	Assignment 1
Unit 4	Human Security in the R2P Era	Week 24	Assignment 1
Unit 5	Covid-19 and Human Security	Week 25	Assignment 1
	Revision	Week 26	
	Examination	Week 27	
	Total	27 Weeks	

WHAT YOU WILL NEED IN THE COURSE

There will be some recommended texts at the end of each module that you are expected to purchase. Some of these texts will be available to you in libraries across the country. In addition, your computer proficiency skill will be useful to you in accessing internet materials that pertain to this course. It is crucial that you create time to study these texts diligently and religiously.

TUTORS AND TUTORIALS

The course provides fifteen (15) hours of tutorials in support of the course. You will be notified of the dates and locations of these tutorials, together with the name and phone number of your tutor as soon as you are allocated a tutorial group. Your tutor will mark and comment on your assignments, and watch you as you progress in the course. Send in your tutor-marked assignments promptly, and ensure you contact your

tutor on any difficulty with your self-assessment exercise, tutor-marked assignment, and the grading of an assignment. Kindly note that your attendance and contributions to discussions as well as sample questions are to be taken seriously by you as they will aid your overall performance in the course.

ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

There are two aspects to the assessment of this course. First is the Tutor-Marked Assignments; second is a written examination. In handling these assignments, you are expected to apply the information, knowledge and experience acquired during the course. The tutor-marked assignments are now being done online. Ensure that you register all your courses so that you can have easy access to the online assignments. Your score in the online assignments will account for 30 per cent of your total coursework. At the end of the course, you will need to sit for a final examination. This examination will account for the other 70 per cent of your total course mark.

TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS (TMAs)

Usually, there are four online tutor-marked assignments in this course. Each assignment will be marked over ten percent. The best three (that is the highest three of the 10 marks) will be counted. This implies that the total mark for the best three assignments will constitute 30% of your total course work. You will be able to complete your online assignments successfully from the information and materials contained in your references, reading and study units.

FINAL EXAMINATION AND GRADING

The final examination for POL 813 Human Security, Development and Social Change will be of two hours' duration and have a value of 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of multiple choice and fill-in-the-gaps questions which will reflect the practice exercises and tutor-marked assignments you have previously encountered. All areas of the course will be assessed. It is important that you use adequate time to revise the entire course. You may find it useful to review your tutor-marked assignments before the examination. The final examination covers information from all aspects of the course.

HOW TO GET THE MOST FROM THIS COURSE?

1. There are 25 units in this course. You are to spend one week in each unit. 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 suites 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 to do. The study units tell you when to read and which are your text materials or recommended books. You are provided exercises to do at appropriate points, just as a lecturer might give you in a class exercise.

2. 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 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 unit. 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 this is made a habit, then you will significantly improve your chance of passing the course.
3. The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. This will usually be either from your reference or from a reading section.
4. The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, telephone your tutor or visit the study centre nearest to you. 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.
5. Read this course guide thoroughly. It is your first assignment.
6. Organize a study schedule - Design a 'Course Overview' to guide you through the course. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units.
7. Important information; e.g. details of your tutorials and the date of the first day of the semester is available at the study centre.
8. You need to gather all the information into one place, such as your diary or a wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decide on and write in your own dates and schedule of work for each unit.
9. Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything to stay faithful to it.
10. The major reason that students fail is that they get behind in their coursework. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please let your tutor or course coordinator know before it is too late for help.
11. Turn to Unit 1, and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit.
12. Assemble the study materials. You will need your references for the unit you are studying at any point in time.

13. As you work through the unit, you will know what sources to consult for further information.
14. Visit your study centre whenever you need up-to-date information.
15. Well before the relevant online TMA due dates, visit your study centre for relevant information and updates. Keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignment carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and, therefore, will help you pass the examination.
16. 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. 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 space your study so that you can keep yourself on schedule.
17. 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).

CONCLUSION

This is a theoretical as well as empirical course and so, you will get the best out of it if you can read wide, listen to as well as examine Human Security, Development and Social Change and get familiar with international news and reports across the globe on security, human development and socio-economic changes that are taking place globally.

SUMMARY

This Course Guide has been designed to furnish you with the information you need for a fruitful experience in the course. In the final analysis, how much you get from it depends on how much you put into it in terms of learning time, effort and planning.

I wish you all the best in POL 813 and in the entire programme!

**MAIN
COURSE**

Module 1 Origin, Nature and Scope of Human Security.....

- Unit 1 Origin, factors and policy framework for
- Unit 2 the emergence of Human Security
- Unit 3 Definition and Nature of Human Security
- Unit 4 Scope of Human Security
- Unit 5 Security and Development

Module 2 Dimensions, Actors and Threat to Human Security

- Unit 1 Dimensions of Human Security
- Unit 2 Human Security as a Category of Research
- Unit 3 Gender and Human Security
- Unit 4 The International Law, Political Obligations and Human Security
- Unit 5 Roles of the States and International Organizations in Human Security

Module 3 Human Security, Development and other Policy Frameworks

- Unit 1 The Elements of Human Security
- Unit 2 Human Security and other Policy Frameworks
- Unit 3 Human Rights and Human Security
- Unit 4 Human Security and Development Assistance
- Unit 5 The Formulation of a Human Security Index (HIS)

Module 4 Concepts, Impact and Approaches in the Analysis of Social Change

- Unit 1 Concept and Process of Social Change
- Unit 2 Identity Threat and Guiding principles of Social Change
- Unit 3 Approaches in the Analysis of Social Change
- Unit 4 Social Change and Human Security
- Unit 5 Social Change, Peace and Development

**Module 5 Concepts and Context in the Application of Human Security,
Social Change and Development**

- Unit 1 Human security and Regional Security Structures
- Unit 2 The pan-Africanization of human security
- Unit 3 Canada, Norway, and Japan Applications of Human security
- Unit 4 Human Security in the R2P Era
- Unit 5 Covid-19 and Human Security

MODULE 1 ORIGIN, NATURE AND SCOPE OF HUMAN SECURITY

UNIT 1 ORIGIN, FACTORS AND POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR THE EMERGENCE OF HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Origin of Human Security
 - 1.3.1 Evolution and Key Proponents of Human Security
 - 1.3.2 Factors for the Emergence of Human Security
 - 1.3.3 Human Security as Frame of Reference in the Reports of International Policies
- 1.4 Summary
- 1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 1.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



1.1 Introduction

In 1994, in the decade immediately after the Cold War, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) included the phrase of ‘human security’ in its Human Development Report. Consequent upon this, a fractious debate about this ‘new’ vision of security which sought to challenge classic formulations based on state sovereignty ensued. For many people, particularly policy makers, the idea of human security appeared unclear. This suggests that there is something difficult about human security as a policy idea and as a field of research. This unit focuses on the evolution, proponents and factors in the emergence of the idea of human security as well as presents global institutional reports that included the concept of human security as a policy idea.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- explain the evolution of the concept human security
- mention the key proponents of the idea of human security
- enumerate global institutional reports that included the concept of human security as a policy idea

- state factors that facilitate emergence of the field of human security

1.3 Origin of Human Security

1.3.1 Evolution and Proponents of Human Security

Concept of human security evolved out of the pioneering effort of the United Nations (UN). First and foremost, the concept of human security was formulated in the UN 1992 *Agenda for Peace* proposed by Boutros Boutros Ghali, which stressed the indispensable role of an integrated approach to human security as one of the new requisites in peacemaking and post-conflict management (Tadjbakhsh, 2005). Notably, the phrase ‘human security’ was captured in the Human Development Report (HDR) of UNDP in 1994.

Three key individuals stood to lead the way in advocating the new idea of people-centred security; these proponents included: Mahbub ul Haq, founder of the HDR and former Minister of Finance of Pakistan; and the distinguished economist-philosopher and Nobel laureate Professor Amartya Sen, an old friend of Mahbub ul Haq from their university days. The third proponent was Oscar Arias, twice President of Costa Rica and a leader who has often emphasized the benefits to a country of shifting expenditure from the military and weapons to education, health and other activities which directly benefit people (Jolly, 2014: 139). In 2004, a UN panel report titled: ‘A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility’ advanced the cause of human security and set force broad framework for collective programmes to address new threats to security (Tadjbakhsh, 2005).

Self-Assessments Excess (SAEs) 1

1. Outline the relevant dates and events that marked the evolution of human security?
2. Mention three (3) key proponents of the idea of human security?

1.3.2 Factors for the Emergence of Human Security

The emergence of the human security discourse was a product of a convergence of factors that set forth immediately after the end of Cold War. These factors include: the failure of liberal state building, where respect for states’ sovereignty was shaken by some institutional actions. States themselves became perpetrators of insecurities, not only failing to fulfil their obligations toward their subjects but threatening their very existence. While conflicts seemed to be settled, the very reasons that had led to conflict in the first place were not dealt with through rehabilitation

and long-term peace-building efforts. This situation led to a variety of new and often unsuccessful international interventions in some conflict-afflicted countries such as in Bosnia, Kosovo, East Timor and Afghanistan.

For instance, in 2001, the Afghanistan National Human Development Report, provided a comprehensive analysis of the development situation in the country after the ousting of Taliban's regime. In the Report, it was argued that in a country where GDP per capita was \$200, life expectancy 44.5 years, literacy rate 28.7%, the priority of the new government should be to provide human security as a public good for all (Tadjbakhsh, 2005:117)

Similarly, the increasingly rapid pace of globalization that appeared with new phenomena of threats and new actors on the international scene has helped in emergence of the new concept of security. International organizations, private investment companies, NGOs and non-state entities were now to play an active role in international relations. To be more precise, the rapid pace of globalization marked a new awareness of the prevalence of threats that has to sufficiently take into account threats that are borderless, closely connected, and potentially crippling in their effects on societies globally. These threats included intra-state conflicts, ethnic confrontations, terrorism, and forced displacement, extreme poverty, HIV/AIDs and covid-19 pandemic.

Equally, increase in the number of internal violent conflicts in Africa, Asia and Europe (Balkans) resulted in conceiving the failure of national and international security to reflect the challenges of the post-Cold War security environment. In addition, the failure of neoliberal development models to generate growth, particularly in Africa, or to deal with the consequences of complex new threats (such as HIV and climate change) reinforced the sense that international institutions and states need to address such problems in an integrated and people-centred way.

Within the academic and policy-making circles, the need to analyse root causes and find solutions to end misery born out of conflict or underdevelopment prompted focus on the expansion of the idea of security. In a September 2004 issue of *Security Dialogue*, for example, 21 scholars were asked to explain what they understood by human security, and whether such a concept could ultimately find a place in academic studies and policy research organizations. Some of the scholars maintained that human security represents an attractive idea but it needs analytical rigour.

In addition, the most pronounced policy movement toward the new concept of people-centred security was the consideration of international

community for the rights of individuals in the face threats of potential threats from states. In this respect, the UN Charter, the UN Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 and its covenants of 1966, as well as conventions relating to particular crimes such as genocide and the rights of particular groups such as women, racial and refugee groups (Macfarlane & Khong, 2006) had been an obvious focus to the institutionalization of the idea of human security.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2

1. State four (4) factors that facilitate emergence of the idea of human security?

1.3.3 Human Security as Frame of Reference in the Reports of International Policies

The United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Report of 1994 stands to be a milestone publication and a frame of policy reference in the field of human security. The report argued that there should be 'freedom from want' and freedom from fear' for all persons as best path to tackle problem of global insecurity. Thereafter, several reports with international policies that presented human security as a frame of reference for policy analysis and implementation followed. First and most significant was the Commission on Human Security (CHS), co-chaired by Amartya Sen and Mrs Sadako Ogata, who had been Executive Director of UNHCR from 1991–2001. The Commission produced the landmark study titled: 'Human Security Now.' The study was aimed at promoting public understanding of the concept of human security and it was used as an operational tool for policy formulation and implementation. The CHS' final report was presented to UN Secretary-General Kofi Anan in May, 2003. The report set the context for a new attitude toward security and called for focus on human security as a response to new opportunities for development in dealing with conflict and blunting many threats to human security (Sen, 2014:26).

Other significant policy formulations included the adoption of 'High Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change' as a human security framework proposed by the UN Secretary General Kofi Annan in 2004 and his subsequent report of 2005 entitled: '*In Larger Freedom – Towards Development Security and Human Rights for All.*' In particular, a UN High-powered Panel of 2004 came up with a framework that grouped the new threats to security into six (6) clusters; namely:

- i. Economic and social threats which include poverty and deadly infectious diseases;

- ii. Inter-state conflict and rivalry;
- iii. Internal violence including civil war, state collapse and genocide;
- iv. Nuclear, chemical and biological weapons;
- v. Terrorism; and
- vi. Transnational organized crimes.

In the past two decades, the concept has seen various institutional lives in international politics, *Tadjbakhsh, (2014:52)* summarized four stages that explain events and policy framework of human security:

1. The world debut in the 1994 HDR sought to seize the opportunity provided by the end of the Cold War, but was met with skepticism from the G7 during the 1995 World Summit for Social Development in Copenhagen for fear it would lead to violations of state sovereignty. It was subsequently adopted as a foreign policy tool first by Canada and then Japan.
2. Between 2001 and 2003, the concept was revived in the debate on the 'responsibility to protect,' spearheaded by the Canada supported International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS), and in the discussions on the 'responsibility for development initiated by the Japanese supported CHS.
3. From 2004 onwards, human security became a topic of reform agendas in the UN. In 2004, the EU adopted a Human Security Doctrine for Europe as a quest to promote its peace building role. In the same year, the UN Secretary General's High-level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change acknowledged the broadened nature and inter-linkages of new security threats in its report *A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility*. In 2005, Kofi Annan, without making specific reference to the term human security as it had not found consensus in the General Assembly (GA), used the three components of the broad definition as the thematic principles of his Report *In Larger Freedoms*. In the same year, the GA agreed to hold a debate to further define the concept in its Summit Outcome Document.
4. In its current stage, the definitions, scope and 'operationalization' of the concept are being fine-tuned. A Human Security Unit was set up at the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA) tasked with disseminating the concept and managing the UN Trust Fund for Human Security, a Japanese initiative set up in 1999.

Self-Assessment Exercise (SAEs) 3

1. Enumerate four (4) global institutional reports that included the concept of human security as a policy idea?



1.4 Summary

In the unit, we have seen that the concept of human security was evolved out of the pioneering efforts of the UN; initially in 1992 when ‘*Agenda for Peace*’ was proposed which stressed the indispensable role of human security as a peace making and post-conflict management requisite.

Subsequently, the phrase ‘human security’ was captured in the Human Development Report (HDR) of UNDP in 1994. The report stands to be a milestone publication and a frame of policy reference in the field of human security; it argued that there should be ‘freedom from want’ and freedom from fear’ for all persons as best path to tackle problem of global insecurity. Mahbub ul Haq is the founder of the HDR and also one of the key individuals that advocated and developed the new idea of people-centred security. The emergence of human security discourse was occasioned by a number of convergences of factors that set forth immediately after the end of Cold War; part which included the failure of liberal state building to fulfil their obligations toward their subjects. These factors prompted expansion of idea of security by analyzing the root causes of insecurity and finding solutions to conflict and underdevelopment.



1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

Haq, M. ul (1999) *Reflections on Human Development* (2nd edn). Delhi: Oxford University Press.

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Sen, A. (2014). “Birth of a Discourse.” In Martin, M. And Owen, T. (eds). *Routledge Handbook of Human Security*. New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group, Pp.17- 26

Tadjbakhsh, S. (2005). “Human Security: Concepts and Implications with an Application to Post-Intervention Challenges in Afghanistan.” *Les Etudes du – no. 117 – 118, September 2005*, Centre for Peace and Conflict Resolution, Science Po.

United Nations Development Programme – UNDP (1994). “New Dimensions of Human Security.” *Human Development Report*,” New York: Oxford University Press.



1.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs)

Answers to SAEs 1

Relevant dates and events that marked the evolution of human security

- In 1992 the UN formulated *Agenda for Peace* which stressed the indispensable role of approach to human security.
- In 1994, the phrase ‘human security’ was captured in the Human Development Report (HDR) of the UNDP.
- In 2004, a UN panel report titled: ‘*A More Secure World: Our Shared Responsibility*’ advanced the cause and set the framework of human security

Three key Proponents of the idea of human security

- Mahbub ul Haq, a former Minister of Finance of Pakistan
- Professor Amartya Sen, an economist-philosopher and Nobel laureate winner
- Oscar Arias, twice President of Costa Rica

Answers to SAEs 2

The factors that facilitate emergence of the idea of human security include:

- Failure of liberal state building, where nation-states became perpetrators of insecurities threatening the very existence of their subjects.
- rapid pace of globalization marked with prevalence of threats that are borderless, closely connected, and potentially crippling in their effects on societies globally.
- increase in the number of internal violent conflicts in Africa, Asia and Europe (Balkans).
- failure of neoliberal development models to generate growth to deal with the consequences of new threats such as HIV and climate change

Answers to SAEs 3

Global institutional reports that included the concept of human security as a policy idea:

- The UNDP HDR Report of 1994
- CHS study titled: ‘Human Security Now,’ 2003
- UN High Level Panel Report on ‘Threats, Challenges and Change,’ 2004
- UN report of 2005 entitled: ‘*In Larger Freedom – Towards Development Security and Human Rights for All.*’

UNIT 2 MEANING AND NATURE OF HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Learning Outcomes
- 2.3 Meaning and Nature of Human Security
 - 2.3.1 Concepts of Security and National Security
 - 2.3.2 Definitions and Nature of Human Security
- 2.4 Summary
- 2.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 2.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



2.1 Introduction

Concepts of human security and national or traditional security have been debated at length by scholars and policy makers for the past decades, many definitions exist and reveal not only clarification of a single concept but also a composite stand with many variant explanations. Some of these explanations make contrast between human security as the security of persons or groups and national security as the security of state or state's apparatus or territory. In this Unit, we should consider the meanings or notions of 'human,' 'security' and the focus of 'national security' and the nature of the subject field of human security.



2.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- Distinguish between the concepts of national security and human security
- Define human security
- Explain the nature of human security

2.3 Meaning and Nature of Human Security

2.3.1 Concepts of Security and National Security

The word 'security' according to Buzan cited in Tadjbakhsh (2014:43) refers to a political process, when an issue is presented as posing an existential threat to a designated referent object. The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) defined security as 'The condition of being protected from or not exposed to danger; safety ... Freedom from care, anxiety or apprehension; a feeling of safety or freedom from an absence of danger.' Buzan's definition takes as point of departure mainstream international relations theories, where the notion of 'security' is primarily codified as the prerogative of states (realism), while the OED definition instead

highlights the subjectivity inherent in security as a ‘feeling’ for individuals, which has relative connotations in different contexts.

Security can also be described as a form of protection, where a separation is created between property, individual and the threat (Okodoloh, 2011: 318). Nma (2018: 54) described security as the protection against all forms of harm whether physical, economic or psychological. It embodies not only absence of threat or security issues but the ability to rise to challenges posed by these threats. Similarly, the concept of security has been interpreted in the perspective of inter-state relations as protection and preservation of territory from external aggression, or a protection of national interests in foreign policy or as global security from threat of a nuclear holocaust Detraz (2012:131-132). This interpretation relates more to nation-states than the people. According to UNDP (1994), security symbolized protection from threat of disease, hunger, unemployment, crime, social conflict, political repression and environmental hazards.

To some scholars, concept of security needs to be defined as a subjective experience at the micro level to gain meaning (Tadjbakhsh, 2014:43); by extension, human security as a concept engages with the security of people and communities instead of solely that of states and institutions. Thus, the referent object and subject of security in this regard is moved down to individuals and their safety. Hence, well-being and dignity of human beings are objects of concern in this conception of security. To Mahbub ul Haq (1999), one of the main founders of human security discipline, human beings are the core elements in the human security approach. The word ‘human’ is therefore not simply individuals that are seen as self-enclosed but rather complex beings whose individuality arises through relationships. Human as a concept could also connote both the human species and whatever in human persons collectively requiring to be secured (Gasper, 2014:28). The end cold war opens a new door for conceptualization of security. For traditionalist the major concern is states and weapons, variation of this ideology addressed ecological, environment and economic security matters as discrete issues. However, another set of thinking emerged that marked an important departure from the traditionalist. The new thinking studied human being as the new security referent (Robert, 2008:14).

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Mention two (2) objects of referent each in national and human securities

2.3.2 Definitions and Nature of Human Security

There is no single definition of human security. However, literature devoted to international relations and development studies referred to human security in various terms as ‘a new theory or concept,’ as a ‘starting point for analysis,’ ‘a world view,’ a political agenda,’ or as ‘a policy framework.’ Although the definition of human security remains an open question, there is consensus among its advocates that there should be a shift of attention from a state-centred to a people-centred approach to security (Tadjbakhsh, 2014:5). That concern with the security of state borders should add up with concern about the security of the people who live within those borders. The concept of human security is generally defined first in terms of the security of individuals and the communities in which they live as opposed to the security of the state and secondly as referring to both ‘freedom from fear’ and ‘freedom from want’ – security from a range of existential threats that include both physical violence as well material deprivation (Kaldor, 2014: 69). Human security therefore deals with the capacity to identify threats, to avoid them when possible, and to mitigate their effects when they do occur. It means helping victims cope with the consequences of the widespread insecurity resulting from armed conflict, human rights violations and massive underdevelopment.

In 2005, Human Security Report defined human security as the complex of interrelated threats associated with civil war, genocide and displacement of population (Robert, 2008:23). Bazza (2014) described human security within the stand point of state’s primary responsibilities that include protections from political, economic, social and environmental threats. Fundamentally, human security, like other security such as economic security and food security, is about protection that entails taking remedial actions where preventive measures failed (Okodoloh, 2011: 318). It highlights the need to address the root causes of conflict and insecurity by transforming it to safety and freedom to people. Another perspective of human security adopted by the European Human Security Study Group was the definition that linked human security and law. The perspective maintained that human security is a kind of security that individuals expect in law-governed societies where law is based on an implicit social contract among individuals.

