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# **PEACE AND ENVIRONMENT AFRICA**

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*Annual journal of centre for Peace and Environmental Justice published in collaboration with the  
Kofi Annan international peacekeeping training centre, Ghana.*

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**Special Edition**

**September, 2013.**

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## **Peace and Environment Africa**

### **Editorial Comment**

The *Peace and Environment Africa* is published annually by the Centre for Peace and Environmental Justice in collaboration with the Koffi Annan International Peace Keeping Training Centre, Ghana to deliberately and systematically amass a formidable and credible data base on sustainable peace, security, Human Rights and environmental best practices in Africa in particular and the world in general.

Succinctly put, this journal provides a platform for scholars and research fellows to publish well-researched and properly articulated papers and analysis of technical reports on the areas such as crime, criminality and development, peace and sustainable development, flood, erosion and environmental degradation, oil exploration, spillage, gas flaring and environmental impacts, solid minerals, mining and environmental impacts; sea piracy, hostage taking, kidnapping and compensation issues; the role of the media in development, press freedom, FoI Act and implications for development, international and inter-regional relations and African development, health, safety and environment, security issue and African development, oil economy and agricultural development in Africa, peacekeeping training and management strategies, environmental sanitation and city beautification in Africa; drainage system, waste management and flooding in Africa; transportation management techniques in African cities, oil and mining related crises in African countries; global warning and climate issues, implications for Africa; synergy between security agencies and community policing in Africa; politics and good governance in Africa; unemployment, capacity building and community empowerment implications for African development and many other development related topics.

The twelve articles in this special edition focus on various aspects of the 2013 theme: *Peace Security and Sustainable Development in Africa*.

The theme of the 2014 edition is *Towards eradicating Ecological Threats and Sea Piracy Challenges in Africa*.

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### **GUIDELINES TO CONTRIBUTORS**

- Contributors are free to formulate titles from the above theme but these titles should as much as possible reflect the central theme of the edition.
  - Manuscripts which must not exceed 15 typed pages, inclusive of a 200 word abstract, illustrations and references (using the APA format) should be electronically submitted as an attachment through [benkabaa@yahoo.ie](mailto:benkabaa@yahoo.ie), [info@cepej.com](mailto:info@cepej.com) or our website: [www.cepejng.com](http://www.cepejng.com) not later than 20<sup>th</sup> June, 2014.
  - Only papers adjudged to be good enough for publication in the edition through a peer review system shall be accepted. However, responsibility for opinions expressed and accuracy of facts shall rest on the respective contributors.
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**1**

**Coastal Flooding: Strategies and Mitigation In Nigeria**

**Regina Folorunsho (Ph.D.)**

**Nigerian Institute for Oceanography and Marine Research  
Victoria Island, Lagos.**

**Abstract**

This paper examines the common types, cause and general impact of flooding in Nigeria. Using the incidence of flooding due to improper planning as a case study, it attempts to x-ray the dangers of human action, and inactions in recent flood disasters in Nigeria. The paper also pays attention to the usefulness of taking early warning signals very seriously if we actually intend to mitigate the challenges of flooding in Nigeria.

**Introduction**

Flooding usually occurs as a result of severe storms, either at sea or on land and from Tsunamis.

In Nigeria, flooding occurs as a result of intense rainfall along river banks, cities and from ocean storm surges, which result in massive flooding of the low-lying coastal areas.

Flooding could also result from a tsunami event. Nigeria is located in the PASSIVE Gulf of Guinea which is not highly tectonic, the Chain and Charcot fracture zones which emanate from the Mid-Atlantic ridge and extend to the Nigerian continental margin could be reactivated causing movements which could generate tsunamis.

**Types of Flooding**

Within urban areas, four major types of flooding can be recognised:

- Localised flooding: occurs many times a year in slum areas because there are few drains, and most of the ground is highly compacted.
- Flooding caused by small streams in urban areas rising quickly after heavy rain
- Flooding caused by major rivers flowing through urban areas which have been affected by land use changes and engineering works upstream; and,

- Coastal flooding resulting from storm surges, tsunami and sea level rise. This is caused by climate change and inefficient drainage channels.

### **Flooding Due to Storm Surge**

Coastal flooding due to meteorological factors are seasonal and cyclical events that have immense impact on the coastal areas of Nigeria



Flooding of the Victoria Island Beach drive Lagos, during two storm surge events (left -16 May, 1995 and right -6<sup>TH</sup> September 2001

Storm surge data from the Lagos tide gauge (GLOSS 259 located at the NIOMR jetty Lagos) showed that storm surges which usually occur annually between the months of April to June and September to October mostly coincide with high tides.