Fundamental to law-governed societies is the assumption of equality before the law. This is different from the idea of a state-based international system in which, even if this system is law-governed as is assumed by the English School of international relations, it is law based on state rights rather than individual rights. In such a system, from an individual point of view nationals are privileged over foreigners. In a law-governed national society, where law applies to individuals, it is

assumed that the state will protect individuals from existential threats and emergency services – ambulances, fire fighters, and police – are part of state provision. In most such societies civil and political rights tend to receive more attention than social and economic rights in practice even though all these rights are enshrined in law (Kaldor, 2014: 69).

Advocates of human security are divided between those who are content with narrow definitions, focusing exclusively on factors that perpetuate violence and those for whom a broad definition which encompasses issues of human rights and underdevelopment is to be preferred. Proponents of a broad definition argue that instead of lamenting the lack of workable definitions, research should be concerned with the way in which the definitions insisted on by security studies circumvent political, moral and ethical concerns in order to concentrate on relations of power (Tadjbakhsh, 2005:7). The later approach encourages comprehensive measures which can be applied to issues that affect the everyday lives of people.

For the human security concept to be understood lucidly there is need to note that different users have had different primary purposes, leading to different interpretations. Some relate the concept of human security to object of referent, while others on the purposes that involved adding to UNDP's original concept of 'human development' of 1990. The UNDP's original concept of 'human development includes firstly, a concern with the stability of attainment of the goods in human development and secondly, a concern on the good of physical security of persons. The former two concerns lead to definitions of human security in terms of the stability of the achievement or access to goods; in particular when coping with 'down side risks', a phrase of Amartya Sen (Sen, 2003). The latter concern broadened human development thinking by adding 'freedom from fear' to 'freedom from want' – involves the addition of personal physical security, in the sense of freedom from violence, to the list of component objectives within human

Development (Gasper, 2014: 32). To sum up, any comprehensive definition of human security must include at least the following distinct four (4) elements identified by Amartya Sen, (2014: 18):

1. A clear focus on individual human lives (this would contrast, for example, with the aggregately technocratic notion of 'national security' – the favoured interpretation of 'security' in the military context).
2. An appreciation of the role of society and of social arrangements in making human lives more secure in a constructive way (avoiding a socially detached view of individual human

predicament and redemption, emphasized in some – but not all – religious contexts).

3. A reasoned concentration on the downside risks of human lives, rather than on the overall expansion of effective freedom in general (contrasting with the broader objective of the promotion of ‘human development’).
4. A chosen focus, again, on the ‘downside’ in emphasizing the more elementary human rights (rather than the entire range of human rights). Gasper (2014:34) identified the following as the basic features of Human security:
 1. Humanist normative concern for the well-being of fellow humans: what matters is the content of individuals’ lives, including a reasonable degree of stability.
 2. A humanist methodology of attention to mundane realities of life – including exploration of the things that people value and of the diverse but interconnected threats (actual or felt) to these values.
 3. Normative priorities for being human including a sense of meaning and identification, and recognition of respect for others.
 4. The discourse’s connectivity aspects, is a characteristic stress on the interconnection of threats.
 5. Attention to the specific intersections of diverse forces in persons’ and groups’ lives.

O’Brien (2010) proposes an equity dimension feature which he referred to as human security thinking. According to Gasper (2007) human security thinking is largely shared with the sibling discourses of human rights, human needs, and human development. It contains in particular an insistence on fulfilling basic rights, derived from basic needs, for all. Besides a generalized concern with interconnections, human security thinking is also called ‘joined-up thinking.’ the term ‘joined-up feeling’ is used to explain the motivating focus on human vulnerability and on the human rights that flow for all from basic human needs.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Explain the meaning of the concept human security?
2. Mention two (3) elements that constitute the nature of human security



2.4 Summary

In this unit, we have examined the meaning of the concept human security and also discussed the various definitions given by different scholars. We established that definition of human security remains a debatable theme among its advocates; nonetheless, there is consensus among the advocates that there should be a shift of attention from a state-centred to a people-centred approach to security. It was also highlighted that for any meaningful definition of human security to be considered a comprehensive one; it must include at least one of the elements of clear focus on individual human lives; an appreciation of the role of society and of social arrangements; a reasoned concentration on the downside risks of human lives; and a chosen focus on the 'downside' in emphasizing the more elementary human rights.



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2.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Meaning of Human Security

- people-centred approach to security
- complex of interrelated threats associated with civil war, genocide and displacement of population
- State's primary responsibilities that include protections from political, economic, social and environmental threats.
- a protection that entails taking remedial actions where preventive measures failed.

Elements that constitute the nature of human security

- a concern with the stability of attainment of the goods in human development
- a concern on the good of physical security of persons
- freedom from fear
- freedom from want
- personal physical security, in the sense of freedom from violence

UNIT 3 SCOPE OF HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Learning Outcomes
- 3.3 Scope of Human Security
 - 3.3.1 Components of human security
 - 3.3.2 Areas of threat to human security
- 3.4 Summary
- 3.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 3.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



3.1 Introduction

The meaning and nature of human security are contested areas among scholars and policy analysts. In last unit we are to know the efforts of scholars in proffering definitions, objects and the purposes of human security. This unit will discuss the scope or components and the key areas of threat to human security.



3.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- Outline the major components of human security
- State clearly the key areas of threat to human security

3.3 Scope of Human Security

3.3.1 Components of human security

In its broadest form, the idea of human security according Tadjbakhsh (2014:46) should constitute three basic components which at the same time define its scope; these are:

freedom from fear: these are conditions that allow individuals and groups protection from direct threats to their safety and physical integrity, including various forms of direct and indirect violence, intended or not;

freedom from want: these are conditions that allow for protection of basic needs, quality of life, livelihoods and enhanced human welfare; and

Freedom from indignity: this is a condition where individuals and groups are assured of the protection of their fundamental rights, allowed to make choices and take advantage of opportunities in their everyday lives.

The following distinction between comprehensive security and human security can also help to bring forth the component of human security. According to Acharya (2000), the distinction between comprehensive security and human security lies in three areas:

1. Comprehensive security focuses on human needs, while human security stresses human rights.
2. Comprehensive security seeks to determine the origins of security threats; the core concern of human security is to determine whose security is at stake.
3. Comprehensive security focuses on “order” and “stability”, while human security is geared more to justice and emancipation.

3.3.2 Areas of threat to human security

The UNDP (1994) [Human Development Report](#) outlined the scope of human security to include threats in seven areas:

- **Economic security** – [Economic security](#) requires an assured [basic income](#) for individuals, usually from productive and remunerative work or, as a last resort, from a publicly financed safety net.
- **Food security** – [Food security](#) requires that all people at all times have both physical and economic access to basic food. According to UN, the key is to tackle the problems relating to access to assets, work and assured income (related to economic security).
- **Health security** – [Health security](#) aims to guarantee a minimum protection from diseases and unhealthy [lifestyles](#). According to the UN, in both developing and industrial countries, threats to health security are usually greater for poor people in rural areas, particularly children. This is due to [malnutrition](#) and insufficient access to health services, clean water and other basic necessities.
- **Environmental security** – [Environmental security](#) aims to protect people from the short- and long-term ravages of nature, man-made threats in nature, and deterioration of the [natural environment](#). [Global warming](#), caused by the emission of [greenhouse gases](#), is another [environmental security issue](#).
- **Personal security** – [Personal security](#) aims to protect people from physical [violence](#), whether from the state or external states, from violent individuals and sub-state actors, from [domestic abuse](#), or from predatory adults. For many people, the greatest source of anxiety is [crime](#), particularly violent crime.

- **Community security** – [Community security](#) aims to protect people from the loss of traditional [relationships](#) and values and from sectarian and ethnic violence. Traditional communities, particularly minority [ethnic groups](#) are often threatened. About half of the world's states have experienced some inter-ethnic strife.
- **Political security** – [Political security](#) is concerned with whether people live in a society that honors their basic human rights. Human rights violations are most frequent during periods of political unrest. Along with repressing individuals and groups, governments may try to exercise control over ideas and information.

Acharya (2000) argued that most of the literature on human security, be it critical or supportive, is produced by South-East Asian scholars. Most of these scholars recognize that non-military threats such as environmental degradation, could undermine the stability of both the state and society, adversely affecting the people and some of them suggest that increased participation by NGOs and regional cooperation among “like-minded countries” could also solve the problem of human insecurities.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Identify and explain three (3) components of human security?
2. Outline five (5) areas of threats to security that underlined the scope of human security



3.4 Summary

In the unit, components of human security such as freedom from fear, freedom from want and freedom from indignity were discussed. Similarly, areas of threat to human security such as economic, personal, environmental, political and community securities were highlighted. The components and areas of threat to security underline the scope of human security.



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3.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs)

Answers to SAEs 1

Components of human security

- **Freedom from fear:** protection of individuals from direct threats
- **Freedom from want:** protection of basic needs and enhanced human welfare
- **Freedom from indignity:** protection of fundamental rights of individuals

Components of human security as proposed by Acharya (2000)

- human rights.
- People security
- justice and emancipation.

Answers to SAEs 2

Areas of threat and the scope of human security

- **Economic security** –an assured [basic income](#) for individuals
- **Food security** –access to basic food
- **Health security** –protection from diseases and unhealthy [lifestyles](#)
- **Environmental security** –protection from the short- and long-term ravages of nature
- **Personal security** – protection from physical [violence](#)
- **Community security** –protection from the loss of traditional [relationships](#) and values
- **Political security** –concerned with basic human rights

UNIT 4 SECURITY AND DEVELOPMENT

Unit Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Learning Outcomes
- 4.3 Concept of Security and Development
 - 4.3.1 Nature and Components of Development
 - 4.3.2 The interconnections between Security and Development
- 4.4 Summary
- 4.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 4.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



4.1 Introduction

One of the principal aims of the 1994 UNDP *Human Development Report* was to influence the policies of states in the preparatory phase of the 1995 UN Conference on Social Development at Copenhagen. The broader goal was to reconceptualise the linkages between development and security. The *Report* effectively reopened the debate about the link between ‘security’ and ‘development.’ The linking of security and development in the 1994 *Report* was, however, argued that security is a pre-condition (or co-condition) for successful social, economic, and political development. In the previous units, the concept of human security was explained as taking the focus from state-centred security concerns and drawing attention to the ways in which all states are responsible, to varying degrees, for the human security of their citizens. In this unit, efforts will be invested to explore the concept of development and examine the links between security and development.



4.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- Explain the meaning and nature of development
- Discuss the shared features of development and security

4.3 Concept of Security and Development

4.3.1 Nature and Components of Development

Development, according to Anderson and Woodrow (1988:12), is a process through which people’s physical/material; social/organisational; motivational/attitudinal vulnerabilities are reduced and capacities are

increased. Seer: (1972) defines development as the creation of conditions for the realisation of human personality leading to reduction in poverty, unemployment and inequality. It involves changes in social, political and economic structures within and between countries; evaluation of which, should take into account three linked economic criteria – reduction in poverty, unemployment and inequality. Chenery and Srinivasan (1988) linked the concept of development and economic growth.

According to Akinboye and Ottoh (2005:96), economic growth and development involves a set of arrangements by which the society determines what is to be produced, how it should be produced, including the instruments and institutions to be used, as well as the pattern of the resource allocation, and how the resulting claims and personal income to goods and services are distributed among different households. This implies that economic development can be seen as evolving pattern or complex human relations concerned with the distribution of scarce resources for the goal of satisfying various public and private needs.

Human relations include pattern of cultural processes, which have historical roots, undergone developments and moved towards various objectives set up by groups and individuals. Thus, various indices measure the level of economic development and these include: the level of per capita income, the growth rate of per capita income, the share of instrument in Gross National Product (GNP), and share of primary, secondary, and tertiary activities in total employment or GNP. In his examination of the concept of development, Jonathan Harris (2000) undertook an analysis of the trends in global development. Here, he observed that as development policies evolved, different approaches were emphasized at different times. The original focus for him aimed at promoting more *productive agriculture* and industrialisations.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Define Development?
2. State three (3) indices of economic development?

4.3.2 The interconnections between Security and Development

From the foregoing it can be deduced that development implies a normative process of fulfilment; a series of interconnecting institutional and personal efforts leading from poverty and vulnerability to security and well-being (Duffield; 1994:38). Specifically, the concept of development depicts general improvement in human conditions. It is an attack on the chief evils confronting the modern world today;

malnutrition, illiteracy, unemployment, diseases, slums, inequality and insecurity. Security, on the other hand, is the first law of nature, it is a core and basic requirement for survival; preservation and sustainability of any living organism. It signifies the degree of protection against danger, damage, or loss and criminal activity. It can also be described as a form of protection, where a separation is created between property, individual and the threat (Okodoloh, 2011: 318). From the above, it can be argued that the development and security of any nation is principally indicated by the extent to which the nation is able to provide the basic needs of the vast majority of its people in secured human conditions and enabling secured physical environment.

Stewart (2004) in a paper titled: "Development and Security" identified the following interconnections between security and development:

- Security forms an important part of people's well-being, and is therefore an objective of development. An objective of development is "the enlargement of human choices". Insecurity cuts life short and thwarts the use of human potential, thereby affecting the reaching of this objective.
- Lack of security has adverse consequences on economic growth, and therefore development. Some development costs are obvious. For example, in [wars](#), people who join the army or flee can no longer work productively. Also, destroying infrastructure reduces the productive capacity of the economy.
- Imbalanced development that involves horizontal inequalities is an important source of conflict. Therefore, vicious cycles of lack of development which leads to conflict, then to lack of development, can readily emerge. Likewise, virtuous cycles are possible, with high levels of security leading to development, which further promotes security in return.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2

1. Discuss interconnections between security and development?



4.4 Summary

In the unit, effort was made to explain the concept of development as a process through which people's physical/material; social/organisational; motivational/attitudinal vulnerabilities are reduced and capacities are increased. The links between security and development was also discussed. It was established that the connections between security and development lie on the fact that vicious cycles of lack of development leads to conflict and that high levels of security leads to development.



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4.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Definition of development

- Creation of conditions for the realisation of human personality leading to reduction in poverty, unemployment and inequality.
- changes in social, political and economic structures within and between countries
- linked with economic criteria – reduction in poverty, unemployment and inequality.

2. Indices of measuring economic development:

- level of per capita income,
- the growth rate of per capita income,
- the share of instrument in Gross National Product (GNP),
- share of primary, secondary, and tertiary activities in total employment.

Answers to SAEs 2

Stewart (2004) identified some interconnections between security and development as follows:

- Security forms an important part of people's well-being, and is therefore an objective of development.
- Insecurity has adverse consequences on economic growth, and therefore development.
- destroying infrastructure reduces the productive capacity of the economy.
- Imbalanced development is an important source of conflict.
- high levels of security leading to development, which further promotes security in return.

UNIT 5 HUMAN SECURITY AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

Unit Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Learning Outcomes
- 5.3 Human security and Human Development
 - 5.3.1 Human Development
 - 5.3.2 Shared Elements of Human Development and Human Security
- 5.4 Summary
- 5.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 5.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



5.1 Introduction

In unit 4, attempt was made to explain the meaning and nature of the concept of development as well as examine interconnections between the concepts of security and development. It was learned that security is a pre-condition (or co-condition) for successful social, economic, and political development. In this unit, we shall discuss concept of human development and also examine the practical links between human security and human development.



5.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- Explain the meaning of human development
- Discuss the shared elements of human development and human security

5.3 Human security and Human Development

5.3.1 Human Development

It has been established that development is not entirely an economic phenomenon but a multi-dimensional undertaking which enhances the social, economic, political and environmental aspects of peoples' lives. Its objectives are contained in the United Nation Agenda for Development; to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives. It is therefore, the pursuit of human wellbeing to achieve a higher quality of life for all people. It is a human-centred process through which man transforms his natural and social environment to enhance his conditions of living. In this process, man transforms himself by acquiring the capacity to live a better, more

rewarding and more fulfilling life which he transmits to future generation. From the above, it is easy to deduce that the development and progress of any nation is principally indicated by the extent to which it is able to provide the basic human needs. This has resulted in the attempts to measure development by the level of human needs, particularly in the late 1970s.

Mahbub Ul Haq (1995:11), focusing on basic needs, advocated that human dimension of development is not just another addition to the development dialogue. It is an entirely new perspective, a revolutionary way to recast our conventional approach to development. With this transition in thinking, human civilization and democracy may reach yet another milestone. Rather than the residual of development, human beings could finally become its principal object and subject—not a forgotten economic abstraction, but a living, operational reality, not helpless victims or slaves of the very process of development they have unleashed, but its masters. The new approach inspired the creation of the UNDP Human Development Index (HDI), which utilizes health, and education measures together with GDP to calculate an overall index of developmental successes. (Harris; 2000: 3).

The focus on human development is not entirely new. It is dated back to Aristotle and Immanuel Kant. Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) cautioned against judging societies merely by such things as the income and wealth it possesses. For him, the difference between a good political arrangement and a bad one is located in terms of successes or failures in facilitating people's ability to lead flourishing lives. Kant (1724-1804) observed: "So act as to treat humanity, whether in their own person or in that of any other, in every case as an end withal, never as means only." This implies treating human beings as the real end of all activities – development (Mahbub Ul Haq, 1995: 13).

Mahbub Ul Haq (1995: 14) maintained that the basic purpose of development is to enlarge people's choices. In principle, these choices can be infinite and can change over time. He defined human development as value achievements that do not show up at all, or not immediately, in income or growth figures: greater access to knowledge, better nutrition and health services, more secure livelihoods, security against crime and physical violence, satisfying leisure hours, political and cultural freedoms and a sense of participation in community activities. Objective of human development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives. Mahbub Ul Haq (1995: 4) argued that human development should be preoccupied with people rather than with production and should contain at least five (5) distinct elements as follows:

1. A human balance sheet: these are human resources, education of people and inventory of skills; the profile of relative income distribution and absolute poverty; how much unemployment and underemployment are there? What are the urban-rural distribution and the level of human development in various regions?
2. Basic human needs translating into physical targets for production and consumption: This means that there will have to be a clear exposition of the targets for average nutrition, education, health, housing and transport—as a very minimum.
3. An essential corollary of incorporating the human dimension into development in both production and distribution with integration and equal emphasis. A development plan must specify not only what is being produced but how it is likely to be distributed and what concrete policies will be applied to ensure that national production is equitably distributed.
4. A human development strategy must be decentralized, to involve community participation and self-reliance. It is ironic to declare human beings the ultimate objective of economic planning and then to deny them full participation in planning for themselves. Many developing countries are confused on this subject. Laudable objectives of human development adopted in national plans are often frustrated because the beneficiaries are given little say in planning and implementation.
5. A human framework for analysing performance: A comprehensive set of social and human development indicators needs to be developed to monitor plan progress. Besides GNP growth rates, the human story must also be brought out in annual assessments of how many people experienced what growth rates and of how the relative and absolute poverty levels changed every year.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Define human development?
2. Outline the five (5) basic elements of human development as identified by Mahbub Ul Haq?

5.3.2 Shared Elements of Human Development and Human Security

One of the central ambiguities in the human security literature surrounds the overlap between the concepts of human security and human development. Owen (2014: 60) using the idea of threshold distinguishes human security with human development. Owen defines threshold as a bar that is set with a significant impact on national and international policy, the core aspect of which is they are subjective. Owen (2014:62)

argued that the concepts can be distinguished from one another using thresholds in two ways – threat identification and threat mitigation. Threat according to Commission on Human Security are critical (immanent) and pervasive (widespread) harmful elements targeting the vital core of individuals (harms that impede an individual's ability to survive) (Owen, 2014: 60). For threat identification, some threats that traditionally fall within the category of human development have the potential to become threats to human security if they surpass the threshold at any one time and in any one place. The difference between the two concepts, therefore, is rooted in the line which harm may cross making it something qualitatively more serious and urgent than it once was. Determining this line is necessarily a subjective decision, but in any country or region, the development concerns that fundamentally threaten the lives of large numbers of people are relatively easy to identify.

For example, in some countries in Africa, HIV/AIDS is such a large-scale and imminently destructive menace, that it must be tackled with all of the resources and prescience afforded to a security concern. In other countries, the impact of HIV/AIDS may not be as significant, due to an ability to counter the threat, and as such, traditional development mechanisms may be the most appropriate means of addressing the problem. In this construct, certain conditions of under-development, such as environmental, health, economic and human rights abuses, could, however, cross the threshold and become human security threats. Human security is therefore a necessary precondition for human development but not a vice versa (Owen, 2014:62).

Similarly, in threat mitigation while most human development issues have the potential to become human security issues, some do not. Issues such as education, for example, even if the education system were non-existent, would never meet the threshold of causing a critical and pervasive threat. However, better education may very well be determined to be a mitigating mechanism for alleviating a human security threat. This same dynamic is true for a host of development issues and practices. A bad road will never be a human security threat. But building a road may help address the threat of high accident rates or for providing access to a village for medicinal supplies or policing. It may be that more or better development is determined to be the best mechanism to address identified human security threats. But identifying the human security threat is a precondition for developing this mitigating strategy (Owen, 2014:62) Furthermore, in practice, scholars have said to present the shared elements of human development and human security in three fundamental ways:

1. Human security and human development are both people-centered. They challenge the orthodox approach to security and development i.e. state security and liberal economic growth respectively. Both emphasize people are to be the ultimate ends but not means. Both treat human as agents and should be empowered to participate in the course.
2. Both perspectives are multidimensional. Both address people's dignity as well as their material and physical concerns.
3. Both schools of thought consider [poverty](#) and [inequality](#) as the root causes of individual vulnerability.

Despite these similarities, the relationship with development is one of the most debated areas of human security. "Freedom from fear" advocates, such as Andrew Mack, argue that human security should focus on the achievable goals of decreasing individual vulnerability to violent conflict, rather than broadly defined goals of economic and social development. Others, such as Tadjbakhsh and Chenoy (2006) argued that human development and human security are inextricably linked since progress in one enhances the chances of progress in another while failure in one increase risk of failure of another. The following table is adopted from Tadjbakhsh (2006) to help clarify the relationship between these two concepts.

Variables	Human Development	Human Security
<i>Values</i>	Well-being.	Security, stability, sustainability of development gains
<i>Orientation</i>	Moves forward, is progressive and aggregate: "Together we rise"	Looks at who was left behind at the individual level: "Divided we fall"
<i>Time Frame</i>	Long term	Combines short-term measures to deal with risks with long term prevention efforts.
<i>General objectives</i>	Growth with equity. Expanding the choices and opportunities of people to lead lives they value.	"Insuring" downturns with security. Identification of risks, prevention to avoid them through dealing with root causes, preparation to mitigate them, and cushioning when disaster strikes.
<i>Policy goals</i>	Empowerment , sustainability , equity and productivity.	Protection and promotion of human survival (freedom from fear), daily life (freedom from want), and the avoidance of indignities (life of dignity).

Source: Tadjbakhsh (2006)

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Outline the similarities and differences between human development and human security?



5.5 Summary

In the unit, we have learned about meaning and nature of human development, the basic purpose of which, is to enlarge people's choices. It is a value achievement that does not show up immediately; security against crime and physical violence; a political and cultural freedoms and a sense of participation in community activities. The practical links between human security and human development has also been discussed. Scholars have maintained that human development and human security are inextricably linked since progress in one enhances the chances of progress in another while failure in one increase risk of failure of another.



5.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

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- Tadjbakhsh, S. & Chenoy, (2006). "Human Security", 'Human Development Insights Issue 17, New York: UNDP HDR Networks



4.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs).

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Definitions of human developments

- the pursuit of human wellbeing to achieve a higher quality of life for all people.
- a human-centred process through which man transforms his natural and social environment to enhance his conditions of living.
- A process of transformation for acquiring the capacity to live a better, more rewarding and more fulfilling life which is to be transmitted from one generation to another.

2. Elements of human development identified by Mahbub Ul Haq:

- A human balance sheet: these are human resources
- Basic human needs translating into physical targets for production and consumption:
- concrete policies to be applied to ensure equitable distribution in national production.
- community participation and self-reliance.
- A human framework for analysing performance

Answers to SAEs 2

Similarities and differences between human development and human security

Similarities

- both are people-centered.
- Both perspectives are multidimensional.
- Both address people's dignity as well as their material and physical concerns.
- Both consider [poverty](#) and [inequality](#) as the root causes of individual vulnerability.

Differences

Differ in the following areas:

- Values
- Orientation
- Time frame
- General objectives

MODULE 2 DIMENSIONS, ACTORS AND THREAT TO HUMAN SECURITY

INTRODUCTION

In module one (1) you have learned about the origin, nature and scope of human security as well as the relationship between human security and human development. In this module you would study dimensions of human security in relation to kinds and sources of threat to security. You would also learn framework of responsibility and factors that impinge on the responsibility to provide human security. The module comprises five units as follows:

- Unit 1 Dimensions of Human Security
- Unit 2 Human Security as a Category of Research
- Unit 3 Gender and Human Security
- Unit 4 The International Law, Political Obligations and Human Security
- Unit 5 Roles of the States and International Organizations in Human Security

UNIT 1 DIMENSIONS OF HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Dimensions of Human Security
 - 1.3.1 Types of Human Security
 - 1.3.2 Paradigms and Types of Human Insecurity
- 1.4 Summary
- 1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 1.4 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



1.1 Introduction

Human security goes beyond military or traditional security threat and it comprises a multitude of varying types. This unit focuses on the identification and explanation of the types of human security in relations to the nature of threat and the measurability of the threat.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- Identify and explain types of human security
- Enumerate and discuss types of human insecurity

1.3.1 Types of Human Security

Basically, human security can be divided into four types in terms of the nature and measurability of its constituent elements. These are:

1. Objective type of human security
2. Subjective type of human security
3. Direct human security
4. Indirect human security

Objective type of human security: This is a type of human security which is objective in nature; it is also called tangible human security as it involves tangible measurable elements, such as insufficient income, chronic unemployment, lack of access to adequate health care and quality education. They are also commensurate to the idea of ‘freedom from want’ that broadly constitutes the defined goals of economic and social development.

Subjective type of human security: These are human security elements that are intangible and subjective in the sense that one is unable to control their destiny they include: a feeling of unworthiness or indignity, fear of crime or potentially violent conflict and etc. They are also in meaning of ‘freedom from fear’ and ‘freedom from indignity that focuses on the achievable goals of decreasing individual vulnerability to violent conflict and fundamental rights violation

Direct human security: These comprise human security threats are direct and deliberately orchestrated against individuals or group and include aspects such as systematic persecutions, or drug-related criminal networks. In this category one can include the UNDP 1994 definition of "community security" which refers both to the security of the community as a functioning whole with its own specific identity and the security of the individuals within the community who should be protected from discriminatory practices instituted by the community itself.

Indirect human security: These are aspect of human security that stem from underlying structural factors such as a low level of investment in public services, health care and education. In the complex global

network, structural factors that stem out as consequence of breakdown of an element of human concern can lead to the breakdowns throughout the global system thereby producing a vicious cycle of cause and effect.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Identify and explain four (4) types of human security?

1.3.2 Paradigms and Types of Human Insecurity

Tadjbakhsh (2005) in his effort to highlight the relevance of threat analysis pointed out that absence of development can in and of itself create conditions of insecurity. He maintained that poverty and inequality for example can foster insecurity and conflict, in addition to being “inhumane” in themselves. In relation to human security three pattern of threats have been identified; namely domino pattern, spreading pattern, and interdependence pattern. The domino pattern signifies that threats are mutually linked in domino patterns in the sense that the deterioration of health care can lead to poverty, which can lead to a lack of education, etc.

When the environment is poisoned, the degradation can instigate population movements into other more fragile ecological settings, threatening the livelihood and health of those forced to move. For spreading pattern, the various threats can spread across a given country (with impoverished areas, for example, upsetting the stability of more progressive sectors), or spill over into other regions (through massive migration due to unemployment, the export of arms, the increased drain on natural resources and so on) with as a result a negative impact on global security as a whole. However, the interdependence pattern of threats means, that no hierarchy of threats should be established (Tadjbakhsh, 2005: 31). analyzes how the lives of the Afghan people are threatened by a series of factors that belong to the paradigm of human security, Tadjbakhsh (2005) listed a) poverty, inequality and job insecurity; b) lack of education and health care; c) food shortages and environmental degradation; d) violation of human rights and gender discrimination; and e) political discrimination as part of human insecurity in Afghanistan. Tadjbakhsh (2005) summarizes the following threats as broadly constitute types of human insecurity:

Socio-economic threats: these pertain to employment, wage levels or access to major public services such as healthcare, housing, and education including the traditional threats of underdevelopment such as poverty, hunger, disease, pollution etc.

Personal security threats: these include both criminal violence and individual's state of apprehension. Examples of this type of insecurity are the fear of losing access to health services when health insurance programs undergo reform, and the fear of losing a job when companies go through periods of restructuring, or any threat that contributes to increased stress. In some cases, threats can emanate from the state (state use of torture), from invasion by other states, or from international or cross-border terrorism, or from menaces emanating from ethnic or religious groups or from gangs (street violence), domestic violence, violence against children (abuse, prostitution, labour) or even violence against one's self (suicide or drug abuse). This type of human insecurity can effectively be measured by studies based on field work and first-hand observation

Environmental threats: it is defined as not simply threats to the environment (destruction of natural resources for example) but how such destruction affects people concretely and increases their vulnerability (increased pollution leading to a scarcity of food supplies and fresh water).

Political threats: these include civil rights and human rights violations, violence stemming from armed conflicts, as well as irresponsible behaviour on the part of public officials, a corrupt civil service, institutions characterized by instability, a deficient judicial system, lack of law enforcement, etc.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

- | |
|--|
| 1. Mention and explain four (4) paradigms of human insecurity? |
|--|



1.4 Summary

relevance of threat analysis pointed out that absence of development can in itself In the unit, we have identified and discussed four types of human security in terms of the nature and measurability of its constituent elements. These included objective and subjective types as well as direct and indirect human security. The unit also highlighted the create conditions of insecurity and identified three pattern of threats to human security; namely domino pattern, spreading pattern, and interdependence pattern.



1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

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1.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs)

Answers to SAEs 1

Types of human security

- Objective type of human security
- Subjective type of human security
- Direct human security
- Indirect human security

Answers to SAEs 2

Paradigm of human security

- poverty, inequality and job insecurity
- lack of education and health care
- food shortages and environmental degradation
- violation of human rights and gender discrimination
- political discrimination

Others include

- Socio-economic, personal security, environmental and political threats

UNIT 2 HUMAN SECURITY AS A CATEGORY OF RESEARCH

Unit Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Learning Outcomes
- 2.3 Human Security as a Category of Research
- 2.4 Human security and Existing Research Methodologies
- 2.5 Summary
- 2.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 2.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



2.1 Introduction

In the previous unit the relevance of threat analysis pointing out that absence of development can create conditions of insecurity was highlighted. The unit also discussed three pattern of threats to human security; namely domino pattern, spreading pattern, and interdependence pattern. This unit presents classification of the broad categories of human security research by Paris, Roland; and the quantitative and qualitative methodological directions of human security research.



2.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- delineate areas of human security research needs; and
- identify and explain sources of human security threats in relations to category of research.
- Examine the quantitative and qualitative methodological directions of human security research

2.3 Human Security as a Category of Research

Paris (2001: 98) argued that Human Security can be identified as a broad category of research on military and/or non-military threats to societies, groups and individuals. Paris classified security studies in a two by two matrix with one axis that distinguishes studies concerned exclusively with military threats from studies of non-military security threats such as economic deprivation or environmental crises. The other axis distinguishes studies that

conceive of the state as the appropriate unit of analysis for security studies from studies of security for societies, groups, and individuals. This partition seems a sensible division of studies that helps to orient human security in relation to the traditional security studies as well as to the wider “comprehensive,” “common,” and “global” security agendas that are still state-focused. It goes without saying that the four cells are not mutually exclusive: by definition the “military” columns single out a key subset of the “both” columns. Also there will be significant overlap between threats that affect states and those that affect individuals and groups. Paris’ work is useful, not only for his stunning survey and his recognition that multiple definitions of human security will and should persist, but also for his accurate delineation of human security research needs. Paris (2001) present the figure below to illustrate research category and source of threat to human security.

Figure 1: The Source of the Security Threat and Research Category of Human Security

Military Military, Non-military, or Both States

National security (conventional realist approach to security studies)	Redefined security (e.g., environmental and economic [cooperative or comprehensive] security)
Intrastate security (e.g., civil war, ethnic conflict, and democide)	Human security (e.g., environmental and economic threats to the survival of societies, groups, and individuals)

Security for Whom?

Societies, Groups, and
Individuals

Source: Paris, R. (2001). “Human Security: Paradigm Shift or Hot Air?” *International Security*. **26:2**. 87-102.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Identify and explain two (2) broad areas of human security research needs?

2.4 Human security and Existing Research Methodologies

Methodology is understood as an encompassing term referring ‘to those basic assumptions about the world we study, which are before the specific techniques adopted by the scholar undertaking research’ (Pouliot 2007). A methodology comprises a set of epistemological and ontological requirements that in turn formulates its own scientific standards and truth conditions – or put differently ‘criteria of proof and demonstration’ (Hacking 2002). The methodology adopted will determine what are the most appropriate methods and concrete tools of inquiry, while for the practitioner, methodology is also the starting point for shaping consistent policy responses and will influence the choice of both practical approaches and relevant resources. The failure to apply suitable investigative tools is part of the gap in understanding human security, which has contributed to its being dismissed as fuzzy and imprecise and therefore of limited policy utility (Paris 2001). Meanwhile the challenge for human security is to devise research practices and policies which are consistent with the deemed conceptual shift from the security of states to that of individuals and communities.

Researchers have attempted to capture threat multiplicity and vulnerability, as conceptual focus has moved from defending the state and protecting borders to the dangers faced by individuals, from natural disasters to poverty, underdevelopment and aspects of conflict. The fundamental tenets of human security including the dualism between ‘fears and wants’ (Tadjbakhsh and Chenoy 2007), or deprivations versus needs, led researchers in two different methodological directions, based on the assumed distinction between observable harms and speculative aspirations. Quantitative methods concentrated on trying to identify and measure novel forms of insecurity to distinguish them from conventional forms of security data, as well as developing proxies for these various forms. Qualitative methods involving interviews and perception studies attempted to filter available data through the prism of individualized experiences.¹ In many cases human security methodology sought to combine the two, as it attempted to counter criticisms of conceptual fuzziness through making use of what might be regarded by some as more rigorously scientific quantitative data, while also allowing room for the subjective experience of insecurity. Examples of this include the Palestinian Human Development Report 2009/10, which applied a human security lens, and aimed ‘to integrate

public opinion and perceptions wherever possible'. A consultative process was also critical for compiling the human security survey (UNDP 2010:).

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Differentiate between quantitative and qualitative methodological directions of human security research?



2.5 Summary

The unit has presented classification of the broad categories of human security research by Paris, Roland which included military and non-military categories of research in human security. It also examined the quantitative and qualitative methodological directions of human security research. The fundamental tenets of human security methodological research directions are based two different distinctions between 'fears and wants,' or deprivations versus needs, and observable harms and speculative aspirations.



2.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

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2.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Broad areas of human security research needs

- military threats from studies of non-military security threats
- state as a unit of analysis vs societies or groups, or individuals
- comprehensive,” “common,” and “global” security agendas

Answers to SAEs 2

Differences between quantitative and qualitative methods of human security research

- Quantitative methods concentrated on trying to identify and measure novel forms of insecurity to distinguish them from conventional forms of security data, as well as developing proxies for these various forms.
- Qualitative methods involving interviews and perception studies attempted to filter available data through the prism of individualized experiences.
- In many cases human security methodology sought to combine the two methods in an attempted to counter criticisms of conceptual fuzziness

UNIT 3 GENDER AND HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Learning Outcomes
- 3.3 Gender and Human Security
 - 3.3.1 Justifications for Security Concerns of the Women Population
 - 3.3.2 Forms of Threats to Human Security in Relations to Gender
- 3.4 Summary
- 3.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 3.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



3.1 Introduction

In the previous unit we have seen classification of the broad categories of human security research and also examined the quantitative and qualitative methodological directions of human security research. This unit, focuses on the individual's threat – the human security model aimed at addressing the security concerns of both women and men equally.



3.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- explain the justification for the security concerns of the women population; and
- identify and explain forms of human security threats in relations gender

3.3 Gender and Human Security

3.3. Justifications for Security Concerns of the Women Population

Human security focuses on the serious neglect of gender concerns under the traditional security model. However, as of recent conflicts, it is believed that the majority of war casualties are civilians and that "such a conclusion has sometimes led to the assumptions that women are victimized by war to a greater extent than men, because the majority of adult civilians are women, and when the populations of civilian women and children are added together, they outnumber male combatants. According to *Pankhurst* (2015), in the post-war context women

survivors generally outnumber men and so it is often said that women as a group bear a greater burden for post-war recovery.

Women are often victims of [violence](#) and conflict: they form the majority of civilian deaths; the majority of refugees; and, are often the victims of cruel and degrading practices, such as rape. Women's security is also threatened by unequal access to resources, services and opportunities. The UN *High Commissioner Office (2017)* special report on Violence Against Women observed that by 1995 the problem of violence against women was not just a social one, but requires evaluation of the political institutions which uphold unequal system of domination.

Similarly, rights of women are neglected especially in the Middle East and Southeast Asian regions where customary practices are still prevalent. Although there are different opinions on the issue of customary practices, it infringes upon human security's notion where women and men are distinctive with equal human rights. Attempts to eradicate such violent customary practices requires political and legal approaches where human security in relation to gender should be brought up as the main source of assertion. Such cruel customary practices as honour killing, burning brides and widows, child marriage are still in existence because of women's vulnerability in economic independence and security. Human security in relationship to gender tries to overthrow such traditional practices that are incompatible to the rights of women. Also human security seeks to empower women, through education, participation and access, as gender equality is seen as a necessary precondition for peace, security and a prosperous society (Haq, 1999).

3.3.2 Forms of Threats to Human Security in Relations to Gender

During times of conflict, certain varieties of masculinity come to be celebrated by the states, and these varieties of behaviours can influence how a population's combatants come to behave, or are expected to behave during crises. These behaviours range from acting aggressively and exemplifying hyper-masculine behaviours, to playing upon the rise of "nationalist or ethnic consciousness" to secure "political support for the cause and to undermine "the Other." Overtly militaristic societies have utilized rape and other sexually violent acts to further their gains within the context of war, but also by using such practices of violence as rewards to the male combatants. This tactic undermines the enemy's morale, as they are seen as "unable to protect their women," and as well stands as element of threat to human security in relations to women.

The concept of human security has developed out of the precepts put forth by the United Nations, wherein there has been critique of Human

Security's focus on what is deemed acceptable behaviours. Human security perspectives view practices such as child marriage and female genital mutilation as a threat to human (more specifically female) security and well-being. It is more common that these events occur predominately in the Global Southern states. Thus, it is seen by states with a traditional human security outlook, to see it as their duty to intervene and perpetuate this Eurocentric ideal of what human security looks like, and what is best to protect the familiar concept of women. This can be seen as an infringement on the traditional practices found within some sovereign states of the Global South, and a threat to ways of life and processes of development.



3.4 Summary

In the unit, we have seen that the form of violence against women are often overlooked because expressions of masculinity in contexts of war have become the norm. Thus, the UN developed out of the precepts of human security with focus on what is deemed acceptable behaviours. Human security and gender perspectives viewed practices such as child marriage and female genital mutilation as well as acting aggressively and exemplifying hyper-masculine behaviours as a threat to human (more specifically female) security and well-being. All these problems of violence against women require evaluation of the political institutions which uphold unequal system of domination.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Mention three (3) justifications for the security concerns of the women population?
2. identify and explain forms of human security threats in relations to gender?



3.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

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3.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Justifications for the security concerns of the women

- the serious neglect of gender concerns under the traditional security model
- casualties of war are majority civilian women and children who bear a greater burden for post-war recovery.
- Need to eradicate such violent customary practices against

Answers to SAEs 2

Human security threats towards gender

- acting aggressively to women
- exemplifying hyper-masculine behaviours
- child marriage
- female genital mutilation

UNIT 4 THE INTERNATIONAL LAW, POLITICAL OBLIGATIONS AND HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Learning Outcomes
- 4.3 Political obligations and Human Security
- 4.4 The International Law and Human Security
- 4.5 Summary
- 4.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 4.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



4.1 Introduction

In the previous unit you have learned about individual's threat to human security - a perspective of human security that addressed gender security concerns of both women and men equally. In this unit discussion on the political obligations and international legal framework to protect populations and provide them with the means of existence as well as intervene in cases when their security is in danger would be presented.



4.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- Identify and explain political obligations and responsibilities of actors in human security;
- identify international legal documents that support the conduct of human security; and
- discuss the impact of human security on the international law.

4.3 Political **obligations** and Human Security

In order to ensure the people's survival, livelihood and dignity, those in a position of power (the state and the international community) are responsible for both protecting and empowering them. With an expanded notion of human security there come some types of political obligation and responsibilities to actors and institutions of human security. The purpose of any actor or institution consists of their contribution to the well-being of the people, for it is the people who are, at least in theory, the source of their legitimacy. States, groups or individuals and the international community are the actors responsible for actions to ensure human security. First and foremost, the creation of the state is a means and not an end in itself; the end is the safety and the

welfare of people. Agents of the state are responsible for their actions; that is to say, they are accountable for their acts, both of commission and omission. Human security is not an alternative to state security for it is up to the state to establish the rule of law and maintain social cohesion; when these conditions are not met the situation becomes dangerous. Providing education and employment can break the vicious cycle which threatens many countries, a cycle of poverty linked to malnutrition, compounded by lack of family planning as well as by the risk of HIV infection. Adopting a human security framework as a policy orientation allows states to address basic human needs, reduce inequalities and provide social safety nets for people who are impoverished or whose lives are disrupted by sudden and severe economic crises.

The Second obligation to human security requires recognition of the role of people (groups, individuals and communities) in ensuring their own security. Human security as public good constitutes not only a responsibility for the state, but there is a complementary duty for the people themselves to become engaged in the process. It is the response of the people that will allow the state to assume its true role and achieve moral legitimacy. As the Commission on Human Security – CHS (2003) report puts it, “achieving Human Security includes not just protecting people but also empowering people to defend for themselves.” Human security is thus not simply the challenge of “protecting” and “providing” but involves fostering the empowerment of the people and their participation. If the state is to be entrusted with the responsibility to provide public goods, people have to play an active role in order to be in a position to hold it accountable. People are not passive recipients of “security”, or victims of its absence, but active subjects who can contribute directly to identifying and implementing solutions to security problems. Supporting people’s ability to act on their own behalf means providing education and information so that they can be aware of social obligations and take collective action.

The third aspect of political obligation to human security explains the role of the international community. For the international community, human development concerns are considered as “domestic” matters; the individual states have a responsibility to provide for the welfare of their citizens. However, as the menaces to the safety of people have become trans-national, responses need to involve multilateral cooperation. Human security has the added advantage of stipulating that if a state fails not only to protect its people from inter-state conflicts or civil strife, but fails as well to take care of their basic needs and to furnish opportunities for development, then the international community can act to limit the damage and circumscribe the danger. As a preventive measure, human security calls for a new modality of global cooperation

that falls just short of intervention. The residual responsibility that belongs to the international community should not be interpreted as an excuse for ad-hoc military interventions for “humanitarian” reasons. Rather it should encourage the global community of nations to become responsible for taking measures to prevent not only conflict, but also mass underdevelopment, hunger, disease, and environmental degradation, etc.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Identify and examine political obligations of actors in human security?