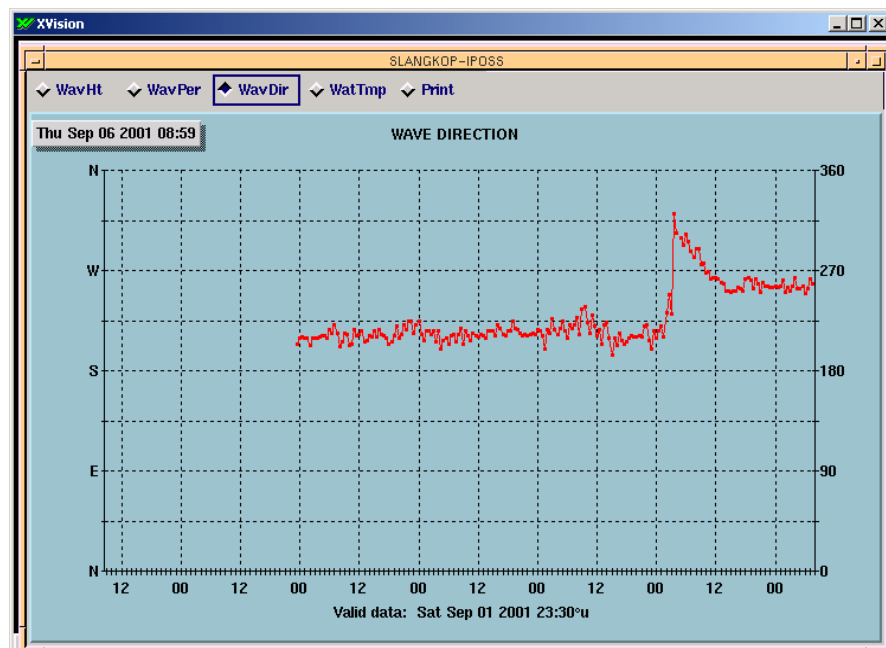
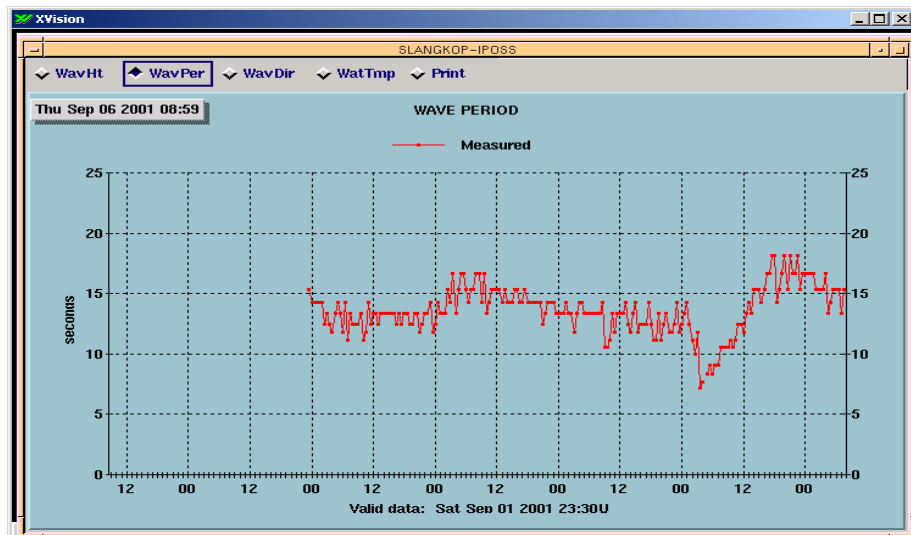
### **Associated Characteristics of Storm Surges: Meteorologically Induced**

#### **Tide Gauge Records of the Bar Flood Of August 1995**

- Wind speed of about 10–14m/s as against normal wind speed of about 0–6.5m/sec;
- High wave dynamics with heights from 3m - 5m and periods averaging 15-20secs.
- Astronomical high tide levels usually 1.4 to 2.5m above normal high tides.



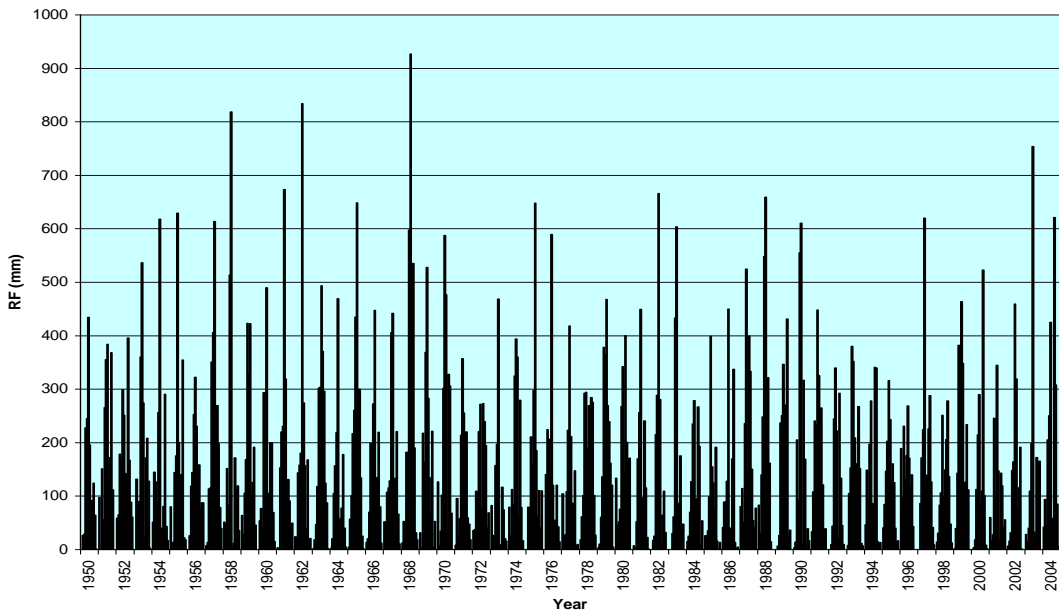
**Storm Surge Records From A Cape Town Station 6 Sept. 2001**