4.4 The International Law and Human Security

Having identified and examine responsibilities and political obligations of actors in human security, it should be noted that the essential elements of the framework of the obligation could not sufficiently be understood without considering the legal aspects of the human security – by analyzing international law from a human security perspective. That is to say the possible impact of human security on international law would be discussed in this section. It has rightly been observed that many, if not all, of the items on the ‘human security agenda’ – from the protection of civilians in armed conflict, children’s rights, the spread of small arms and light weapons, drug trafficking, terrorism, arms trade, transnational organized crime, poverty, infectious diseases, environmental degradation, internally displaced persons and more – have been addressed by international law through a variety of binding and non-binding legal instruments. Indeed, none of these threats is unknown to international law. One should not conclude, however, that the fact the international law deals with such threats means that it always approaches them in a way that fosters human security.

The concept of human security is concerned with the kind of security people seek in their everyday lives rather than with the security of abstract entities such as the state. It suggests that the individual human being is the ultimate beneficiary of security rather than the state, that the kind of security which really matters to the individual is a comprehensive security in everyone’s life, and that in order to achieve such security individuals must be both protected and empowered. In doing so, human security can connect with those elements of international law which implement a concern for individual human beings and groups into an otherwise state-centred legal system.

Human security is interested in the complexity and interlinkages of threats and risks – natural disasters, refugee flows, economic and

financial downturns, volatile food prices, human rights violations, armed conflicts and so on. It is viewed not only as a matter of state interest but rather as a common interest or common concern of the international community. To borrow from worldviews of Franklin D. Roosevelt, ideas of 'freedom from want' and 'freedom from fear' and, ultimately, from international human rights law in which these ideas have found their expression. Consequently, human security relies on human rights to give concrete meaning and normative substance to its propositions; therefore, international human rights law highly values the norms and values of human security. Similarly, human security can be anchored in international legal developments and may find support in existing norms in the Charter of the United Nations where it speaks of the UN's principal purpose of maintaining international peace and security as well as understands security as safety from the use of armed force between states. Human security challenges such a state-centred approach to security by shifting the focus towards the individual and by basing security on common values rather than singular interests. This vertical move from the state down to the individual means that any legal framework which provides security for abstract entities (the state or the nation) but ignores the security (i.e. the well-being, safety and dignity) of individual human beings misses the point: from a human security perspective, there is no secure state with insecure people living in it. While such an approach does not *per se* question the rights of states under international law nor does it down play the legitimate interest which states have in their security, it means that the intrinsic moral value of individual security is to be rated at least as high, or higher, than the instrumental value of the state. As a consequence, state security, together with the means to achieve it, need to be measured against the security of the individual as the ultimate beneficiary.

Human security acknowledges that the state, its structures and institutions are important means to protect individual security but argues that the existence of such structures and institutions is not a goal in itself nor is the fact that they are secured a sufficient benchmark for human security. Given that human security seems to suggest that security is a common concern or a kind of global public good the enjoyment of which is not limited but extends potentially to everyone, security becomes egalitarian and universalist in the sense that it pertains to all persons and not just to privileged sections of society. Such a cosmopolitan view of security finds its normative underpinning in international human rights law with its equally universal appeal. The predominance of state security in international law is, however, only one side of the coin. As far as the UN Charter is concerned, maintaining the stability and survival of a state-centred international order is indeed the overarching goal under the rubric of international peace and security. But while the preservation of territorial integrity, sovereign equality and

political independence, together with the principle of non-interference in internal matters (as laid down in Article 2 of the Charter) remain essential elements to achieve this goal, the Charter contains a second fundamental concept, namely the protection of human rights as contained in Article 1(3). The question which of these two principles should prevail when they clash was for long answered in favour of the principles of territorial integrity and non-intervention. Since the end of the Cold War, however, significant changes have led to a more complex and fragile balance of the two concepts. Human security can build on this second pillar of the Charter's understanding of security as it is ultimately geared towards protecting individuals from threats as well as to empower them to secure their own life and guarantee their livelihood. It thus resonates, in a modern fashion, with the twin concerns of the UN Charter: providing (international) stability and guaranteeing human rights. A human security approach means reading these two potentially conflicting purposes of the UN afresh and positioning them more firmly on the same level so that the ultimate goal of the UN to provide for a world in which both states and individuals are secure can stand out more clearly.

The UN Charter is not the only international document to rely on human security. Other (regional) legal regimes reflect human security, too. A basic commitment to a broad concept of human security has been identified, for example, in the Treaty of the European Union, where Article 21 lists as the Union's foreign policy objectives the preservation of peace, conflict prevention, strengthening international security, consolidation and support for democracy, rule of law, human rights and principles of international law. The Non-Aggression and Common Defence Pact of the African Union of 2005, to name another example, explicitly refers to human security. The Pact defines human security and relies on the concept to develop a framework under which the African Union may intervene or authorize intervention to prevent or address situations of aggression.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Identify and discuss three elements that explain the impact of human security on the international law?
2. Mention three international legal documents that support human security?



4.5 Summary

In the unit discussion on the political obligations and international legal framework to protect populations and provide them with the means of existence as well as intervene in cases when their security is in danger have been presented. States, groups or individuals and the international community were identified as actors responsible for ensuring human security. The UN Charter and other international legal documents and regional institutions reflect basic commitment to a broad concept of human security.



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4.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Political obligations of actors in human security

- states act by establishing the rule of law and maintenance of social cohesion
- international community act to limit the damage and circumscribe the transnational dangers
- people’s responses allow the state to assume its true role and achieve moral legitimacy

Answers to SAEs 2

1. elements that explain the impact of human security on the international law

- ideas of ‘freedom from want’ and ‘freedom from fear’
 - the well-being, safety and dignity of individual human beings
 - the protection of human rights
2. international legal documents that support human security
- the UN Charter for international stability and human rights
 - the Treaty of the European Union, where Article 21 lists as the Union’s foreign policy objectives
 - The Non-Aggression and Common Defence Pact of the African Union of 2005

UNIT 5 ROLES OF STATES AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Learning Outcomes
- 5.3 Human Security as a Foreign Policy Tool to National Governments
- 5.4 Roles of International Organizations in Human Security
- 5.5 Summary
- 5.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 5.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



5.1 Introduction

In the previous unit focus was on the political obligations and international legal framework to protect populations and provide them with the means of existence. This unit explores on the inherent problems concerning the adoption of the human security approach as a foreign policy tool. It discusses the roles of international global and regional organizations in the development and operation of human security.



5.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- highlight the relevance of adopting human security approach in the conduct of foreign policy; and
- examine the roles of international organizations in the development and operation of human security approach.

5.3 Human Security as a Foreign Policy Tool to National Governments

The reasons why some states have adopted human security as their foreign policy option, and other have not, are twofold. One factor is the dynamics of the state's domestic politics (as in the case of Canada), and another the desire by elite sectors of society to adopt the policy as a way to enhance the role of their country on the international scene. Human security as foreign policy is as an opportunity to draw attention to states with middle-power influence and status in the international arena. Yet, how can a people-centred approach to security be promoted by a state as a foreign policy without becoming an interest-based agenda used as a vehicle for furthering national power? As a foreign policy option it serves as a demonstration of a government's interest in the well-being of

people of other states, rather than its own. Ultimately, when human security is adopted as a government's diplomatic policy, and thus endorsed by the state, the paradigm is redefined so as to serve particular state-centred national interests. This has been the course taken by Canada and Norway for example, who have seen in the issue of human security an opportunity for "middle-power" states to gain greater independence vis-à-vis international institutions, greater influence in the United Nations, and increased credibility on the international stage, particularly (in the case of Canada and Japan) as regards the United States.

For Japan, contributions of approximately \$170 million to the Trust Fund for Human Security through the UN Secretariat has cemented its status as a primary donor to Overseas Development Assistance and reinforces the country as an economic power not only regionally but internationally.

Despite the relevance of human security in the conduct of external relations, there are two essential problems concerning its adoption as a foreign policy tool by national governments. One is the fact that human security seeks to establish "justice" and provide for the protection and safety of the individual; whilst it has raised some fears that in practice will lead to interventions that threaten state sovereignty. the second is the fact that it has been propounded as a doctrine that downplays the importance of state-centred security interests in the states that have adopted it as a foreign policy tool such as Canada, Norway and Japan; at the same time, it has largely been ignored as a domestic policy on development and human rights.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Identity and explain the relevance of adopting human security approach in the conduct of a state's foreign policy?

5.4 Roles of International Organizations in Human Security

The concept of human security has been adopted by a number of regional and international organizations. Chronologically, the world first inaugurated the idea of human security with the Global Human Development Report of the UNDP in 1994 and subsequently accentuated in the debate on the "responsibility to protect," spearheaded by the Canadian International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS), and in the discussions on the "responsibility for development" initiated by the Japanese Commission on Human Security (CHS), with the two governments – Canada and Japan – providing the necessary leadership and funding for including human security on the

global agenda. In the years 2004-2005, as the need to readjust to the new realities of the 21st century of mounting concerted, collective responses to new threats, human security was conceived and linked with development. It became a topic of reform agendas in the UN and in such regional organizations as the European Union.

From its inauguration as a concern to international development agencies, to its adoption as a foreign policy option by some countries, human security has become a framework for reforming global institutions such as *the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP)*. *The UNDP had taken the advantage of the end of Cold War and promote “secure” human development.* Much of literature on human security attributes the official “launching” of the concept in global politics to the UNDP *Human Development Report (HDR)* of 1994, which treated it as an extension of the human development paradigm. For the 1994 HDR definition, human security, characterized as “freedom from fear and freedom from want”, had two aspects: first, protection from such chronic threats as hunger, disease and repression, and second, protection from sudden, harmful upheavals of daily existence, touching on housing, employment and community life (Tadjbakhsh, 2005: 12).

Similarly, the United Nations reconsidered collective security and the relevance of human security to peace-building mandates. The UN adopted human security in the 1992 *Agenda for Peace*, proposed by Boutros Boutros Ghali, which stressed the indispensable role of the UN “in an integrated approach to human security” as one of the new requisites in peace-making, peacekeeping and post-conflict management. The adoption of a human security agenda by the UN stemmed from a recognition of the failure of its peacekeeping efforts and its desire to compensate for these failures by involving the UN in a more global forum where NGOs could dialogue with, or exert pressure on, governments in order to implement more feasible development agenda (Tadjbakhsh, 2005: 13). The Commission on Human Security (CHS), co-chaired by Sadako Ogata, former head of UNHCR, and Noble Prize laureate Amartya Sen was created by the Japanese Government in 2001 in an attempt to examine new responsibilities with a focus on communities and states in the process of development. In one of its reports, the Commission defined human security as the necessity to protect vital freedoms by building on people’s strengths and aspirations (Sen’s approach to “capabilities”), and by protecting them from hostile incursions and disruptions (Ogata’s approach).

The CHS Report stressed twin strategies – empowerment and protection. Empowerment would enable people to develop their full potential and become active participants in decision-making. Protection

would shield people from danger by a concerted effort to set up institutions that would address the problems of insecurity and establish norms for law-abiding existence. The Commission's report became the backbone of the largest trust fund in the history of the UN, established by the Japanese government to finance human security projects.

It provided impetus for coordinated action among UN agencies and civil society organizations in advocating alternative concepts of security. Ultimately, it gave the Japanese government a leading role in lobbying for alternative modalities of power distribution in the UN Security Council.

Some regional organizations had also included human security as a part of their regional agenda such as the European Union and the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN). A group of experts from LSE proposed Human security as a foreign security policy for the EU by and presented *The Human Security Doctrine for Europe* to Javier Solana in September 2004 at the Barcelona Forum. In the mid-1980s, the ASEAN for the South-East Asian countries developed human security on the basis of the Japanese *sogo anzen hoshō* that considered the states and their ruling regimes as the source of political stability, economic development and social harmony. In addition, the ASEAN Regional Forum (ARF) sought to build mutual confidence and trust regarding military policy among its 23 members that included countries in the broader Pacific sphere. The inter-connectedness of the regional economies was tested by the Asian financial crisis of 1997, which had deep-seated impact on the people of Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines leading to increased poverty, inflation, and unemployment. The crisis sparked debate and discussion concerning a human security approach that would recognize and protect human rights while at the same time meeting people's basic needs. The debate was spearheaded by Thailand, which proposed a common approach to problems shared by all, problems such as HIV/AIDS and poverty, which could have disturbing effects on the entire region.

Despite commitments to new approaches designed to combine security issues with development, it is likely that these regional organizations will continue to concentrate primarily on state (or regime) security rather than on human security. It remains to be seen how the ASEAN, and the EU will manage this tension and how they will evolve.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Identify three global international organizations and highlight their roles in the development of human security?



5.5 Summary

In the unit, inherent problems and importance of adopting human security approach as a foreign policy tool was discussed. One of the importance of adopting the approach as a too for foreign policy suggested human security as an interest-based agenda used as a vehicle for furthering national power. It discussed the roles of international global and regional organizations in the development and operation of human security. Thus, The UN adopted human security in the 1992 Agenda for Peace, that stressed the indispensable role of the UN “in an integrated approach to human security.”



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5.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Relevance of adopting human security as a tool to foreign policy

- a way to enhance the role of their country on the international scene
- an opportunity to draw attention to states with middle-power influence and status in the international arena
- an interest-based agenda used as a vehicle for furthering national power
- a demonstration of a government's interest in the well-being of people of other states

Answers to SAEs 2

The global international organizations and their roles to the development of human security

- *the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) in its Human Development Report (HDR) of 1994 inaugurated the idea of human security*
- the Canadian International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS) accentuated the debate of “responsibility to protect.”
- The UN adopted human security in the 1992 *Agenda for Peace*, that stressed the indispensable role of the UN “in an integrated approach to human security”
- The CHS Report 2001 stressed twin strategies – empowerment and protection

MODULE 3 HUMAN SECURITY, DEVELOPMENT AND OTHER POLICY FRAMEWORKS

Introduction

In module two (2) you have learned about the impact of gender and international law on human security. Political obligations and legal framework of responsibility as well actors, factors and roles of states and international organization has also been discussed. This module would highlight the impact of some policy frameworks, socio-economic, and other aspect of development to human security such as human rights and development assistance. The module would be presented under five thematic units as follows:

- | | |
|--------|---|
| Unit 1 | The Elements of Human Security |
| Unit 2 | Human Security and other Policy Frameworks |
| Unit 3 | Human Rights and Human Security |
| Unit 4 | Human Security and Development Assistance |
| Unit 5 | The Formulation of a Human Security Index (HIS) |

UNIT 1 THE ELEMENTS OF HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 The Elements of Human Security
 - 1.3.1 Consensus Building
 - 1.3.2 Defining a Threat to Human Security
 - 1.3.3 Multidimensional Human Security
 - 1.3.4 Critical and Pervasive Threats
- 1.4 Summary
- 1.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 1.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



1.1 Introduction

In Module 1 and 2 there was efforts identifying and explaining types and components of human security in relations to the nature of threat and the areas of threat such as environment, economy, political and individual threats especially the human security model that addressed gender concerns of both women and men. This unit will give an account of how elements of human security can be coherently identified based on the activities and underlying process that are undertaken by institutions on a working definition that human security is to safeguard the vital core of

all human lives from critical pervasive threats, without impeding long-term human fulfilment.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- Identify elements of human security based on some underlying process.
- Discuss ‘consensus building and critical and pervasive threats as the core elements of human security.

1.3 The Elements of Human Security

The elements of human security will differ radically depending on the expertise, size, and capacity of the implementing institution, as well as on the activities that are being effectively undertaken by other institutions in the context. However, the elements of human security can coherently be identified based on a working definition that explain the objectives of human security of safeguarding the vital core of all human lives from critical pervasive threats, without impeding long-term human fulfilment. Therefore, the elements will be discussed under four topical concerns – consensus building, definition of a threat, multidimensional human security and critical and pervasive threats.

1.3.1 Consensus Building

One logical possibility is that consensus among the concerned institutions is one the appealing elements of human security. Thus, any adequate human security operation will involve the consensus and cooperation of diverse institutions. Most approaches to addressing destitution whether of refugee populations or of poor communities have included food security, for example. The human rights conventions on the one hand, and the international development targets on the other, represent the possibilities of reaching some “overlapping consensus”. Sen (1985) observed that some functions are very elementary, such as being adequately nourished, being in good health, etc., but all these may be strongly valued by all, for obvious reasons.

Equally, universal agreement seems less plausible: some may think all who do not hold a particular set of religious beliefs to be “existentially insecure” and those who believe them to be “flourishing,” regardless of their material state, for example. The history of human rights in practice illustrates that the existence of a formal international accord is not equivalent to actual international accord; the human rights debate continues within and among nations that have ratified various

documents. Certainly consensus is an insufficient foundation for human security, although clearly consensus-building will in practice be an integral part of the human security process.

1.3.2 Defining a Threat to Human Security

Another way to conceptualize human security is to identify the threats for which responses must be developed. In this view, the elements of human security would be itemised as threats of recession, of aggression, of soil degradation, of pollution, of terrorism, and others that were of sufficient magnitude to qualify as security threats. In fact, it is precisely this very fruitful and necessary exercise that catalyzed the broadening of the state security agenda. Ullman's (1998) influential article, "Redefining Security," began by defining a threat to national security as an action or sequence of events that:

1. threatens drastically and over a relatively brief span of time to degrade the quality of life for the inhabitants of a state, or
2. threatens significantly to narrow the range of policy choices available to the government of a state or to private, nongovernmental entities (persons, groups, corporations) within the state.

Ullman argued that in addition to military threats, events such as population growth, urbanization, and migration should be considered as new security threats because they fit the definition. The focus on threats is *almost* a sufficient conceptual basis for human security, but it leaves unspecified a key area: the fundamental grounds by which threats are identified. So a threat-identification exercise, although a central part of human security, is likewise an insufficient foundation for it might naturally switch the back to the "vital core" and ask the kinds of impacts on human lives would be sufficiently grave to justify action.

The term "vital core" is not meant to be precise; it suggests a minimal or basic or fundamental set of functions related to survival, livelihood and dignity. The term "vital core" implies that the institutions that undertake to protect human security will not be able to protect every aspect of human well-being, but at very least they will protect this core. While the identification of what is vital can and will be informed by medical or psychological research, as well as by consensus and awareness of threats, human security gains coherence when it specifies carefully what it is trying to protect.

1.3.3 Multidimensional Human Security

A conceptual framework that does not have room to recognize multiple intrinsic values is in some way incomplete. However, many people's instinctive response to broadening the objective, whether it be of national security or of economic development, is one of mistrust or anxiety. Their anxiety does not arise from the *accuracy* of the objective. Rather, they worry that broadening the objective deeply compromises its *feasibility*. If the door is cracked, then many competing demands will come rushing in, and these demands will change continuously, as will people's own values. In such circumstances not only will decision-making be agonizing; it will also be very difficult to run a program with the kind of power and effectiveness that characterizes some national security initiatives and that must likewise characterize human security initiatives if they are to be worthwhile. Multidimensional human security should also identify concrete priorities within certain time periods – e.g. that Country X's development cooperation in 2004-2008 will be primarily concerned with Y, or that its national security strategy will focus on Z; thus, policy should be reviewed regularly.

1.3.4 Critical and Pervasive Threats

The objective of human security is to protect the vital core of people's lives from critical and pervasive threats. So a further step is to identify critical and pervasive threats to the vital core of people's lives, and to identify key response mechanisms. In other words, we must sift the vast series of adverse events in human life to determine which are unacceptable, or are "threats" to human security, and which are merely bad news. The catalogue of threats to human security is often recited at length, as a means to motivate listeners as to the importance of the issues at hand. However, a simple litany of threats offers very little strategic information. However, useful distinctions in risk and threat analysis – direct vs. indirect threats, and idiosyncratic vs. covariant risks is relevant.

Direct security threats are deliberately or intentionally caused by one group or another, whether these be terrorists, states, rebel factions, or paramilitary groups. Organs of the state may themselves threaten human security, such as police forces that violate human rights by beating or torturing prisoners. Indirect or structural threats are actions by groups or systems or institutions whose threat to human security is a by-product of an action taken for a different primary purpose. Examples abound: an economic crisis may cause a large proportion of the population to experience deprivation; mining or forestry policy may have dark environmental consequences that erode communities' subsistence; favouritism by political leaders may generate destabilizing horizontal

inequalities or social exclusion; negligence in effective demobilization of soldiers may cause a rise in violent crime; the vigorous marketing of small arms by manufacturers may destabilize a region.

Another set of useful terms for locating the appropriate institutional response to threats is the distinction between idiosyncratic and covariant risks. Idiosyncratic risks affect individuals or households: a debilitating illness or injury of key adults in the household; the loss of property from crime or an accident. Covariant risks affect groups – whether small groups such as communities (micro), or large regional or national groups (macro). Examples of micro risks are riots, landslides, harvest failure, or deforestation. Examples of macro risks are coup d'états, hyperinflation, terms of trade shock, civil strife, war, earthquakes.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Identify and discuss three (3) elements of human security based on the activities and underlying process of institutions?



1.3 Summary

In the unit, elements of human security based on the activities that are being effectively undertaken by institutions in the context are discussed. Elements of topical concerns – consensus building, definition of a threat, multidimensional human security and critical and pervasive threats were identified and explained. It was also learned that the vital core of human security are subset of human capabilities that people judge should be protected even in times of turmoil or want; the capabilities relate to survival, livelihood, and dignity.



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1.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Elements of human security based on the activities and underlying process of institutions

- consensus building
- definition of a threat,
- multidimensional human security
- critical and pervasive threats

UNIT 2 HUMAN SECURITY AND OTHER POLICY FRAMEWORKS

Unit Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Learning Outcomes
- 2.3 Human Security and other Policy Frameworks
- 2.4 Human Security and State Security
- 2.5 Summary
- 2.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 2.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



2.1 Introduction

In the previous unit an account of how elements of human security can be coherently identified based on the activities and underlying process of institutions was presented. In this unit discusses the relationship between human security and other security policy frameworks such as state, individual fundamental rights and development policies.



2.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- Identify and discuss non-conceptual approaches of distinguishing human security with other policy frameworks;
- Examine the relationship between state security and human security.

2.3 Human Security and other Policy Frameworks

The concept of human security has been overpopulated with areas already adequately addressed by state security, human development, and human rights policies. Of course, there are interrelationships between all of these initiatives; however, each of these three can be situated within the concept of human security.

Three non-conceptual ways can be used to distinguish the three – disciplinary historical, and institutional. For example, whereas human development tends to be undertaken by activists and social scientists, and human rights by activists and lawyers and political scientists, state

security studies described practitioners and scholars of defence and strategic studies, intelligence, and international relations.

The disciplines that predominate in any of the areas shape the expertise and method of scholarship devoted to an area. Furthermore, the instruments and institutions that support each agenda differ: human development involves nongovernmental development organizations, sector-specific agencies in governments, overseas development assistance. Human rights mobilize the international legal framework, UN Conventions, human rights organizations and legal instruments. State security mobilizes foreign policy, military expenditures, and defense and intelligence departments. These distinctions are key, and indeed one of the distinctions of human security from each of the other three approaches will be the unique blend of disciplines and institutions it engages.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Mention and discuss three non-conceptual ways of distinguishing human security with other policy frameworks?

2.4 Human Security and State Security

It is quite important to explain the relationship between human security and state security. One key reason is that the United Nations' "existing organizational mandates and mechanisms draw heavily from state security assumptions." Another key reason is that collaboration with state security forces would be essential to human security at the national level. It is important to note that the broadening scope of state security has also been reflected in the emergence of terms such as "common," and "collective" and "global" to modify "security." *Common Security* was defined by the Common Security Forum as "inclusive of but extending beyond the human dimensions of military conflict – incorporating health and population dimensions of political, ethnic, economic and environmental security as well." *Collective Security*, such as is envisaged in the United Nations Charter, "refers to a system in which each state in the system accepts that the security of one is the concern of all, and agrees to join in a collective response to aggression." The Commission on Global Governance likewise argues that "*Global security* must be broadened from its traditional focus on the security of states to include the security of people and the planet."

There are also key differences between state and human security. One of the key differences between state security and human security is the populations under consideration. State agencies by definition have a different responsibility to the citizenry than they do to international

populations at large. The case for responsibility for non-citizens must be made to state entities (as well as to individuals and groups within states), and it matters how it is made. Second, state security has at least one additional objective that is distinct from human security. For a characteristic aim of foreign policy in the realist theory, which is also a *de facto* aim in many nations, is to *maximize* the state's power.

Thus, national security is also substantially concerned with the relative distribution of power between states, and with territorial integrity. That concern is legitimate and lively worldwide. However, it is not part of the human security agenda. A core edge of disagreement between human security and state security comes clearly with the debate about intervention and “responsible sovereignty.”

In summary, human security proponents too rarely engage the various schools of security studies. For example, the realist and neo-realist schools of security studies clearly articulate their objectives as well as their postulates or simplifying assumptions (for example regarding motivation). Thus far human security literature has focused nearly exclusively on articulating the “objective,” or agenda; it has not delved into questions of motivation, or of simplifying assumptions, or of the economic competition that will proceed simultaneously between actors who may be cooperating in human security matters.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

- | | |
|----|--|
| 1. | Differentiate between state security and its interrelated terms? |
| 2. | Examine the differences between State security and human security? |



2.5 Summary

In the unit, three non-conceptual approaches were used to distinguish between human security and other security frameworks – disciplinary historical, and institutional. It has been explained that whereas human development tends to be undertaken by activists and social scientists, and human rights by activists and lawyers and political scientists, state security studies described practitioners and scholars of defence and strategic studies, intelligence, and international relations. It was also argued that human security literature mainly focused nearly exclusively on articulating the “objective,” or agenda of security studies; it has not delved into questions of motivation, or of simplifying assumptions, or of the economic competition that will proceed simultaneously between actors



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2.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Ways of distinguishing human security with other policy frameworks

- disciplinary approach
- historical approach
- institutional approach

Answers to SAEs 2

1. State security and its interrelated terms
 - Common security
 - Collective security
 - Global security
2. Key differences between state and human security
 - consideration of populations and responsibility for non-citizens
 - additional objective on intervention and responsible sovereignty.
 - schools of thought for security studies

UNIT 3 HUMAN RIGHTS AND HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Learning Outcomes
- 3.3 The Definition and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- 3.4 The Connections between Human Security and Human Rights
- 3.5 Summary
- 3.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 3.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



3.1 Introduction

In the previous unit we discussed the relationship between human security and other security policy frameworks such as state, individual fundamental rights and development policies. This unit will focus on the definition and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the UN General Assembly in 1948 and impact of the declaration to human security.



3.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- State documents and conventions that advocated protection of the rights of human beings;
- identify and discuss areas that connect human rights and human security.

3.3 The Definition and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Human rights have become a widely accepted normative concept for international relations and foreign policy. The central characterizing insight of human rights – that certain ‘rights’ inhere in human beings – is not recent idea. For example, writings of Spanish Dominican Fray Francesco de Vitoria on the plight of American Indians under early 16th century colonial rule argued – against staunch opposition – that Indians and Spaniards were equally human beings: “characteristic differences [of custom and manner] in no way destroy or debilitate the essential unity of the human species ...” The universality and moral force of human rights were likewise argued by Hugo Grotius during Europe’s

Thirty-Years War in the early 17th century and was embodied in France's 1789 declaration on the rights of man. Other regions have other histories of human rights. Yet human rights have become considerably more powerful and uniformly acknowledged since World War two. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1948, and began to sketch international human rights norms. Human rights norms have been further specified in many conventions. The overall effect of these human rights instruments has been to introduce and normalize human rights considerations in foreign policy. Notwithstanding objections from some leaders who doubt the universality of human rights, public challenges to human rights more often address 'which rights' merit emphasis, and not whether concerns for human rights are ever applicable.

3.4 Human Security and Human Rights

Human security and human rights are deeply interconnected in motivation and some areas of concern. Evidently, part of the project of the human rights community has been to build consensus and public awareness around a set of universal and fundamental human rights that are argued to hold even when they are not in fact respected by state authorities or others. Human rights conventions enable persons to pinpoint a perceived shortfall in justice, and also to argue that the 'rights-violation' has been widely recognized as being unacceptable. Human security on the other hand addresses a set of rights or freedoms that it is unacceptable to ignore. While human security may be instrumentally useful to countries in other ways; one of the motivational forces for human security is that it addresses the most basic and universal of human rights.

Similarly, human security and human rights address both violence and poverty; their subject matter is complex. The international bill of human rights includes basic needs such as work, education, food, self-determination, and healthcare. The same bill of human rights prohibits torture, slavery, persecution on religious or racial ground, and direct killing, and another Convention prohibits genocide. The identification protection and promotion of central facets of human lives from the 'freedom from fear' and 'freedom from want' is the aim of human security as well as human rights.

A further relationship between human security and human rights concerns issues of duty or obligation. Governments and other institutions do claim to have a duty or obligation to respect human rights. Human rights advocacy is a coherent undertaking precisely because any rights violation *obliges* others to act. On the face of it, the term "human security" might give the impression that it is not as tightly

coupled with duties. This impression may have to do in part with the connotation of human security as an extension of national security that is, to some extent, voluntarily specified and undertaken by a concerned government. In contrast, the thrust of human rights is *always* on the correlative duties of other parties. But if human security is to provide a common platform for national and international and local groups to coordinate their efforts, then human security must also oblige: if the national government is dysfunctional and the local groups are in chaos, then some international group has the responsibility to protect the vital core of the population. In this sense, if human security concerns are “hitched onto the human rights vocabulary” they are enriched by the automatic sense of moral obligation. Thus to some extent human rights provides a more basic framework of universal obligations; human security refers quite pointedly to a certain cross section of such obligations.

A final and not uncontroversial observation is needed regarding the *indivisibility* of human rights. The human rights approach defends the incommensurable value of a list of human rights, which include freedom from torture and genocide, and the right for a woman to take paid leave after childbirth. The human security approach necessarily addresses concrete security threats and human rights threats individually or in smaller groupings. Probably the most significant divergences between human security and human rights are, however, not conceptual. The differences lie in the instruments and institutions that will implement human security. For example, human rights activists generally have used legal instruments to prevent human rights abuses, or to punish transgressors; human security will use economic, political, and perhaps military forces and try to realize human security with the same force and decisiveness that characterizes national security efforts.

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Mention documents and conventions that fight against violation of the fundamental rights of human beings?
2. Outline the areas common concern between human rights and human security?



3.5 Summary

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1948, and began to sketch international human rights norms. Human rights norms have been further specified in many conventions. Human security and human rights are deeply

interconnected; thus, human security has been instrumentally useful to the defense of the incommensurable values of human rights. In other words; one of the motivational forces for human security is that it addresses the most basic and universal principles of human rights such as addressing the problems of violence and poverty as well as the concerns on issues of duty or obligation to the dignity of individual person.



3.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

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3.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Documents and Conventions on human rights
 - Writings of Fray Francesco de Vitoria on the plight of American Indians in the early 16th century
 - The universality and moral force of human rights by Hugo Grotius in the early 17th century
 - The France's 1789 declaration on the rights of man
 - The Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the UN General Assembly in 1948
2. Areas common concern between human rights and human security
 - Values and norms on rights such as freedom from torture and genocide and the right for a woman
 - basic and universal principles
 - concrete security threats
 - duties or obligations

UNIT 4 HUMA SECURITY AND DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE

Unit Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Learning Outcomes
- 4.3 Development Approach to Human Security
- 4.4 Human Security and Development Assistance
- 4.5 Summary
- 4.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 4.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



4.1 Introduction

The previous unit focused on the identification of documents and conventions that protect the rights of human persons. Particularly, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the UN General Assembly in 1948 and its impact on human security was discussed. In this unit, you would learn about goals and basic assumptions of development approaches to human security. Similarly, the role of human security approach to international development assistance as well as the impact of the assistance to both relief-oriented and developmental goals would be highlighted.



4.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- identify the goals and basic assumptions of development approach;
- examine the impact of development approach to human security;
- identify and discuss roles of human security approach to international development assistance
- identify and analyse the impact of development assistance to human security orientations and developmental goals.

4.3 Development Approach to Human Security

The development approach to human security emerged in the 1990s with Haq, Mahbub ul as one of the leading advocates. The approach building on a series of previous reactions against the dominant paradigm of economic development, which took economic growth maximization as its objective. Growth, it was argued, was insufficient as an objective, since aggregate growth could be realized alongside less desirable states

such as wrenching deprivation among the poor, political oppression, or environmental degradation. The route of alternatives to economic growth as the standard bearer of development has a forceful history of more than thirty years. For example, Dudley Seers announced the overthrow of GNP per capita as a measure of development in 1970. Hollis Chenery *et al.* emphasized the need for *redistribution with growth*, or growth with equity, accomplished by increasing the productivity of the poor. The *basic needs approach* arose subsequently, which endeavored to provide a minimally decent life to the poor, where constituents of this minimally decent life included health, housing, literacy, work, and so on.

The goals of development, which evolved out of the basic human needs approach, were general and could apply to any country, regardless of where it lay on the spectrum of wealth or poverty, of crime or stability, of peace or war. Human development clearly holds that socioeconomic policies should focus on people and their well-being as the final objective, rather than focusing on economic growth or any other state of affairs as ends in themselves. While the Human Development Index, which is a well-known by-product of this approach, explicitly includes health and education as well as income, the human development approach is not limited to these sectors but rather focuses on human choice and freedom *per se*. “Human development is a process of enlarging people’s choices. Enlarging people’s choices is achieved by expanding human capabilities and functions.”

The change from development aimed at relieving material poverty and providing for basic needs to development aimed at “giving people choices” also came about in response of the impetus to highlight the importance of dignity, esteem and other non-material aspects of life. “Contrary to Maslow’s theory of a hierarchy of wants, even people who are deprived of very basic physiological needs do consume non-basic goods and services.” Indeed, some nonmaterial values (such as cultural practice or identity) seem at times to displace basic needs (such as housing) altogether.

In practice, work inspired by the human development approach has been undertaken both at the policy level and at the level of the community, by NGOs, by UN agencies, by academics, and by other development institutions. The ‘content’ of the human development approach – its multidimensionality and its focus on choice-giving – is however not always referred to as human development. The World Bank terms its multidimensional and participatory work poverty reduction or empowerment (the term human development refers, within that institution, to activities in the sectors of health and education).

Self-Assessment Exercises 1

1. Outline the basic assumptions of development approach?

4.4 Human Security and Development Assistance

Within the community of donors, the growing interest in the relationships between security and development has led to a renewed concept of development assistance as a means of conflict prevention the human security is focused on the intended beneficiaries of international assistance – the people. Human security provides the framework which both the positive and the negative impact of development assistance affects international repercussions. Canada was the first state to embrace human security as a guiding focus for development and peace-building activities, and it has prioritized the promotion of human security in the post-Cold-War period as part of its active international involvement. Therefore, the Canadian conceptualization of human security is closely associated with crisis prevention and conflict-management tools. In addition, Canada has emphasized the humanitarian aspect of its foreign relations. It was against this backdrop that the Canadian government observed in relations to human security as follows:

The narrowing of focus was in part due to the constraints of a new regime of fiscal austerity with significant budget cuts in the related fields of foreign affairs, official development assistance (ODA), and the military in the 1990s and 2000s. While the number of missions abroad grew during that period, the percentage of Canadian development aid has been cut from 0.46 percent at the beginning of the 1990s to 0.24 percent of the national budget in 2002 and 2003. In addition, the military budget, which is needed to train and deploy peacekeepers, decreased by 23 percent between 1993 and 1998. It seems, therefore, that to an extent Canada has made a virtue out of necessity.

For Canada the concept of human security has increasingly centered on the human costs of violent conflict. Two policy initiatives reflect Canada's rethinking on human security: the Convention on the Prohibition of the Use, Stockpiling, Production and Transfer of Anti-Personal Landmines (Ottawa Convention) and the creation of the International Criminal Court. In addition to these legal frameworks, Canada sought to institutionalize and multilateralize the human security agenda by creating the Human Security Network (HSN), which is a coalition of like-minded governments interested in promoting people-centered human security strategies in foreign policy.

In contrast with Canada, Japan broadly defined human security embracing both freedom from fear and freedom from want. Given

internal and external structural constraints on the use of force, ODA and other forms of international assistance, including foreign direct investment and loans can, however, be seen not only as an area of autonomous Japanese foreign policy formation, but even as an alternative form of security policy formation. The concept of human security first appeared in *Japan's Diplomatic Bluebook* in 1999. It defined human security as all aspects “that threaten human survival, daily life and dignity and strengthens efforts to confront these threats.” In addition, *Japan's ODA Annual Report 1999*, which was renamed in 2001 as *Japan's ODA White Paper*, contained a section on “Human Security and ODA” which referred to human security as “a policy idea, which Japan is conveying to the international community as one of the essential principles for the conduct of Japanese foreign policy in the twenty-first century.” From 2003 the concept was prioritized in Japan's ODA policy through the revision of the ODA charter. The revised ODA charter begins by stating that the “objectives of Japan's ODA are to contribute to the peace and development of the international community and thereby to help ensure Japan's own security and prosperity.” The document then proceeds to explain that human security is one of the “basic policies” of ODA and the first “priority issue.” The document clearly states that Japan will implement ODA to protect and empower people.

Self-Assessment Exercises 2

1. Contrast between Canada's development assistance policies in relation to human security with that of Japan?



4.5 Summary

In summary, the development approach to human security emerged and evolved out of the basic human needs as well as a reaction against the dominant paradigm of economic development, which took economic growth maximization as its objective. The differences in understanding the role of human security and development assistance are rooted in divergent historical experiences affecting policy-making and implementation of countries. For instance, Canada has emphasized the freedom from pervasive threats, such as physical violence in conflicts and the protection of people's rights, safety and lives. It calls for the international community to address these issues and defend human security objectives through coercive measures, including sanctions and even military force if necessary. Japan, however, has associated its development policies, with the pursuit of human security. Japan's economic development aid policies, manifested in the development

assistance, traditionally incorporated both aspects of freedom from fear and freedom from want.



4.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

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4.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Basic assumptions of development approach

- took economic growth maximization as its objective
- the overthrow of GNP per capita as a measure of development
- growth with equity, accomplished by increasing the productivity of the poor
- relieving material poverty and providing for basic needs to development

Answers to SAEs 2

- the Canadian conceptualization of human security is closely associated with crisis prevention and conflict-management tools
- For Canada the concept of human security centered on the human costs of violent conflict.
- Japan defined human security as all aspects “that threaten human survival, daily life and dignity and strengthens efforts to confront these threats.”
- objectives of Japan’s ODA are to contribute to the peace and development of the international community and thereby to help ensure Japan’s own security and prosperity.”

UNIT 5 THE FORMULATION OF A HUMAN SECURITY INDEX (HSI)

Unit Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Learning Outcomes
- 5.3 The Formulation of a Human Security Index (HSI)
- 5.4 The HSI Conceptual Framework and other Development Index
- 5.5 Summary
- 5.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 5.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



5.1 Introduction

In this previous unit, you have learned about the goals and basic assumptions of development approaches to human security. Similarly, the role of human security approach to international development assistance as well as the impact of the assistance to both relief-oriented and developmental goals were discussed. In this unit you would learn about the requirements for the formulation, aims and components of human security index. The unit will also analyze the advantage of human security index over other indexes of global development.



5.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- outline the requirements for the formulation of human security index;
- mention the aims and components of human security index; and
- analyse the advantage of human security index over other indexes of global development.

5.3 Formulation of Human Security Index

A central challenge in the measurement of human security is the method to be adopted for a measure stays true to the broad nature of human security. that is to say the measurement should not leave out any serious threat harming individuals in addition to limiting or refining the included threats to a manageable and measurable list. however, the usual

requirements of providing more reliable data in an efficient and timely manner, advancing the policy relevance of human security measures requires addressing two fundamental limitations associated with other approaches to the measurement of human development. the method of human security measurement - a human security index must:

- move away from a standardized set of input indicators to a set which focuses only on those threats which are of critical importance in a specific region or nation, and
- re-orient the scale to the sub-national level to capture and monitor locally dispersed threats to human security.

The Human Security Index (HSI) aims to characterize the security of an individual or group at home, in one's village, country, and the globe. It also aims to support existing and future developers of well-intentioned indicators which may be used by development analysts/strategists/implementers, by emphasizing outcomes rather than modalities. HIS combines highly different datasets and researchers were challenged to be able to provide a robust identification of long-term generic risk factors for violence, rather than an explanation of why specific conflicts happened (Human Security Centre, 2003). The need for extra analytical purchase on observed data becomes a recurring theme in the attempt to do justice to the ambitions of human security in capturing both objective (in)security and the subjectivity of the human factor. For example, in a case of civil war datasets, a human security index approach suggested that account should be taken on the obvious manifestations of danger such as battle deaths, and in addition collateral effects such as illness, famine, physical and material insecurity. Human security researchers also sought to highlight elements of desirable well-being, such as access to education, participation in democratic processes and so on, beyond elements of freedom from fear (King and Murray 2001: 601).

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Mention two (2) aims of human security index?
2. State (2) requirements of formulating human security index?

5.4 The HSI Conceptual Framework and other Development Index

The HSI is formulated around three component indices, Economic, Environmental, and Social Fabric Indices. The Economic Fabric Index attempts to characterize financial resources, including protection from financial catastrophe, for everyone. The Environmental Fabric Index

blends risk of environmental disasters, environmentally healthy living conditions, environmental sustainability and governance. The Social Fabric Index blends diversity, education and information empowerment, food security, governance, health, and peacefulness. All this is a work-in-progress, with additional input datasets being evolved.

The application of the human security framework in national settings has already proven its analytical value. This is illustrated by an introduction of a concept of ‘securitability’ in the National Human Development Report (NHDR) in Latvia, including a range of other novel insights into people’s perceived vulnerabilities as in the NHDR in Afghanistan, Bangladesh and Macedonia. Whichever model or framework of measuring insecurity is adopted, there are difficulties in obtaining relevant data. Many indicators that could be considered appropriate are particularly vulnerable to being reported in inaccurate, inconsistent or biased ways. Aggregation into composite indexes raises problems which include underspecifying with too few indicators, assigning inaccurate relative weighting to different variables, double counting and confusion about conceptual categories of indicators, and compounding individual measurement errors across the whole index. Initiatives such as the Human Development Index, Global Peace Index, Generalized Poverty Index and the Human Security Report attempt empirical measurement by taking pre-selected, theorized components of broad vulnerability.