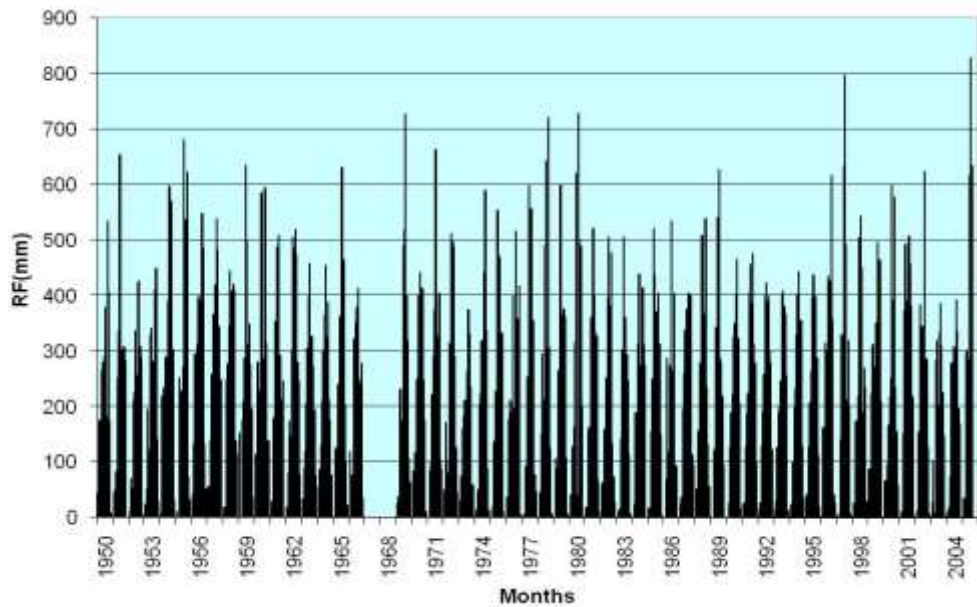
***STORM REACHED LAGOS  
BAR BEACH 5 DAYS AFTER***

**Flooding Due to Intense Rainfall**

1. Flooding resulting from intense rainfall and usually occur as a result of tropical storms.



Monthly Rainfall in Lagos (1950 – 2004)



Monthly Rainfall in Calabar (1950 – 2004)

## FLOODING DUE TO RAIN – 2



Scene of confusion after a rainfall of 257mm on 14/07/2011 at the Ahmadu Bello Road in Victoria Island



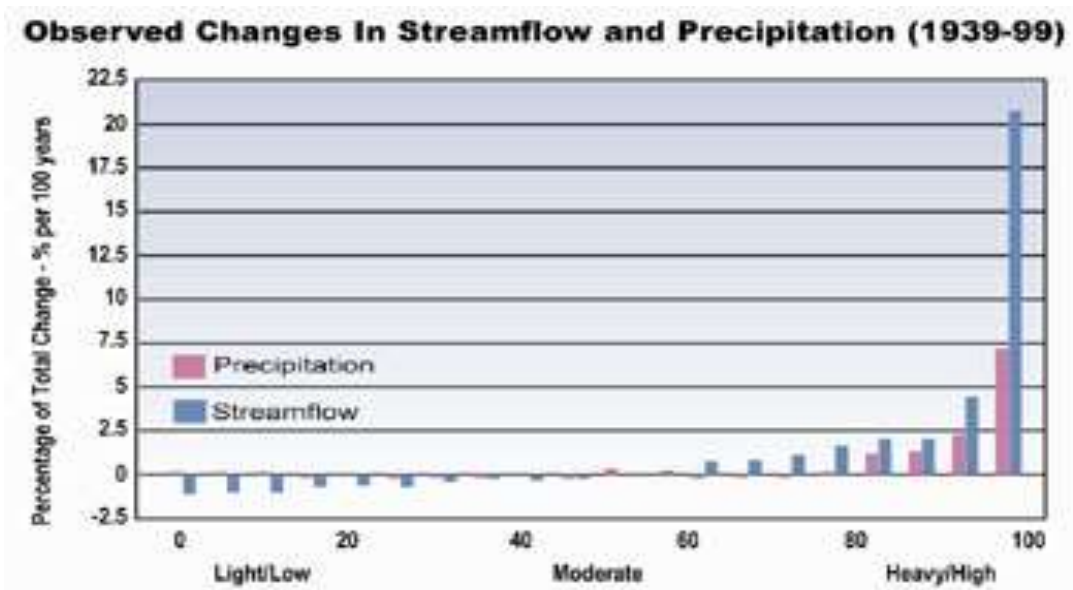
Flooded Apartment in Lagos. 14/7/11

LAGOS DAILY RAINFALL		2005																				
Date	May-05	Jun-05	Jul-05	May-06	Jun-06	Jul-06	May-07	Jun-07	Jul-07	May-08	Jun-08	Jul-08	May-09	Jun-09	Jul-09	May-10	Jun-10	Jul-10	May-11	Jun-11	Jul-11	
1	14.6	0	29.5	0	0	0	0	30.7	39.2	0	0	0	0.1	0	6.9	0	13.5	12.1				
2	0	4.1	61.2	5.1	5.1	20	0	0	0.7	35.4	2.9	0	57.7	0	2	55.1	0.2	0				
3	38	8.1	0	0	3	9.7	17.6	24.2	0	0	5.6	0	0	7.4	0	0	13.1	0				
4	0	47.7	0	0	0	0	0	25.3	46.6	0	0	0	39.9	0.2	1.7	0	32.9	6.9				
5	78.3	20	42.1	2.8	0	6.1	0	16.8	10.6	2.6	6.6	14.9	5.8	27.4	35.2	16.1	0	0				
6	0	0	218.4	0	0	20.3	0	17	10.6	4.7	168.6	0.7	3.8	1.9	36.8	0	11.1	12.3				
7	0	6.6	0	19.4	23.7	0.1	0	87.4	1.8	0	81.5	18 TR	0	49 TR	0	85.3	0	0				
8	24.2	6.4	0	0	0	0	17.5	0	0	0	14.1	6.1	22.4	4.4	1.1	0	0	0				
9	0.6	7.2	0	0	27.5	6.8	0	7	0	0	0	0	34.3	34.5	0	0	22	0				
10	0	0	0	20	7.5	6.4	0	11.8	0	0	0	0	2	0.7	12.9	1	0	0.2				
11	0	66.2	0	0	0	0	28.1	21.1	0	25.1	0	3.4	0	186.6	44.5	0	0	0				
12	0	108.7	12.2	0	0	5	0	11.5	0	0	27	12.5	0	48.1	22.6	0	0.8	4.8			25	
13	0	69.5	41.1	23.6	11.4	1.5	34.9	34	0	0.3	5.7	20.6	0	1.1	11.7	0.2	25.8	0				
14	19.5	0	0	0	26	8.7	0	0.3	2.9	0	26.5	89.8	2.3	1.3	0.6	0	10.7	6.4				
15	0	3.3	0	0	6.5	0.3	0	0.4	0	13.7	1	59.1	0	2.3 TR	6.3	69.7	28.9	0				
16	2.3 TR	0	1.7	54.3	7.8	0	0	9.9	0	6.5	0	0	0	31	38.1	69.5 TR	5.3	0				
17	8.7	4	4	0	0	1.8	0	0	0.7	0	34	15.8	0	2.7	0	1.7	0	0				
18	18.8	1.8	15.2	7.4	5.5	4.5	0	0	0	0	11.8	11.3	0	0	0	0	20.5	0				
19	0	0	1.1	1	13.6	0	0	0	0	5.1	0	58.5	9.6	2.6	0.1	8.5	0.2	0				
20	0	0	11.5	17.3	11.8	0	13.5	0	5.8	0	0	0	0	16.4	0	5.7	78.2	0				
21	0	24.3	0	30.5	0	0.2	0	0	10.1	0.7	1	27.5	0	0	54.3	38	10.4	0				
22	40.6	0 TR	0	4	0	4.1	0	0	0	53.1	0	0	0	0	0	1.8	0	0				
23	0	9.5	0	17.2	0	0	0	0	0	4.1	1.1	0.4	0	35.1	0	5.8	0.8 TR	0				
24	0	36.9	0	0	16.9	0	3.6	17.8	0	7.1	97.7	2.1	25.6	4.4	0	0	0	0				
25	44.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	15.2	24.7	3.4	17	2.2	2.4	46	0	0	185.1	0				
26	0.8	27.8	0	0	0	0	0	3.4	6.6	2.7	51.2	5.8	0	33.6	0.6	0	0	0				
27	9.6	0	0	9	0	0	24.1	0.1	3.8	0.3	0	0	0	38.7	1.7	6	0.9	7.3				
28	0.6	0	0	28.9	7.2	0	0	127.9	0	0.7	0	6.2	0	0	0	1.8	0	0				
29	19.5	0	0	0	51.1	0.2	3.4	18.9	2.4	2.1	0	1.8	39.5	18.1	0	4.1	0 TR	0				
30	45.8	27.6	0	1.2	100	1.7	0	2.5	0	13.9	67.9	51.1	0	2.4	0	0	0	0.1				
31	13.4 XXX	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.4	0	0	0	0	1.2	13.5	0	0	0				
MONTHLY	136.6	526.7	461.7	283.7	190.6	95.1	167.1	569.6	186.5	129.8	618.5	418	247.2	435.7	116.1	213.1	444.1	149.6				