A prototype Human Security Index released in 2008–9 draws together over 30 categories of data in a series of sub-indices on economic, social and environmental concerns. It tries to measure personal and community impacts by capturing effects such as hardship, vulnerability, empowerment and sustainability. On the other hand, the Global Peace Index assembles data on domestic and international conflict, and societal safety and security from 149 countries. It is composed of 23 qualitative and quantitative indicators, suggested by an international panel of experts, which reflect levels of military expenditure, relationships between states, human rights situations and so on. The GPI claims to deliver ‘a snapshot of relative peacefulness among nations while continuing to contribute to an understanding of what factors help create or sustain more peaceful societies’ (GPI 2010). The act of measurement which is integral to exercises such as the Human Development Index and the Generalized Poverty Index is problematic for human security in several ways: large-scale indices are predicated on the availability/collectability of data, as well as how successfully they lend themselves to data aggregation and comparability. They seek validation through the global reach of datasets, the number of countries covered as well as the depth of sub-thematic indices, which allows them to claim comprehensiveness and which allows for comparability across countries

and regions (GPI, 2010). Yet not only is measurement dependent on a pre-determined idea of what should be measured (Owen, 2008), most measures of insecurity do not explore hierarchies between different sub-indicators, although the statistical background to compiling them encompasses myriad decisions made at each point about the relative importance of the different components. In addition, measurement indices often ignore certain types of vulnerabilities/capabilities because they are not objective factors in as much as they have different meanings for different people, or because the data is simply not available (Tadjbakhsh 2005 :18). Large-scale indices pursue breadth at the expense of generating meaningful local data which can guide more targeted and therefore effective policy. They do not probe the complex hinterland of lived experiences of security at the individual and local level, by showing how plural sources of insecurity interact, the ingredients of violence, how it affects different people differently to what degree, or what the implications of it are on the social fabric of communities.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2

1. Identify and explain three (3) components of human security index?
2. Examine the advantage of Human Security Index over Global Peace index?



5.5 Summary

In this unit you have learned that requirements existed for the formulation of human security index, which its components include: economic, environmental and social fabric indexes. The unit also analyzed the advantage of human security index over other indexes of global development such as Global Peace Index, Human Development Index and Generalized Poverty Index and established that large-scale indices pursue breadth at the expense of generating meaningful local data which can guide more targeted and therefore effective policy.



5.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

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5.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Aims of HIS

- to characterize the security of an individual or group at home, in one's village, country, and the globe
- to support existing and future developers of well-intentioned indicators which may be used by development analysts/strategists/implementers, by emphasizing outcomes rather than modalities

Requirements of HIS

- move away from a standardized set of input indicators to a set which focuses only on those threats which are of critical importance in a specific region or nation, and
- re-orient the scale to the sub-national level to capture and monitor locally dispersed threats to human security.

Answers to SAEs 2

Components of HSI

- Economic Fabric Index attempts to characterize financial resources
- The Environmental Fabric Index blends risk of environmental disasters
- The Social Fabric Index blends diversity,

HIS advantage over GPI

- HIS measures personal and community impacts by capturing effects such as hardship, vulnerability, empowerment and sustainability.
- the Global Peace Index assembles data on domestic and international conflict, and societal safety and security from countries.
- GPI measurement indices often ignore certain types of vulnerabilities/capabilities because they are not objective factors in as much as they have different meanings for different people, or because the data is simply not available.

MODULE 4 CONCEPTS, IMPACT AND APPROACHES IN THE ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Introduction

In module three (3) you have learned about the impact of some policy frameworks, socio-economic, and other aspect of development to human security such as human rights and development assistance. In this module you would learn about concept, nature and approaches to social change. It would also examine the impact of Social Change to Human Security and Development The module would be presented under five thematic units as follows:

- Unit 1 Concept and Process of Social Change
- Unit 2 Identity Threat and Guiding principles of Social Change
- Unit 3 Approaches in the Analysis of Social Change
- Unit 4 Social Change and Human Security
- Unit 5 Social Change, Peace and Development

UNIT 1 CONCEPT AND PROCESS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Concept and Nature of Social Change
- 1.4 The Process of Social Change
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



1.1 Introduction

The previous module discussed the impact of some socio-economic policy frameworks to development and human security. In this unit, you would learn about the concept and process of social change, which comprises two processes – assimilation–accommodation and evaluation.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- Explain the concept and nature social change;
- examine the relevance of Identity Process Theory in the

understanding of social change; and

- identify and explain the process of social change.

1.3 Concept and Nature of Social Change

Despite the fact that the study of social change has begun to interest many social scientists, it remains largely understudied (Goodwin *et al.*, 2001). Because it is a difficult concept to grasp, both for the laymen and for social scientists, defining social change represents one of the biggest challenges in psychology, which explains why social change is currently understudied. To define the concept of social change, one needs to look at the social psychology of social change, which is described in a social psychological theory that does have social change as a central tenet – Identity Process Theory – IPT (Breakwell, 1993). This holistic theory synthesizes individual and group-level theories; it conceptualizes social change as fundamental to one’s psychological experience. By describing one’s identity as constantly changing and by detailing the psychological processes associated with this change. The IPT is one of the first and only theories to make change an essential, foundational component of one’s psychology. It also integrates both personal and group levels of analysis; it focuses primarily on “personal” social change, as opposed to “collective” social change. More so a social psychology of social change has the capacity to use research to attend to pressing social issues and to improve the well-being of all society members.

One particular kind of social change that has been best documented and described by sociologists, because of its considerable impact on individuals’ lives, is dramatic social change (Weinstein, 2010). Dramatic social change is defined as “profound societal transformations that produce a complete rupture in the equilibrium of social structures because their adaptive capacities are surpassed” (de la Sablonnière *et al.*, 2009). The main argument to social psychology of social change is that dramatic social change touches all of us, is increasingly rapid, common and affects, or has the potential to affect, every person on our planet. That is, everybody in the world, even those from rich and privileged Western countries, is susceptible to the consequences of dramatic social change (Chiro and Merton, 1986). This is in line with Smith (1973) who has claimed that “contemporary changes are massive, rapid, continuous yet elusive, varied and apparently unpredictable. They occur at every level of society, they vary in scope and pace, they can be classified as both qualitative and quantitative. Above all, they are global.”

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

- | |
|---|
| 1. What do you understand by the concept social change? |
|---|

1.4 The Process of Social Change

According to Breakwell (1993), Identity Process Theory (IPT) is a dynamic and integrative theory that conceptualizes social change as fundamental to one's psychological experience. The IPT describes the structure of one's identity and explains how individuals cope with identity threats, or changes, arising from their social environment. In describing the structure of identity, Breakwell (1993) outlines two processes of social change – assimilation–accommodation and evaluation – that regulate the structure of one's identity. Assimilation–accommodation refers to both the absorption of new elements into one's identity (assimilation) and the adjustment that occurs in the identity structure to make room for these new elements (accommodation). Thus, the structure of one's identity is conceptualized not as static, but as constantly adjusting to incorporate new components. IPT takes into account the very real possibility that one's identity will often shift in response to changes in one's social context. For example, as a result of globalization and Americanization in Kyrgyzstan, Kyrgyz students attending an American University show signs that they are integrating the American identity into their self-concept (de la Sablonnière *et al.*, 2013). Such identity integration necessitates the psychological processes of assimilation and accommodation.

The second process, evaluation, refers to the allocation of value to the identity elements. Individuals will assign a positive or negative worth to these elements. Breakwell acknowledges that one continuously evaluates and re-evaluates the identity structure as it adjusts to social change. For example, in a research conducted in Russia and Mongolia, it was found that perceiving social changes as rapid and numerous led people to re-evaluate the situation of their group, which in turn affected their positive or negative evaluation of their identity – collective esteem (de la Sablonnière *et al.*, 2009).

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2

- | | |
|----|---|
| 1. | Highlight the relevance of Identity Process Theory in explaining the nature of social change? |
| 2. | Identify and explain two (2) processes of social change? |



1.5 Summary

In the unit, social change has been explained through the use of social psychology of social psychological theory – Identity Process Theory

which has social change as a central tenet. The unit also outlined two processes of social change – assimilation-accommodation and evaluation – that regulate the structure of one's identity. Assimilation-accommodation refers to both the absorption of new elements into one's identity and the adjustment; while evaluation, refers to the allocation of value to the identity elements.



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1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

- social change as fundamental to one's psychological experience.
- Dramatic social change is a “profound societal transformations that produce a complete rupture in the equilibrium of social structures.
- dramatic social change touches all of us, is increasingly rapid, common and affects, or has the potential to affect, every person on our planet.

Answers to SAEs 2

1. The relevance of IPT

- IPT is a dynamic and integrative theory
- IPT describes the structure of one's identity and explains how individuals cope with identity threats
- It outlines the processes of social change
- IPT takes into account the very real possibility that one's identity will often shift in response to changes in one's social context.

2. Processes of social change

- assimilation-accommodation – the absorption of new elements into one's identity and the adjustment
- evaluation – the allocation of value to the identity elements

UNIT 2 IDENTITY THREAT AND GUIDING PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Unit Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Learning Outcomes
- 2.3 Identity Threat and Guiding principles of Social Change
- 2.4 Summary
- 2.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 2.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



2.1 Introduction

The previous unit discussed about the concept and process of social change, which comprises two processes – assimilation–accommodation and evaluation. In this unit, you would learn about identity-threatening experiences and principles that guide the processes of social change.



2.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- describe identity-threatening experiences; and
- mention the principles that guide the processes of social change,

2.3 Identity threat and Guiding Principles of Social Change

Breakwell (1993) identified and described four principles that guide the processes of social change. These include continuity – feelings of continuity across time and situation; distinctiveness – feelings of uniqueness or distinctiveness from others; self-efficacy – feeling confident and in control of one's life; and self-esteem – feeling personal worth or social value. The search for continuity, distinctiveness, self-efficacy and self-esteem determine when and how the processes of assimilation–accommodation and evaluation occur. The four principles guide the extent to which individuals will incorporate and adjust to new identity elements, and they determine the value that is placed on these elements (Breakwell, 1993). A new immigrant, for example, may find that he or she no longer feels adequate levels of continuity across time and situation after moving to a foreign country and behaving and interacting in new ways. This constitutes a threat to one of IPT's four guiding identity principles – continuity. According to the theory, such a threat will compel the individual to engage in specific coping strategies

so he or she can assimilate and accommodate a new identity into his or her identity structure (e.g. a bicultural identity) and thus regain feelings of continuity.

When any of the four principles are threatened by social change, an individual's identity is said to be under threat. Specifically, Breakwell argues that the four identity principles may be threatened at any time by changes in the social context. When there is a threat, the individual engages in specific coping strategies including intrapsychic, interpersonal, intragroup and/or intergroup strategies (Breakwell, 1988). He or she will seek to remove or modify the threat to identity and restore a sense of balance in the identity principles. Identity threat, or social change, is thus conceptualized in IPT as an essential component of human life. IPT makes predictions based on reactions to social change and its effect on an individual's shifting identity. An example of identity-threatening experiences including a situation where individuals wrestling with particular concerns such as transsexualism, a diagnosis of leprosy, alcoholism, drug abuse, and the negotiation of conflicting cultural identities. Each of these is a threat to an individual's identity as they cope with some form of dramatic personal change.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Mention and explain four (4) principles that guide the processes of social change?
2. Give example of identity-threatening experiences and suggest coping strategy to the experience?



2.4 Summary

In the unit, four principles that guide the processes of social change have been identified and described. The principles included continuity – feelings of continuity across time and situation; distinctiveness – feelings of uniqueness or distinctiveness from others; self-efficacy – feeling confident and in control of one's life; and self-esteem – feeling personal worth or social value. The four identity principles may be threatened at any time by changes in the social context. In the occurrence of a threat, the individual engages in specific coping strategies including intrapsychic, interpersonal, intragroup and/or intergroup strategies.



2.5 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

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2.6 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Principles that guide the processes of social change
 - continuity – feelings of continuity across time and situation;
 - distinctiveness – feelings of uniqueness or distinctiveness from others;
 - self-efficacy – feeling confident and in control of one's life; and
 - self-esteem – feeling personal worth or social value.
2. Identity-threatening experiences
 - concerns such as transsexualism, a diagnosis of leprosy, alcoholism, drug abuse, and the negotiation of conflicting cultural identities.
 - Each of these is a threat to an individual's identity as they cope with some form of dramatic personal change.
 - assimilation and accommodation to the new identity into individual's identity structure (e.g. a bicultural identity) can help to regain feelings of continuity.

UNIT 3 APPROACHES IN THE ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Unit Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Learning Outcomes
- 3.3 The micro-individual level Analysis of Social Change
- 3.4 The macro-socio-psychological level Analysis of Social Change
- 3.5 Summary
- 3.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 3.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



3.1 Introduction

The previous unit identified and described identity-threatening experiences and principles that guide the processes of social change. In this unit, you would learn about how a collective social change may threaten identity in a way that is different from a threat stemming from a personal social change and thus require different approaches. The David and Bar-Tal (2009) model of collective identity that explores the interrelationship between micro-individual and macro-social analysis of identity would be discussed



3.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- identify approaches to the analysis of social change; and
- differentiate between micro-socio-psychological and macro-socio-psychological levels of social change analysis.

3.3 The micro-individual level Analysis of Social Change

It can be argued that the identity threat as identified in the previous unit should be explained as a personal change versus a collective social change, or some combination of the two. It would then be possible to examine their differential effects on the identity principles outlined in IPT in the previous unit. David and Bar-Tal (2009) developed a model that covers two levels of analyzing social change and identity threat; namely: micro-socio-psychological and macro-socio-psychological. The micro-socio-psychological is also called the micro-individual level. The approach describes the nature of self-categorization and identification, which are individual processes (Roccas *et al.*, 2008). This level focuses

on the individual's organization of social group memberships, that is, to which groups a person thinks that he or she belongs, what he or she thinks about them and how he or she evaluates them. This level includes cognitive aspects of identification (self-categorization and the importance that individuals attribute to their identification with the collective), emotional aspects of identification (attachment to the collective) and motivational aspects (the willingness to belong to a collective and to satisfy needs for positive self-value and security). These micro-socio-psychological processes are the precondition for the emergence of collective identity and underlie its construction, in that they promote a shared social awareness and recognition that members of a collective share the same social identity. This awareness, which leads to the macro-socio-psychological level in the form of collective cognitive, emotional and behavioral consequences, provides the basis for shared belief systems that illuminate the group's common world-view and then allows continuous communication and negotiation about this common world (Melucci, 1989).

3.4 The macro-socio-psychological level Analysis of Social Change

The macro-socio-psychological level is a collective identification that goes beyond the individual group member's cognitive-emotional processes (Turner *et al.*, 1987). The macro level of collective identity is founded on two pillars. One pillar consists of general features that characterize the collective identity, are universal, apply to macro level collectives and allow for a comparison between them. The other pillar is particular and consists of content characteristics that provide the unique features to the collective identity. Jaspal and Breakwell (2014) presented the six fundamental features of the first pillar as follows:

1. Perception of the uniqueness of the collective and its distinction from other collectives relates to the definition of the collective's selfhood as a unique entity that is different from other collectives.
2. Commonality of beliefs, attitudes, norms and values characterizes group members and constitutes the basis for their feeling of uniqueness (Bar-Tal, 2000).
3. Continuity and consecutiveness in the dimension of time indicates a perceived continuity of the group's past, present and future.
4. A sense of a common fate pertains to the sense of unity and the feelings of mutual dependence that prevail among members of a collective. This is the feeling of "togetherness" – the "cement" that binds individuals and social groups in unity (Brown, 2000).
5. Concern for the welfare of the collective and mobilization and sacrifice for its sake refer to group members' interest in the

experiences of the collective, a concern for its welfare and a motivation to act on its behalf.

6. Mobilization requires the coordinated activity of the collective's members. This feature refers to the ability of the different groups and sectors that compose the collective to collaborate with each other to achieve societal goals.

Although all six elements are necessary for the existence of collective identity, some of them may be more powerful than others in different societies and at different times.

The second pillar of the collective identity is content based and it provides the particular epistemic basis for the collective identity. That is, this pillar provides the specific contents that endow the collective identity with its very particular meaning. For example, in the case of a national collective identity it includes attachment to certain territories, culture and language, collective memory and societal beliefs that characterize the collective. Thus, the collective identity of societies in intractable conflict tends also to include a unique content that is influenced by their long exposure to the conflict context.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Differentiate between micro-socio-psychological and macro-socio-psychological levels of social change analysis?
2. State four (4) fundamental universal features of collective identity?



3.5 Summary

The unit discussed two model of collective identity that is micro-individual and macro-social levels of social identity analysis. The Micro-individual level described the nature of self-categorization and identification that are individual processes in nature. The Macro-social level of collective identity is founded on two pillars – universal general features and content based. The universal general features pillar comprises six elements that are necessary for the existence of collective identity; the content-based pillar provides the specific contents that endow the collective identity that included attachment to certain territories, culture and language, collective memory and societal beliefs.



3.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

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3.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Difference between micro-socio-psychological and macro-socio-psychological levels
 - The Micro-individual level described the nature of self-categorization and identification that are individual processes in nature.
 - The Macro-social level of collective identity is founded on two pillars – universal general features and content based
2. Fundamental universal features of collective identity
 - Perception of the uniqueness of the collective
 - Commonality of beliefs, attitudes, norms and values
 - Continuity and consecutiveness in the dimension of time
 - A sense of a common fate pertains to the sense of unity and the feelings of mutual dependence
 - Concern for the welfare of the collective and mobilization and sacrifice for its sake
 - the ability of the different groups and sectors that compose the collective to collaborate

UNIT 4 UNIT 4: SOCIAL CHANGE AND HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Learning Outcomes
- 4.3 Potential Areas of Social Change and Their Impact on Human Security
- 4.4 Social Change and Case of Migration Movements
- 4.5 Summary
- 4.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 4.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



4.1 Introduction

The previous unit approaches to the analysis of social change and identity threat were explored and the interrelationship between micro-individual and macro-social analysis of identity has been highlighted. This unit would discuss potential areas of social change and their impact on human security. Specifically, an account of social change stemming from migration movement would be described.



4.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- identify and explain the six potential areas of social change;
- examine the impact of the potential areas of social change to human security; and
- give account of a case of social change stemming from migration movements

4.3 Potential Areas of Social Change and Their Impact on Human Security

Jaspal and Breakwell (2014) identified six important potential areas of dramatic social change that have a considerable impact on human security and modern societies, in general. The areas are: dramatic political and economic events, migration movements, natural disasters, human-made disasters, technology and, finally, dramatic personal social change. The areas are also fundamental elements of threat to human security. Thus:

- Dramatic political and economic events can affect the very foundation of societies. Such events can be extensive, affecting several countries at once. For instance, the breakdown of the USSR and at a more localized level, the Tulip Revolution of 2005 in Kyrgyzstan (Carter, 2000).
- Migrant movements are also social changes that affect not only the migrants and refugees themselves, but also the host society as a whole (Bourhis *et al.*, 1997). For example, waves of non-European immigrants have not only changed the face of many Western countries, but also affected the equilibrium between majority and minority groups in these countries (Farley, 1997).
- Natural and human-made disasters represent important social changes because they can dramatically and rapidly transform different aspects of thousands of people's lives (White, 2010). For example, the tsunami that hit Japan affected the Japanese economy, their natural resources and their psychological well-being.
- Technological changes are also considered to be social changes because, due to technology's prominence and extremely rapid evolution, it has completely transformed us, our interactions and as such, our societies (Bernardino, 1996). For example, Facebook and other social networks have revolutionized how people with an array of different backgrounds meet new people for love, for work or for leisure.
- Lastly, personal social change is an important dimension of social change as it affects the whole community, in addition to the individual personally involved in the change itself. For example, in the context of certain Aboriginal communities in Canada, someone committing suicide can be conceptualized as a personal social change; everyone in the community will be deeply affected when one suicide takes place because everyone is related to each other (Kirmayer *et al.*, 2003).

4.4 Social Change and Case of Migration Movements

To further highlight the impact of social change to human security there is need to elaborate more on a case of the social change stemming from migration movements. The case has to do with the migrants themselves and allows one to take into account the collective social changes the migrants may have experienced before coming to their new host country.

Timotijevic and Breakwell (2000) used IPT to study threats to identity experienced by migrants to Britain from the former Yugoslavia, migrants who had encountered radical social and political upheaval and also experienced human security problem in their country of origin

before moving to a new country. Part of the study explored the identity processes resulting from migration to a new culture and thus a personal change and personal human security threat. However, IPT could also be used to separately examine the identity threat stemming from the collective social change, war and political upheaval, previously experienced by the migrants. It could then help those who face challenges of both collective and personal change, and to understand the differential effects on identity of these types of social change and how they might interact to affect coping and humanly secured. For example, an immigrant from Rwanda to Canada who has seen his or her country destroyed by genocide faces the double challenge of adapting to Canada and coping with the dramatic social change of his or her country of origin.

More broadly, by taking collective social change into account, IPT could be employed to examine and understand the impact of events for entire segments of a population. Undoubtedly, identity is threatened by such dramatic collective events. IPT therefore has the capacity to understand the psychological consequences of these events and thus help those who are most affected by them.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Identify and explain the four (4) potential areas of social change that have significant impact on human security?
2. Give account of a case of social change stemming from migration movements and affected human security?



4.5 Summary

In sum, the unit has identified and explained six types of dramatic social change and also illustrated impact of the IPT and the pervasiveness of human security. The areas are often global and affect fundamental areas of human needs and development, their impact on individuals and societies highlights the need for a social psychology of social change to compliment human security efforts. Therefore, an examination of the impact of collective social change through the lens of IPT could not only broaden the theory but could also improve the understanding of the comprehensiveness of human security approach.



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4.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Potential areas of social change that affect human security
 - Dramatic political and economic events affect the very foundation of societies.
 - Migrant movements affect not only the migrants and refugees themselves, but also the host society as a whole
 - Natural and human-made disasters transform different aspects of thousands of people's lives
 - Technological changes are prominence and extremely rapid evolutions.
 - personal social change affects the whole community
2. A case of social change stemming from migration movements
 - A study identity threat experienced by migrants to Britain from the former Yugoslavia, migrants who had encountered radical social and political upheaval and also experienced human security problem in their country of origin before moving to a new country.
 - the study explored the identity processes resulting from migration to a new culture and thus a personal change and personal human security threat.