Daily Rainfall amounts in Lagos. Source Folorunsho 2010

**Flooding Due to Intense Rainfall**

- 1. Stream flow flooding on the lower course of rivers near coastal areas as a result of tropical storms.

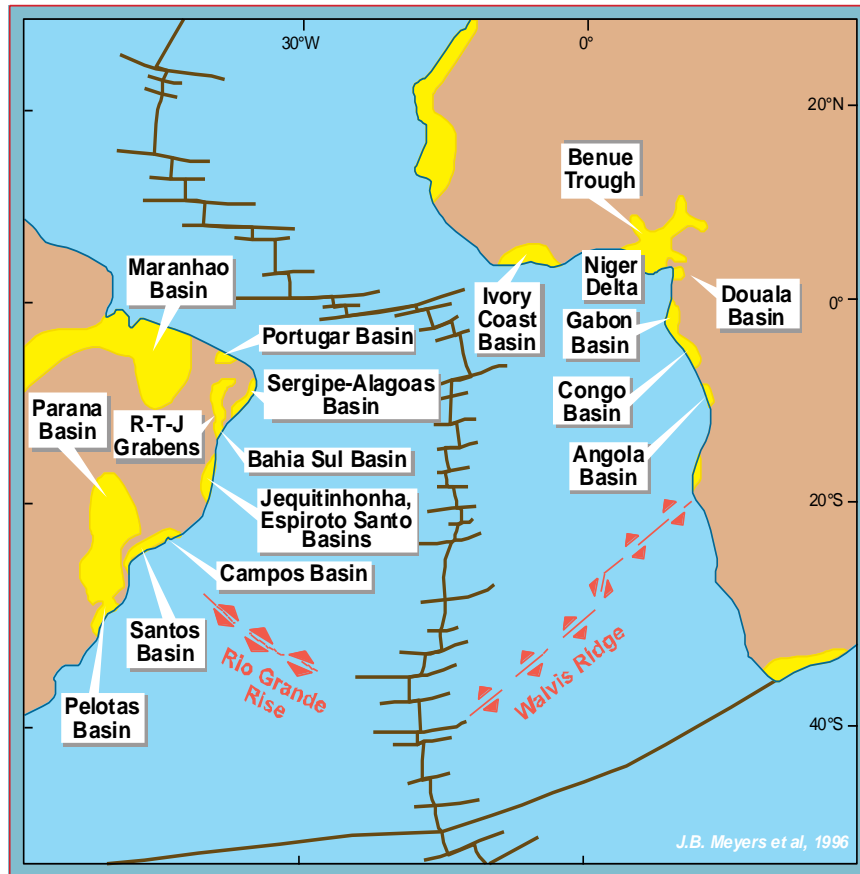


**Flooded Aiyetoro Coastal Community in Nigeria as a Result of High Tide**



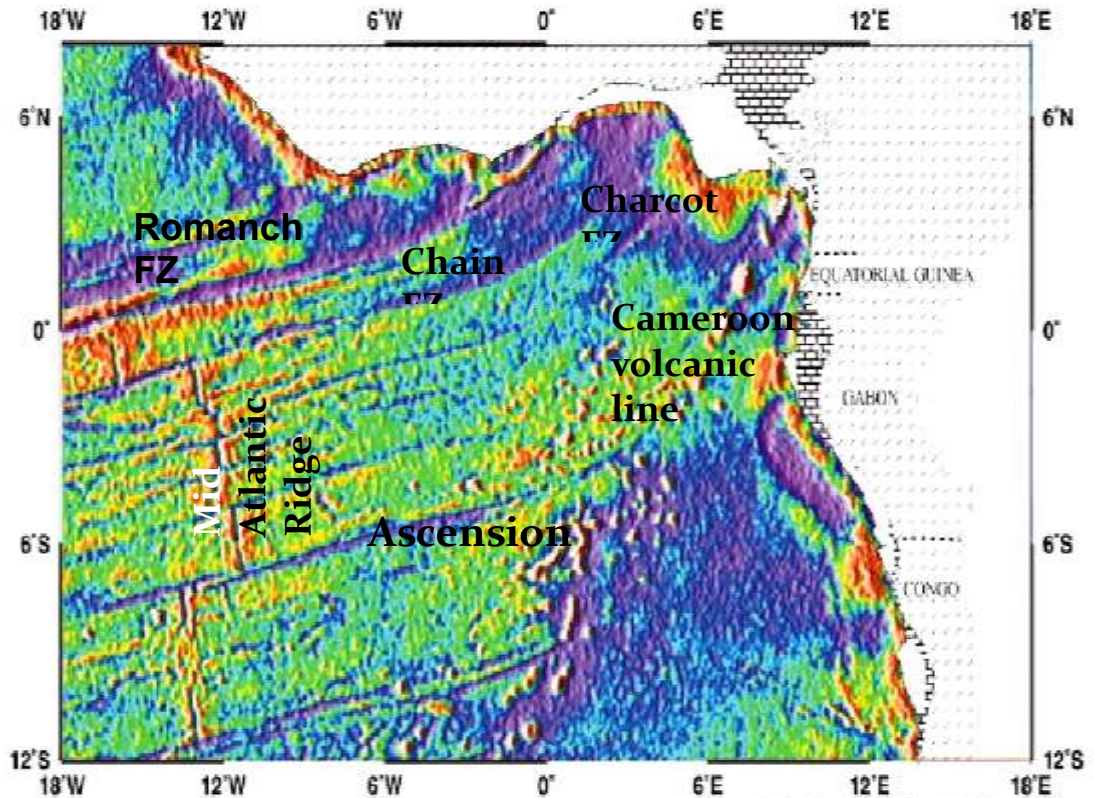
**Coastal Flooding: Tsunamis**

Mid Atlantic Ridge, Fracture Zones and Coastal Basins



## Map of the South Atlantic showing the Mid Atlantic ridge and the coastal basins

The fracture zones offshore the GOG (Romanche, Charcot, Chain, Ascension fracture zones and Cameroon volcanic line) could be reactivated anytime and possibly result in crustal movements leading to Tsunamis



Any possible crustal movements could result in earthquake and generation of gravity waves . Extensive flooding similar to the ones that occurred in south east Asia could result.

### News report

#### Cameroon Volcano Erupts; Reported...03/29/99

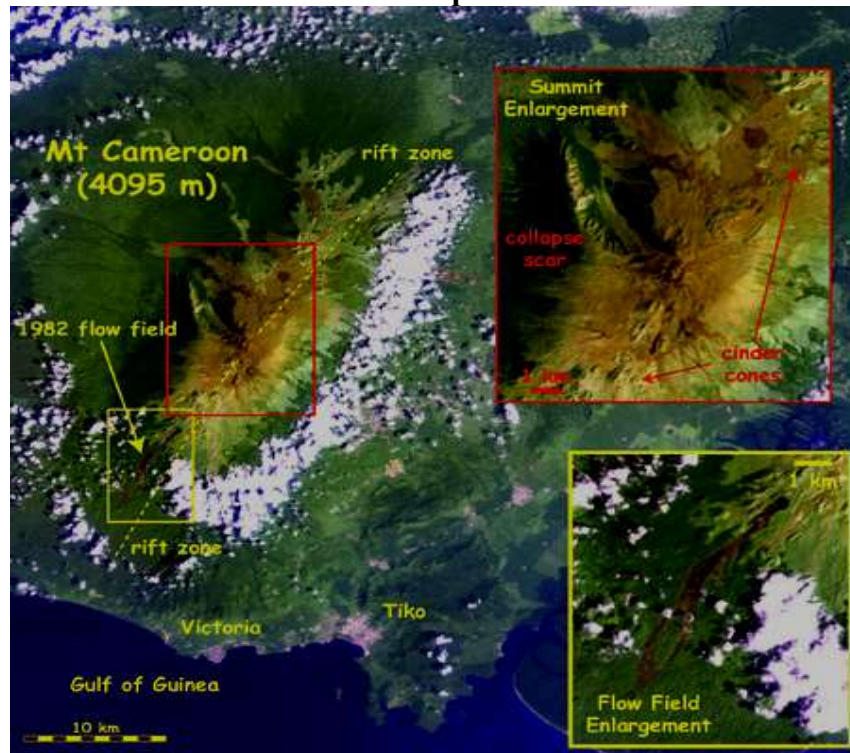
YAOUNDE (Reuters) - Mount Cameroon volcano has erupted for the first time since 1982, causing damage but no known casualties, state radio reported Monday.

The eruption of the volcano, close to Cameroon's Atlantic coast, triggered lava flows late Sunday and an exodus of residents from nearby villages.

YAOUNDE, Cameroon (AP) - A plodding river of lava seared rain forests and threatened small farms in western Cameroon on Tuesday and new tremors forced hundreds to evacuate, state radio said. Many villagers who fled their homes when Mount Cameroon erupted near the Atlantic coast .....The 13,400-foot volcano, also known as Mount Faka or "Chariot of the Gods," began erupting over the weekend in this West African nation. Frequent tremors have rattled and damaged houses.