UNIT 5 SOCIAL CHANGE, PEACE AND DEVELOPMENT

Unit Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Learning Outcomes
- 5.3 Social Change and Peacemaking Process
- 5.4 Content and structure of Social Change Relevant to Peacemaking and Development
- 5.5 Summary
- 5.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 5.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



5.1 Introduction

The previous unit identified and discussed the potential areas of social change and their impact on human security. Specifically, an account of social change stemming from migration movement has been described. This unit describes social change identity strategies relevant to peacemaking and development. The ultimate objective is evolving, acceptance and internalization of a new ethos of peace are to be highlighted.



5.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- identify and describe social change identity strategies relevant to peacemaking and development;
- mention the ultimate objectives of a new ethos of peace; and
- highlight content and structure of Social Change relevant to peacemaking and development

5.3 Social Change and Peacemaking Process

Peacemaking is one of the fundamental aspects of human development. The goals of *human development*, which evolved out of the basic human needs approach, were general and could apply to any country, regardless of where it lay on the spectrum of wealth or poverty, of crime or stability, of peace or war. It is evident that human development and human security share the same fundamental perspectives they are people-centred, multi-dimensional; have broad views on human fulfilment of address chronic poverty and insecurity. In the time of conflict or insecurity, peacemaking is generated by identity needs. Thus,

some group members, following a major event such as a significant military defeat, may feel that the conflict severely compromises the continuity principle of identity; since the group risks annihilation as a result of the continuation of the conflict. Other members of society may, as a result of information about own group wrong-doing in the conflict, feel that it compromises basic values of their society and hence compromises the self-esteem principle of identity. Among these members of the group who perceived the change of the context as threatening, perceptions of identity threat may induce coping strategies, such as the **intrapsychic strategy of fundamental change**. In this strategy the individual may allow the process of assimilation–accommodation to bring about a fundamental change in the identity (Breakwell, 1986). The person may sacrifice any (e.g. beliefs about the opponent) or all of the beliefs of the ethos of conflict in order to assimilate new components into their identity.

In addition, peacemaking process may involve formation of consciousness-raising group where some members of the group decide to use the social change intergroup coping strategy by establishing a peace movement. Indeed, in many cases the process of peacemaking begins with a minority who believe that it is necessary to end the conflict by negotiating its resolution with the rival. In most cases, peacemaking involves, on the one hand, bottom-up processes in which groups, grassroots organization and civil society members support the ideas of peacebuilding and act to disseminate these among leaders as well, and, on the other hand, top-down processes in which leaders join the efforts, begin persuading society members of the necessity of a peaceful settlement of the conflict, and initiate its implementation (Gawerc, 2006). The result is a change in the ethos of conflict. For example, Oren (2009) studied the Israeli ethos of conflict in the period from 1967 until 2006, found that major events in the conflict, such as the unexpected peace process with Egypt and the first *Intifada*, triggered a change in the Israeli ethos of conflict as was held by society members. This change took several forms; first, some of the ethos beliefs (security beliefs, victimhood, negative opponent image, positive self-image and patriotism) weakened over time. In addition, some societal beliefs were dropped while others were added. Indeed, it is important to note that the processes of change in the ethos of conflict just as process of development are gradual and complex because societal change is not a simple matter given that identity related beliefs are well entrenched in the society, and any change of existing identity threatens the continuity principle.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Identify and describe two (2) strategies of social change that are relevant to peacemaking and development?

5.4 Content and structure of Social Change Relevant to Peacemaking and Development

The goal in peacemaking, then, is to promote alternative societal beliefs that promote development and peaceful resolution of the conflict (Bar-Tal and Halperin, 2009). The ultimate objective is evolving, acceptance and internalization of a new ethos of peace. This ethos must act as the opposite equivalent of the repertoire of conflict, in terms of content and structure, in a way that will successfully fulfill the same needs and aspirations of the in group members (Bar-Tal and Halperin, 2013). One necessary condition for the emergence of the new repertoire that supports peacemaking is the development of a new view of the rival. Thus, the emergent view has to include contents that legitimize, equalize, differentiate and personalize the rival group (Bar-Tal and Teichman, 2005). The following description explains the relevance of social change's structure and content to peacemaking and development efforts:

Legitimization allows viewing the opponent as belonging to an acceptable category of groups behaving within the boundaries of international norms, with which it is possible and even desirable to end the conflict and construct positive relations. This allows recognition of the legitimate existence of the other group with its differences.

Equalization implies perception of members of the other group first and foremost as equals, without superiority, and treating them accordingly.

Differentiation leads to a new perception of the other group as constituted of various subgroups, which differ in their views and ideologies. Differentiation thus also makes it possible to see that members of the rival group differ in their opinions regarding the conflict and its resolution.

Personalization allows viewing the rival group not as a depersonalized entity, but rather as made up of individuals with ordinary human characteristics, concerns, needs and goals. This means that the delegitimizing image disappears and instead a new positive image is presented.

The new beliefs that signal an emergence of alternative collective identity should include many other new ideas, such as about the need to resolve the conflict peacefully, about changing the goals that fueled the conflict and defining new goals that can lead to development and peace, about sharing victimhood with the rival, about history of the conflict and

about developing shared beliefs or some shared identity with the rival group (Bar-Tal and Halperin, 2013). For, example, Hadjipavlou (2007) identified a desire on the part of both rival communities in Cyprus to move away from Greek or Turkish nationalistic identities toward a shared *Cypriot* culture. In contrast, Muldoon *et al.* (2007) found a continuing predominance of national and religious identities among adults and adolescents in Northern Ireland after the Belfast Good Friday Agreement.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2

1. Mention the ultimate goal of peace ethos to social change?
2. Outline four (4) structures of social change relevant to



5.5 Summary

The unit described strategies of social change identity relevant to peacemaking and development. The strategies, such as the intrapsychic strategy of fundamental change allows the process of assimilation–accommodation to bring about a fundamental change in the identity. The unit also identified the ultimate objectives of a new ethos of peace such as evolving, acceptance and internalization as well as the necessary conditions for the emergence of the new repertoire that supports peacemaking that included contents such legitimization, equalization, differentiation and personalization of the rival group.



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5.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Intrapsychic strategy of fundamental change

- Individual allows the process of assimilation–accommodation to bring about a fundamental change in the identity
- person sacrifices any (e.g. beliefs about the opponent) or all of the beliefs of the ethos of conflict in order to assimilate new components into their identity.
-

formation of consciousness-raising group

- members of a group use the social change intergroup coping strategy by establishing a peace movement
- bottom-up processes in which groups, grassroots organization and civil society members support the ideas of peacebuilding

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Goals of peace ethos to social change

- to promote alternative societal beliefs that promote development and peaceful resolution of the conflict
- The ultimate objective is evolving, acceptance and internalization of a new ethos of peace

2. Structures of social change

- Legitimization allows viewing the opponent as belonging to an acceptable category of groups
- Equalization implies perception of members of the other group as equals
- Differentiation a new perception of the other group as different in their views and ideologies
- Personalization viewing of the rival group as made up of individuals with ordinary human characteristics.

MODULE 5 CONCEPTS AND CONTEXT IN THE APPLICATION OF HUMAN SECURITY, SOCIAL CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

In module four (4) you have learned about the concept, nature and causative factors in social change. The impact of social change to human security and development has also been discussed. This module would examine regional structures, current events and applications of human security with particular emphasis on Pan-Africanization, Canada, Norway, and Japan applications of the human security framework. Similarly, the impact of some events such as response to protect and covid-19 would be highlighted. The module would be presented under five thematic units as follows:

- Unit 1 Human Security and Regional Security Structures
- Unit 2 The pan-Africanization of Human Security
- Unit 3 Canada, Norway, and Japan Applications of Human Security
- Unit 4 Human Security in the R2P Era
- Unit 5 Covid-19 and Human Security

UNIT 1 HUMAN SECURITY AND REGIONAL SECURITY STRUCTURES

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Learning Outcomes
- 1.3 Regional Security Structures and Human Security
- 1.4 The African Union (AU) Human Security Agenda
- 1.5 Summary
- 1.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



1.1 Introduction

The previous module discussed the impact of social change to human security and development. In this unit, you would learn about regional structures and human security agenda of some regional development organizations. Specifically, the focus areas of AU human security agenda such as economic development, gender equality and good health, eradicating preventable diseases and political governance would be highlighted.



1.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- identify human security agenda of some regional organizations;
- highlight activities of some regional organizations that promote human security agenda.
- identify and discuss the focus areas of African Union (AU) Human Security Agenda

1.3 Regional Security Structures and Human Security

Regional security approaches have a number of common concerns; in particular, deep worries arise regarding sovereignty and the possibility of intervention. For example, in an Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) meeting Thailand, supported by the Philippines, proposed moving from a policy of “constructive engagement” with Myanmar to one of “constructive intervention” or “flexible engagement.” Indonesia came out strongly against the idea, arguing that it ran counter to ASEAN’s basic principle of respecting the sovereignty of the state. Malaysia then weighed in to the argument by reportedly suggesting that Thailand would not like it if Malaysia started commenting on the treatment of Muslims in southern Thailand.

Adebayo Oyeade and Biodun Alao argue that from the African perspective the concern in the West about upcoming security rivals with China or South Asia may be a “blessing in disguise” – and even, to quote Wole Solinka, “the greatest development incentive that ever came our way since the end of slavery” because Africa clearly now carries the burden of African security. They argue that the gains of the Post-Cold War period, which relieves Africa from the West’s ideological struggle, should be consolidated “in a Pan-African security system that would encompass, among other features, economic integration and cooperation, and a collective conflict resolution apparatus.” The New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) has developed a brief of work that encompasses the human security agenda. For example, the founding document in October 2001 noted that “Long-term conditions for ensuring peace and security in Africa require policy measures for addressing the political and social vulnerabilities on which conflict is premised.” In June 2002, the ‘Parliaments Uniting for African Unity’ conference organized by the South African Parliament included a session on Peace and Human Security. The July 2002 meeting of the African Union (AU) and NEPAD also included civil society sessions on human security.

The Organization of American States (OAS) similarly is reconsidering their concept of security. They describe the need to reassess their approach to hemispheric security in this way: “The concept of security, once framed largely in conventional military terms, today must take into account a range of evolving threats – international terrorism, drug trafficking, money laundering, illegal arms dealing, institutional corruption, organized crime. In some countries, poverty, disease and environmental degradation further threaten stability and undermine security.” In 2004 the OAS convened a conference on hemispheric security to review and adopt a new approach to hemispheric security.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. State three (3) regional organizations and outline their human security area of focus?
2. Mention three (3) that illustrate commitment to human security agenda by regional organizations?

1.4 The African Union (AU) Human Security Agenda

A distinctive characteristic of the African Union (AU) is the emphasis it has placed on human security, defined as the protection of people and communities, rather than of states, from violence and imminent danger. No international organization has embellished its binding agreements, key policy documents, treaties, memoranda of understanding, plans of action, mission and vision statements, communiqués, conventions, declarations and decisions with human security ideas more than the AU.

The AU human security agenda in the areas of peace and security is clearly expressed in Article 4(h) of the Constitutive Act (CA) of the African Union. Article 4(h), which empowers the Union to intervene in the affairs of a member state in order to ‘prevent war crimes, genocide and crimes against humanity,’ was inserted into the CA, as a number of informed writers on the CA have eloquently argued, with a view to protecting ordinary people in Africa from abusive governments (Malan 2002; Cilliers and Sturman 2002; Kioko 2003). To provide an operational arm to this specific human security element, the AU made room for the creation of an African Standby Force charged with the task of intervening militarily in states for humanitarian purposes (African Union 2001). The condition laid down for human security intervention under the AU ‘goes “beyond” the provision made for intervention in the internal affairs of a country in the UN Charter’ (Schoeman 2003). The CA has actually set lower thresholds for intervention than those outlined in any international legal code (Weiss 2004). The specification of *war*

crimes, genocide, and crimes against humanity by the drafters of the CA as grounds for intervention has provided a clearer set of criteria for the Union to intervene in a state for human security purposes. The AU, unlike other international organizations, does not necessarily require the consent of a state to intervene in its internal affairs in situations where populations are at risk.

The AU also approaches economic development from a human security perspective. The development agenda in Articles 3 and 4 of the CA is intended to create conditions necessary for sustainable development to take place. As part of the sustainable development agenda, the AU commits its Member States to ensuring balanced economic development, to promoting gender equality and good health, and to working towards eradicating preventable diseases (Articles 3 (j) and (n); 4(l) and (n)). The AU has adopted an approach to political governance in Africa that is human security centered inasmuch as the CA commits Member States of the AU to promoting ‘respect for the sanctity of human life’ (Article 4(o)). Article 4(i), moreover, makes it clear that African people have a ‘right to live in peace. Article 3(h) of the CA, therefore, commits Member States to a path where they will ‘promote and protect human and peoples’ rights in accordance with the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights and other relevant human rights instruments. It is also significant that 3(g) enjoins member governments to promote democratic principles and institutions, popular participation and good governance. This provision in the CA is important for the AU human security agenda, because it is generally understood in the human security research community that democratic development is a critical aspect of human security (Hammerstad 2005). The decision to exclude from the AU states whose governments came to power through unconstitutional means therefore advances the human security agenda. The strength of the human security ideas embedded in the CA begs the question of how and why these human security doctrines entered into the discourse, agenda, documents and programs of the AU.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2

1. Identify and explain three (3) focus areas of AU human security agenda?



1.5 Summary

In the unit, you have learned about regional structures and human security agenda and the commitment of some regional organizations such ASEAN, NEPAD and OAS towards the agenda. Similarly, the

focus areas of AU human security agenda which included economic development, gender equality and good health, eradicating preventable diseases and political governance were discussed.



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1.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Regional Organizations and focus Area of Human Security
 - Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) – constructive intervention
 - The New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) – political and social vulnerabilities
 - The Organization of American States (OAS) – an account a range of evolving threats
2. Commitment to human security agenda by regional organizations
 - ASEAN met in Thailand and proposed moving from a policy of “constructive engagement”
 - NEPAD developed a brief of work that encompasses the human security agenda
 - In 2004 the OAS convened a conference on hemispheric security to review and adopt a new approach to hemispheric security

Answers to SAEs 2

Focus areas of AU human security agenda

- economic development
- gender equality and good health
- eradicating preventable diseases
- political governance

UNIT 2 THE PAN-AFRICANIZATION OF HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Learning Outcomes
- 2.3 Pan-Africanism and Human Security
- 2.4 Institutional Mechanism for Promoting Human Security in Pan-Africanism
- 2.5 Summary
- 2.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 2.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



2.1 Introduction

The previous unit discussed the regional structures and human security agenda of some regional development organizations. In particular, the focus areas of AU human security agenda such as economic development, gender equality and good health, eradicating preventable diseases and political governance were highlighted. In this unit, discusses the origin and vision of the idea of human security within the movement of Pan-Africanism; highlights Institutional Mechanism for Promoting Human Security in Pan-Africanism, especially, the roles of the Conference for Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation in Africa (CSSDCA) and African Citizens' Directorate (CIDO) in selling out human security agenda would be examined.



2.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- trace the origin and vision of the idea of human security within the movement of Pan-Africanism;
- highlight the constituent elements of CSSDCA proposal for human security to African leaders;
- identify and discuss the Institutional Mechanism for Promoting Human Security in Pan-Africanism; and
- discuss the role of African Citizens' Directorate (CIDO) in selling out human security agenda

2.3 Pan-Africanism and Human Security

Human security entered into the discourse of Pan-Africanism in the early 1990s. It was initiated by the Kampala Movement and Salim Ahmed Salim (Deng and Zartman 2002). The Kampala Movement was an initiative of civil society groups that met in Kampala in Uganda in the early 1990s to develop a regime of principles regarding security, stability, development and cooperation for Africa. At the heart of the principles, widely known as the Conference for Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation in Africa (CSSDCA), was a conscious effort to redefine security and sovereignty, and to demand certain 'standards of behaviour from every government in Africa in the interest of common humanity.' The Movement demanded that African leaders redefine their states' security as a multi-dimensional phenomenon going beyond military considerations to include economic, political and social aspects of the individual, the family and the society. In the view of the Movement, 'the concept of security must embrace all aspects of society and the security of a nation must be based on the security of the life of the individual citizens to live in peace and to satisfy basic needs' (Obasanjo and Mosha 1992).

On security, the CSSDCA package aimed at influencing African leaders to treat security as both a human security issues and an interdependent phenomenon. As a human security issue, CSSDCA proposed that the concept of security must embrace all aspects of society and that the security of a nation must be based on the security of the life of the individual citizens to live in peace and to satisfy basic needs.' As an interdependent phenomenon, it urged African leaders to see the security of their states 'as inseparably linked to that of other African countries.' To further achieve its aims and vision on stability of Africa, CSSDCA set criteria for judging the solidity of African states, suggesting that it should be grounded in liberal principles, such as respect for the rule of law, human rights, good governance and the participation of African citizens in public affairs. It also upheld majority of issues discussed under the cooperation and development sections Organization of African Unity (OAU) that essentially reiterated the traditional rhetorical Pan-African ideals, such as African solutions for African problems and the importance of integration for Africa's development, among others. Thus, the CSSDCA called on African leaders to develop 'a common African agenda based on a unity of purpose' to confront Africa's security, stability and development challenges (Africa Union 2002). The human security document was submitted to African leaders for integration into the OAU framework in early 1991. The OAU convened a meeting of African governments to discuss it in May 1991 in Kampala in Uganda. The leaders at Kampala meeting agreed in principle that the

Declaration to explore the possibility of integrating the ideas into the OAU should be in another meeting in June 1991 at Abuja, Nigeria. Although the OAU leadership rejected the CSSDCA's Declaration, the Kampala initiative provided the platform for Salim Ahmed Salim to place human protection on the OAU's agenda.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Outline the origin and purpose of the CSSDCA in Pan-African Movement?
2. What is the significance of the CSSDCA in promoting human security agenda in Pan-Africanism?

2.4 Institutional Mechanism for Promoting Human Security in Pan-Africanism

The specific elements of the human protection agenda of the OAU formed part of a broader policy initiative articulated in a document called *The Political and Socio-Economic Situation in Africa and the Fundamental Changes Taking Place in the World*, which the Assembly of the OAU adopted as a Declaration on July 11, 1990 (Salim 1990).

More specifically, the Declaration urged the OAU leadership to develop a framework for preventing, managing and resolving conflicts, since there would be no rationale for the international community to keep peace and promote human rights in Africa in the post-Cold War era. The Declaration opened the space for Salim, during the OAU summit in July 1991 in Abuja in Nigeria, to propose to the Assembly a framework to create a mechanism for the OAU to prevent, manage and resolve conflicts in Africa. Salim's initiative set in motion serious discussions within the OAU leadership on the need for the OAU to play a central role in protecting ordinary Africans from imminent threats. In addition, the former South African President, Nelson Mandela, pushed further the human security discussions on June 13, 1994 when he asked African leaders to empower the OAU to protect African people and to prevent African governments from abusing the sovereignty of states (Mandela 1994).

The call emboldened the OAU Secretariat to initiate a series of reform processes between 1995 and 1998 that were aimed at structuring the OAU in order to make it focus on human security concerns (Salim 1995, 1997). It also, in 1998, encouraged the Secretariat to submit, and the Assembly to adopt, three key human security issues. The first sought to make the promotion of 'strong and democratic institutions' a key objective of the OAU. The second excluded from the OAU states 'whose Governments came to power through unconstitutional means,'

and the third gave the OAU the mandate to assist military regimes that may exist on the African continent in moving towards a democratic system of government. The election of Olusegun Obasanjo, who was a key figure in the Kampala Movement, as president of Nigeria encouraged the OAU Secretariat to embellish OAU documents and policies with human security doctrines. Obasanjo himself made it a top priority to set in motion the process of integrating the CSSDCA into the OAU (Deng and Zartman 2002). The decision to create the AU in September 1999 provided a good opportunity for the Nigerian and the South African governments to support the OAU Secretariat in merging human security doctrines with Pan-African ideas. The strategy adopted by the Secretariat aimed to encourage the delegations that negotiated the legal treaty of the AU to codify as principles of the AU some of the ideas in the CSSDCA while simultaneously working with African leaders to ensure the adoption of the CSSDCA as a working document of the AU.

The Memorandum of Understanding paved the way for the Secretariat to create a unit within the OAU to coordinate CSSDCA activities. The CSSDCA unit is now called the African Citizens' Directorate (CIDO). More crucially, it opened the space for the AU Commission to try to institutionalize human security ideas in Africa, which it is doing through civil society channels. The CIDO is building coalitions around, and engineering consensus on, human security within the civil society groups. The office of the Chair Person of the AU Commission, the Political Department, the Peace and Security Department and the Legal Affairs Department are also using state channels, such as the Assembly of Heads of State and Government, the Council of Ministers and the Permanent Representative Committee, to convince the African ruling elite to accept human security doctrines.

The CIDO was originally established in 2001 as the implementation directorate of the CSSDCA. The Nigerian government, which provided the resources for the creation of the directorate, wanted the unit to focus primarily on integrating the CSSDCA ideas into all documents of the AU. The AU Commission gave the CIDO the additional responsibility of facilitating civil society engagement with the AU. As part of its efforts to engage civil society with the AU organs and process, in 2001 the CIDO developed an annual conference of indigenous African civil society and the AU. The CIDO usually invites over 50 civil society groups in Africa to attend these conferences, which are normally held prior to AU summits. About five conferences have been held since the first AU-civil society meeting was held in June 2001. The conferences have turned out to be a good place for the AU Commission to sell AU programs, projects and agendas to civil society groups. The CIDO is using the conferences to create awareness about AU's work and

persuade the civil society groups to integrate AU's policies, including the human security agenda. The CIDO also promoted the human security agenda in the intellectual and diaspora communities. It conducted its mandate of selling the human security agenda at two of its popular conferences that selected African intellectuals and Africans in the diaspora for attendance. The first conference was held in October 2004 in Senegal, and the second was held in July 2006 in Brazil.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2

1. What are the institutional mechanism adopted by Pan-Africanism in selling out the idea of human security?
2. Highlight the roles of CIDO in implementing the agenda of Human security?