## Volcanism in the Cameroon

### “Hot Spot”



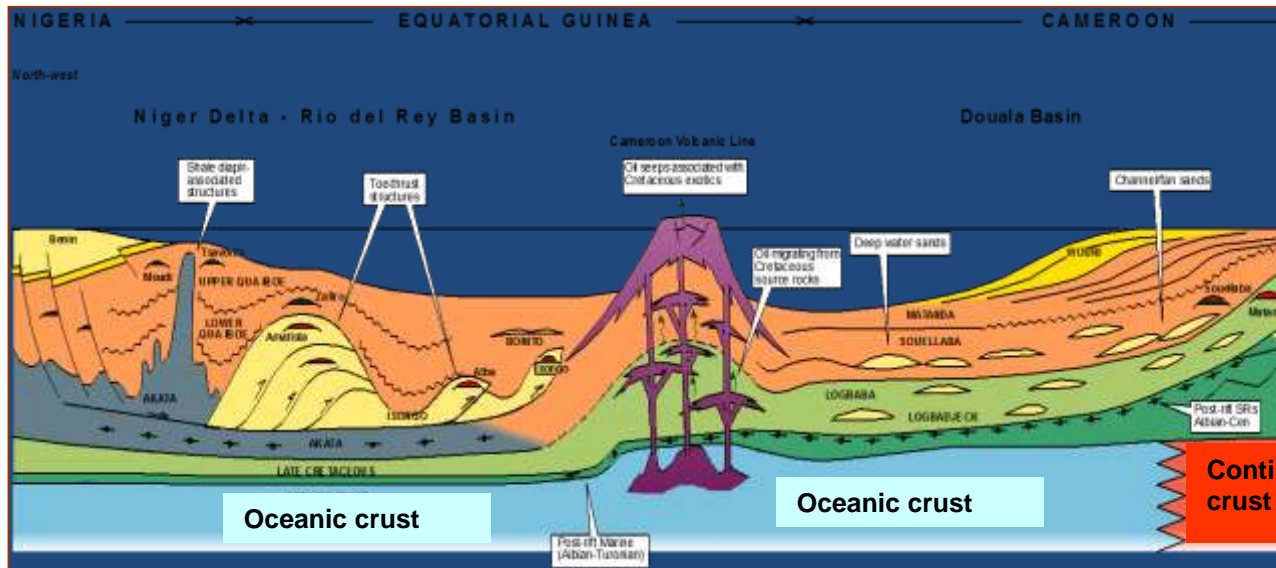
*Landsat image of Mt. Cameroon processed by Sarah Sherman, April 2000*



Mt. Cameroon is located on a seismic fault line that crosses the country of Cameroon.

**Erupted 6 Times in 1990's !!!**

## Volcanism along the Cameroon line



Stratigraphic cross section across the Niger Delta through the Rio Delray Basin, Cameroon volcanic line, the Douala basin to the Sasage basin.

- Volcanism along the Cameroon line is related to rifting - where a continent breaks into two pieces.

## Study of Main Drainage Channels of Victoria and Ikoyi Islands In Lagos Nigeria And Their Response To Tidal And Sea Level Changes. (Awosika et al 2000)

### Findings:

#### NATURAL FACTORS

- ❖ Excessive rain
- ❖ Low lying topography- less than 3m above mean sea level
- ❖ Tides ( astronomical): HHW and LLW
- ❖ Waves

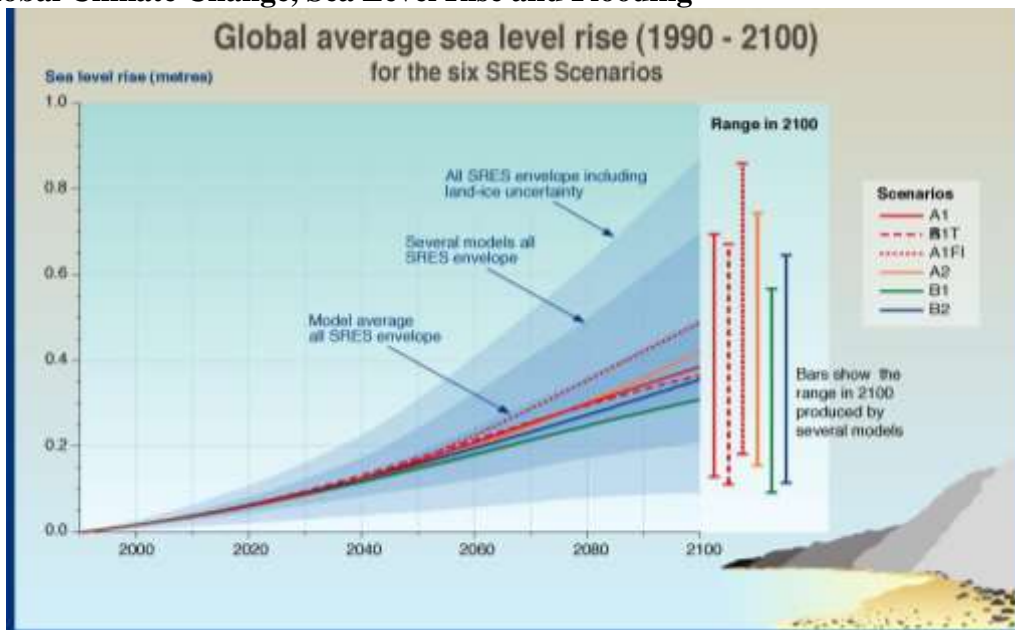
#### ANTHROPOGENIC (POOR MANAGEMENT OF URBAN INFRASTRUCTURE)

- ❖ Urbanisation and poor drainage systems
- ❖ Low drainage heads,
- ❖ Clogged drainage channels, negative gradient.