2.5 Summary

In the unit we have discussed the origin, vision and principles of the idea of human security within the movement of Pan-Africanism which included the promotion of 'strong and democratic institutions' and exclusion of Governments that came to power through unconstitutional means out of the movement. Equally, the unit highlighted Institutional mechanism for promoting human security in Pan-Africanism such as the Conference for Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation in Africa (CSSDCA) and efforts of African Citizens' Directorate (CIDO) in facilitating human security agenda in Africa.



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2.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

1. The origin and purpose of the CSSDCA
 - The Kampala Movement under the leadership of Salim Ahmed Salim in the 990s initiated and developed a regime of principles regarding security, stability, development and cooperation for Africa (CSSDA)
 - With the purpose of influencing African leaders to treat security as both a human security issues and an interdependent phenomenon
 - African leaders should develop ‘a common African agenda based on a unity of purpose’ to confront Africa’s security, stability and development challenges
2. The significance of the CSSDCA in promoting human security agenda
 - it proposed human security document that was submitted to African leaders for integration into the OAU framework in early 1991
 - it provided the platform that placed human protection on the OAU’s agenda
 - created mechanisms for the OAU to prevent, manage and resolve conflicts in Africa
 - the CSSDCA worked simultaneously with African leaders to ensure the adoption of the CSSDCA’s declarations as a working document of the AU

Answers to SAEs 2

1. Institutional mechanism adopted by Pan-Africanism human security
 - a broader policy initiative articulated in a document called *The Political and Socio-Economic Situation in Africa and the Fundamental Changes Taking Place in the World*
 - create a unit within the OAU to coordinate CSSDCA activities. The unit was called the African Citizens’ Directorate (CIDO)
 - annual conference of indigenous African civil society and the AU
 - conferences that selected African intellectuals and Africans in the diaspora for attendance
2. Roles of CIDO in implementing the agenda of Human security
 - focuses primarily on integrating the CSSDCA ideas into all documents of the AU
 - engages civil society with the AU organs and process

- invites over 50 civil society groups in Africa to attend these conferences, which are normally held prior to AU summits
- selling out the human security agenda at conferences which should select African intellectuals and Africans in the diaspora for attendance

UNIT 3 CANADA, NORWAY, AND JAPAN APPLICATIONS OF HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Learning Outcomes
- 3.3 Canada's human security Paradigm
- 3.4 Norway's Human Security Network
- 3.5 Japan's Blue Book on Human Security
- 3.6 Summary
- 3.7 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 3.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



3.1 Introduction

The previous unit discussed the origin and vision of the idea of human security within the movement of Pan-Africanism and highlighted institutional mechanism for promoting human security in Pan-Africanism. In particular, the roles of the Conference for Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation in Africa (CSSDCA) and African Citizens' Directorate (CIDO) in selling out human security agenda have been examined. In this unit, the operationalization of human security by committed institutions in a way that is relevant to their contexts to somewhat narrower interpretations of human security would be analyzed. Thus, the way and manner Canada, Norway, and Japan have incorporated human security into their foreign policy frameworks are to be presented.



3.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- highlight the focus of Canada's interpretation of human security;
- mention the focus areas and constituent members of Norway human security network; and
- to identify and explain range of issues in the Japanese perspective of 'Human Security'

3.3 Canada's human security Paradigm

Canada has taken human security as the paradigm for its foreign policy and has taken a leadership role in operationalizing it. Canada's foreign policy framework has maintained a distinctive

focus on peace, security, development, and international cooperation throughout the Cold War. The human security agenda has offered a way for Canada to contribute “a leading voice on the world stage.” It was in the Ottawa Convention that the landmines treaty was signed – something that Lloyd Axworthy, one of the energies behind Canada’s human security focus, described as the “first major accomplishment” of the human security agenda. By 2000, when human security appeared on Canada’s budget with dedicated funding, Axworthy (who holds a wider definition of human security) reports that Canada’s security council used the language and concept of human security regularly: “On the agenda were issues like protecting civilians in armed conflict, reforming sanctions regimes to mitigate negative humanitarian outcomes, bolstering the rights of women in places like Afghanistan, and the necessity of humanitarian intervention to protect against a future Rwanda or Srebrenica.” Conceptually, Canada’s interpretation of human security focuses on “freedom from pervasive threats to people’s rights, safety or lives” - the protection of civilians, conflict prevention, public safety, governance and accountability, and peace support operations. As Rob McRae summarized this interpretation, “At its most basic level, human security means freedom from fear.” Canada’s conflict-focused reformulation of the human security term sets aside poverty reduction goals, but this narrow interpretation is defended, “because we believe this is where the concept of human security has the greatest value added – where it complements existing international agendas already focussed on promoting national security, human rights and human development.”

3.4 Norway’s Human Security Network

Norway likewise focuses on the freedom from fear aspects of human security, and identifies a core agenda of preventive action, small arms and light weapons control, and peace operations. Both nations found human security, with its emphasis on protecting individuals, to be useful in highlighting new and necessary aspects of security from violent opposition. They thus founded the Human Security Network (otherwise known as the Lysøen Group), whose annual meetings attract NGOs and governmental actors from about 13 countries, including Austria, Canada, Chile, Greece, Ireland, Jordan, Mali, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Switzerland, Thailand. They have mobilized around practical responses to human security threats. The topics of their actions include “protection for civilians,” “landmines treaty,” a “permanent international criminal court,” children’s issues (the optional protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on minimum age for recruitment and

deployment of soldiers), “small arms and light weapons,” and “drug trafficking and organized crime networks.”

3.5 Japan’s Blue Book on Human Security

Japan maintains the broadest definition of human security, which “comprehensively covers all the menaces that threaten human survival, daily life and dignity and strengthens efforts to confront these threats.” Particularly, Japan does not prioritize “freedom from fear” over the “freedom from want”, but holds them as dual objectives of human security. According to Japan’s “blue book,” Japan emphasizes “‘Human Security’ from the perspective of strengthening efforts to cope with threats to human lives, livelihoods and dignity such as poverty, environmental degradation, illicit drugs, transnational organized crime, infectious diseases such as HIV/AIDS, the outflow of refugees and anti-personnel landmines, and has taken various initiatives in this context. To ensure ‘Human freedom and potential,’ a range of issues needs to be addressed from the perspective of ‘Human Security,’ focused on the individual, and requiring cooperation among the various actors in the international community, including governments, international organizations and civil society.” Japan’s Human Security emphasis has found leadership in the highest levels of government, and supports both development-related activities and peace-related activities.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

- | |
|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Contrast Canada’s focus areas of human security with that of Japan? 2. Enumerate constituent members and areas of action of Norway’s human security network? |
|--|



3.6 Summary

Besides Canada, Norway and Japan, other countries have undertaken significant actions that safeguard human security, such as Thailand that worked to protect citizens in Burma, and South Africa sent battalions to the Congo and to Burundi. In each case, the operationalization of human security reflects the particular context of operation.



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3.8 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

1. Canada and Japan's focus areas of human security

- From the perspective of Japan efforts to cope with threats to human lives, livelihoods and dignity such as poverty, environmental degradation, illicit drugs, transnational organized crime, infectious diseases such as HIV/AIDS, the outflow of refugees and anti-personnel landmines are the areas of emphasis in its context of human security.
- On the Canada's agenda of human security were issues like protecting civilians in armed conflict, reforming sanctions regimes to mitigate negative humanitarian outcomes, bolstering the rights of women in both domestic and foreign places
- Conceptually, Canada's interpretation of human security focuses on "freedom from pervasive threats to people's rights, safety or lives" - the protection of civilians, conflict prevention, public safety, governance and accountability, and peace support operations.
- Japan maintains the broadest definition of human security, which "comprehensively covers all the menaces that threaten human survival, daily life and dignity and strengthens efforts to confront these threats."

2. Constituent members and areas of action of Norway

- The Network constituted about 13 countries, including Austria, Canada, Chile, Greece, Ireland, Jordan, Mali, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Switzerland, Thailand.
- Areas of actions include: "protection for civilians," "landmines treaty," a "permanent international criminal court," children's issues, "small arms and light weapons," and "drug trafficking and organized crime networks."

UNIT 4 HUMAN SECURITY AND RESPONSIBILITY TO PROTECT (R2P) ERA

Unit Structure

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Learning Outcomes
- 4.3 The Emergence and Guiding Principles of R2P
- 4.4 The Trio Responsibilities of R2P
- 4.5 Summary
- 4.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 4.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



4.1 Introduction

The previous unit the operationalization of human security by committed institutions in a way that is relevant to their contexts to somewhat narrower interpretations of human security has been analyzed. Thus, the unit has brought to fore the way and manner Canada, Norway, and Japan have incorporated human security into their foreign policy frameworks. However, the operationalization has come an era for the development of new international norms and tools around human security in which Responsibility to Protect (R2P) is a major component. This unit would look at the infinite possibilities available today in the development of a new global network that would help us achieve shared objectives. R2P offers principles that can accelerate humanity's efforts to pursue those objectives. Therefore, the unit would make you appreciate that R2P has become the basis for re-examining how the international community can challenge the foundations of state sovereignty in order to establish the tools to manage transcendent global problems or egregious internal threats to innocent people.



4.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- give account of the emergence and guiding principles of R2P; and
- identify and examine the trio responsibilities of the R2P.

4.3 The Emergence and Guiding Principles of R2P

The events in Kosovo in 1999, when the UN intervention failed to protect civilians, brought into question the means through which humanitarian intervention was to take place as well as the role of the UN in deciding upon this course of action. This persistent question led to the launching of a major global consultation on the issue of how to implement a framework of rules and procedures for addressing violence against civilians. It also led to the gathering of fifteen experts under the Canadian sponsored International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS) supported by Kofi Annan and the financial help of several American foundations. Their report, titled “The Responsibility to Protect, came out late in 2001, and it offered a transformative perspective that state sovereignty is based on the ability and interest of governments to protect their own citizens. Even more interesting, the report suggested that, should a state not fulfill this requirement, the responsibility then fell on the international community to intervene in the matter. In principle, it worked to marry idea and action.

The guiding principles of R2P maintains that sovereignty, and the state itself, is a necessary concept in global governance, but with the benefits it brings, comes responsibility as well. It is here, by elevating the protection of individuals and groups as the primary reference for international efforts at peace and security, that the world continues the human security dialogue. The International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS) report effectively offered an opportunity for human security in practice, and provided a framework through which to move forward with a focus on the protection of civilians, while redefining the role of sovereignty in the maintenance of international peace. R2P pays homage to the human security approach in a number of fundamental ways. It focuses international attention and calls for action fashioned around where it is most needed – on the victim. It focuses on the responsibilities of sovereignty versus its privileges. Under the principle of R2P, it is no longer permissible for states to harm their populations with impunity. And finally, if for some reason a state is unwilling or incapable to protect its citizens, the responsibility then falls on the international community to do so.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Give account of the emergence and guiding principles of the R2P?

4.4 The Trio Responsibilities of R2P

In order to avoid the use of military force, which is costly by any measure – including being politically untenable for most state leaders – the ICISS report established a trio of responsibilities: prevention,

reaction and rebuilding – so that the safety and protection of civilians is at the forefront of decision-making. Where prevention demands both root causes and direct causes of internal conflict be addressed well in advance, this pillar should form the foundation of any discussion around R2P. This prevention is directly linked to the concept of human security. When the *freedom from fear* and the *freedom from want* are both effectively provided and the state accepts its role in providing both of these freedoms, the need for external intervention is effectively removed.

Unfortunately, it is the responsibility to react which gets the greatest attention. The weakness in this approach is that when this responsibility becomes the priority, it becomes more difficult to move away from the ad hoc intervention approach that the world experienced in the mid-1990s. There unfortunately also tends to be propensity to focus on the military aspect of reaction, but the ICISS report promoted the application of appropriate measures based on the severity of the situation. The application of diplomatic means, sanctions, and the threat of international prosecution are always preferred over military intervention. When the most severe of situations demand a military reaction, the principles of just war (just cause, right intention, last resort, proportional means, and reasonable prospects) are applied to ensure that it is the most appropriate course of action. An ideal example of the peaceful resolution of an otherwise tragic event was when Kofi Annan successfully responded to postelection violence in Kenya in early 2008.

Finally, the responsibility to rebuild tends to be the most neglected and most extended commitment and responsibility. Should all efforts at prevention prove useless and some form of intervention is employed, then it also becomes the responsibility of the interveners to provide full assistance with recovery, reconstruction, and reconciliation, particularly after the case of military involvement, and addressing the causes of the harm the intervention was designed to halt or avert. It should be this language – particularly in the prevention and rebuilding stages – that is used in discussions around R2P, in order to fend off criticisms of the concept, or to avoid doubts of the intention of the doctrine itself, separate from any dishonest intention of individual states. Such was the case with when the U.S. waged war in Iraq in 2003, falsely claiming humanitarian grounds, when the criteria for such actions under an R2P banner had so obviously been ignored.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2

1. Enumerate and examine the three pillars of responsibilities of the R2P?



4.5 Summary

In the unit you have learned that the Responsibility to Protect (R2P), emerged in the late 2001. As a framework for operationalizing human security, R2P offered a transformative perspective that state sovereignty was based on the ability and interest of governments to protect their own citizens. The International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty (ICISS) report declared that the guiding principles of R2P should practice focus on the protection of civilians, while redefining the role of sovereignty in the maintenance of international peace. The ICISS report established a trio of responsibilities: prevention, reaction and rebuilding as the guiding criteria for the application of human security within the R2P era.



4.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources

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4.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

The emergence and guiding principles of the R2P

- ICISS report, titled “The Responsibility to Protect, that emerged in 2001,
- with a guiding principles among other of transformative perspective that state sovereignty is based on the ability and interest of governments to protect their own citizens.

Answers to SAEs 2

The three pillars of responsibilities of the R2P

- Prevention – demands both root causes and direct causes of internal conflict be addressed well in advance
- reaction – requires that application of diplomatic means, sanctions, and the threat of international prosecution are always preferred over military intervention
- rebuilding – requires the interveners to provide full assistance with recovery, reconstruction, and reconciliation, particularly after the case of military involvement, and addressing the causes of the harm the intervention was designed to halt or avert.

UNIT 5 COVID-19 AND HUMAN SECURITY

Unit Structure

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Learning Outcomes
- 5.3 COVID-19 and Expanded Meaning of Human Security
- 5.4 The Impact of COVID-19 on the Components of human security
- 5.5 Summary
- 5.6 References/Further Readings/Web Sources
- 5.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises



5.1 Introduction

The previous unit the R2P has been examined as the basis of how the international community challenged the foundations of state sovereignty in order to establish the tools to manage transcendent global problems. Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) has now become a global public health threat with many medical, ethical, economic, and social impacts. In addressing the threat of COVID-19, the unit considers the ways in which the concept of human security expands understanding of its relationship to health. It further shows how major public health issues can evolve into security threats. Finally, the unit will analyze the impact of COVID-19 in the context of seven (7) components or types of needs associated with human security as elaborated by the UN: health security, economic security, food security, environmental security, personal security, community security and political security.



5.2 Learning Outcomes

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

- explain the ways in which the concept of human security expands understanding of its relationship to health;
- describe how COVID-19 public health issue has evolved into security threats; and
- analyze the impact of COVID-19 in the context of seven (7) components or human needs associated with human security as elaborated by the UN.

5.3 COVID-19 and Expanded Meaning of Human Security

The emergence of COVID-19 is unprecedented in modern history. Officially declared a pandemic on 11 March 2020, it triggered systemic crises in public health, global economy, and political governance. One year on, much uncertainty remains over the shape and pathways of eventual recovery. In this context, the concept of 'human security' is one of the most helpful frameworks for attempting to understand the complex and inter-related challenges the pandemic has generated across multiple dimensions. In the period before the Covid-19 global health challenges, human security has lost some momentum as an intellectual project as a result of its imprecise definition and scope. In addition, in policy terms, human security has been eclipsed by a resurgence of geopolitical visions of security, reinforced by a rise in nationalism and great power rivalry. From a human security perspective, the concept and practices of security should be oriented around the everyday needs of individuals and communities, whatever the source or nature of threat they may face. The emergence of Covid-19 demonstrated how human security brings added value as an analytical and normative framework. The pandemic exposed the limitations of the traditional security paradigm and it demonstrated that traditional measures of national security are no assurance of societal resilience or individual protection. Moreover, from a human security perspective, Covid-19 exposes the structural inequalities and contradictions which underpin norms of security in many societies, given that experiences of security and insecurity are shaped by gender, socio-economic inequalities, and ethnicity.

The concept of human security as learned in the first module is a people-centred concept that seeks to address the root causes of insecurity. While not replacing the traditional notion of State security, the idea of human security provides a counterweight to it, offering a more comprehensive understanding of the multidimensional challenges to human survival and well-being by focusing on people's needs. It is most pithily summed up as the 3 freedoms: "freedom from want"; "freedom from fear"; and "freedom to live in dignity." The United Nations considers human security as 'an approach to assist Member States in identifying and addressing widespread and cross-cutting challenges to the survival, livelihood and dignity of their people' such as Covid-19 pandemic.

The 2030 Agenda or Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) also reflects the fundamental principles of human security. On the point of the pandemic, the world had seen significant albeit uneven developments towards human security. For example, global rates of

extreme poverty had declined significantly, from 28% in 2000 to 8.6% by 2018, though these gains were concentrated in East Asia and South Asia and the rate of reduction had slowed. Those gains in poverty eradication also helped drive progress in other areas. For example, deaths of children under 5 years of age globally dropped from 9.8 million in 2000 to 5.4 million in 2017. Just prior to the pandemic, the Secretary-General António Guterres warned that despite progress in certain areas, many areas required urgent collective attention if the SDGs were to be achieved by 2030, not least the environment, violent conflicts, global hunger, education of children, and structural discrimination facing women. The Secretary-General also promoted the mainstreaming of human security across all of the UN's activities. COVID-19 has reversed a number of development gains and much uncertainty surrounds pathways of recovery from the pandemic's wide-ranging effects.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 1

1. Give account of the ways in which Covid-19 has helped in expanding the meaning of human security?

5.4 The Impact of COVID-19 on the Components of human security

It is useful to consider the impact of COVID-19 in the context of seven (7) components or types of needs associated with human security as elaborated by the UN. The components include: health security, economic security, food security, environmental security, personal security, community security and political security. A brief overview of these 7 dimensions, illustrates their utility in understanding of the complex impact of the Covid-19 pandemic.

Health security encompasses access to health services and living in a safe environment. The emergence of the novel coronavirus has created a severe global public health emergency. At the time of writing in March 2021, COVID-19 has killed over 2.6 million people around the world

Economic security: As a result of the pandemic, poverty has grown and economic disruption has affected people in many countries. The World Bank estimates that in 2020, as a result of COVID-19 and its economic effects compounded by the effects of armed conflict and climate change, between 119 and 124 million people were pushed into extreme poverty (those living on under \$1.90 per day).

Food security: access to basic nutrition and food supply, is closely related to economic security. Many people who lost jobs or experienced reduced work hours lost income and became food insecure. Lack of social protection further affected people in both rich and poor countries.

Environmental security: there was concern that as governments in some states focus their efforts on containing COVID-19, they are less able or willing to enforce regulations that govern environmentally sensitive activities such as mining and logging, resulting in greater environmental harm.

In the context of human security, community security refers to ‘protection against the breakdown of communities through loss of traditional relationships and values and from sectarian and ethnic violence. Analysts warn of further instability in the world’s poorest countries that are already suffering from hunger, disease, lack of opportunity, climate change and conflict’

Personal security concerns freedom from the threat of physical violence. An increase in intimate partner violence has been seen as a consequence of COVID-19. As a result of movement restrictions and stay-at-home orders aimed at containing the virus, victims have faced increased exposure to abusers and, simultaneously, restricted opportunities to seek assistance from formal and informal networks and reduced support services’

Political security for people means that they live in a society that respects basic human rights. The COVID-19 pandemic is not only a health and economic crisis but has also emerged as a political crisis in which authoritarian leaders have used the pandemic to suppress dissent and strengthen their control over the levers of power. As articulated in an open letter signed by over 500 political and civil leaders, authoritarian governments have used emergency powers to restrict human rights and enhance state surveillance.

Self-Assessment Exercises (SAEs) 2

1. Discuss the impact of COVID-19 in the context of seven (7) components of human security?



5.5 Summary

In the unit we discussed the ways in which COVID-19 has helped in expanding the meaning of the concept of human security. In addition, It

illustrated how a major public health issues can evolve into security threats. Finally, the unit analyzed the impact of COVID-19 in the context of seven (7) components or types of human security as elaborated by the UN. These components included: health security, economic security, food security, environmental security, personal security, community security and political security.



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5.7 Possible Answers to Self-Assessment Exercises

Answers to SAEs 1

Ways Covid-19 deconstructs the meaning of human security

- The emergence of Covid-19 demonstrated how human security brings added value as an analytical and normative framework.
- Covid-19 exposes the structural inequalities and contradictions which underpin norms of security in many societies.
- The United Nations considers human security as 'an approach to assist Member States in addressing widespread and cross-cutting challenges such as Covid-19 pandemic.
- COVID-19 has reversed a number of development gains as a result of its wide-ranging effects.

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Answers to SAEs 2

Impact of COVID-19 on the seven (7) components of human security

- Health security – severe global public health emergency
- Economic security – people were pushed into extreme poverty
- Food security – people lost jobs, reduced work hours and lost income
- Environmental security – governments unwilling to enforce regulations that govern environmentally sensitive activities
- Community security – loss of traditional relationships and values
- Personal security – restrictions and increased exposure to abusers
- Political security – restricted human rights and enhanced state surveillance