### Hydraulic analysis of leveling along Ikoyi Channel 7

DATA POINT	DISTANCE (m)	GRADIENT	WIDTH (m)	REMARKS
1	0.00	0.00		channel head
2	33.0	0.005		sediments laden
3	111.7	-0.003		stagnant water likely to reverse
4	157.2	0.008		sediment thickness is 0.85m,
5	174.2	-0.003		sediment thickness is 1.1m with stagnant water
6	195.7	0.002		absence of sediment in channel
7	256.9	0.002		water flows very slowly

### Global Climate Change, Sea Level Rise and Flooding



Estimates for the 20th century SLR show that global average sea level rose at a rate of 1.7 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>.

Global average sea level rise from 1990 to 2100 for the six Special Report on Emissions Scenario (SRES) to be between 0.25 to 0.45m by the end of the 21st century

### SOURCES OF SEA LEVEL RISE

SOURCE OF SEA LEVEL RISE	RATE OF SLR (mm /year)	
	1961-2003	1993-2003
a. Thermal expansion	0.42 ± 0.12	1.6 ± 0.5
b. Glaciers and ice caps	0.50 ± 0.18	0.77 ± 0.22
c. Greenland ice sheet	0.05 ± 0.12	0.21 ± 0.07
d. Antarctic ice sheet	0.14 ± 0.41	0.21 ± 0.35
e. Sum of individual climate contributions to sea level rise	1.1 ± 0.5	2.8 ± 0.7
f. Observed total sea level rise	1.8 ± 0.5*	3.1 ± 0.7*
Difference (f - e)	0.7 ± 0.7	0.3 ± 1.0

### Climate Change and Flooding

According to IPCC 2007 anticipated climate changes for the 2050s indicate that:

More extreme weather events with intense precipitation will be more frequent, increasing the risk of flooding; and higher storm surges will occur around the coasts and inlets, associated with rising sea levels.

Estimated number of people (in millions) that will be displaced by sea level scenarios (Awosika et al 1992)

SLR SCENARIOS	0.2m	0.5m	1.0m	2.0m
BARRIER	0.6	1.5	3.0	6.0
MUD	0.032	0.071	0.140	0.180
DELTA	0.10	0.25	0.47	0.21
STRAND	0.014	0.034	0.069	0.610
TOTAL	0.75	1.86	3.68	10.00
% TOTAL POP.	0.07	1.61	3.20	8.70

### **Integrated Monitoring of Floods**

Flood Monitoring and Prediction system is an integrated suite of multi-sensor applications which detects, analyzes, and monitors precipitation and generates warning guidance for flash flooding automatically.

#### Sensors:

- Rain gauge
- Wind gauge
- Temperature
- Humidity
- Sea levels (tide gauge)
- Seismometers

### **Flooding: Early Warning System (EWS) Components**

An EWS is a social process for generating maximally accurate information about possible future harm and for ensuring that this information reaches the people threatened by this harm.

- ❖ Earth movement monitoring devices (Seismographs)
- ❖ Analysis and Forecast of MET-OCEAN data from the TIDE gauge network via the communications network;
- ❖ Analysis of reoccurrence probability for FLOODING.

### **Flood Early Warning System (EWS)**

An Early Warning System (EWS) is a social process with integrated system and sensors comprising of both automatic devices for generating maximally accurate information about possible future harm.

The following constitute the basic design of EWS:

- ❖ Measurement and detection
- ❖ Data transmission;
- ❖ Data processing and analysis;
- ❖ Forecast preparation; and
- ❖ Forecast dissemination

### **Types of early FLOOD warning systems**

- **Manual flood warning systems**  
Simple and inexpensive and based on data collection by mostly voluntary on-site observers who deliver rainfall and river level data to a flood warning operator.
- **Simple automated flood warning systems**  
Consist of rainfall and water level monitoring stations that automatically deliver real-time data (e.g. via radio, telephone, satellite) to a flood warning operator.
- **Sophisticated flood warning system**  
Use real-time meteorological and hydrological data, in theoretical and empirical as well as hybrid hydraulic/ hydrological models to predict the possibility of flooding from excessive rainfall, storm surges and tsunami.

**The flood warning system must include a detailed response plan that covers actions such as:**

- Warning
  - Dissemination
  - Public information
  - Evacuation and rescue
  - Damage reduction
  - Recovery
  - Plan implementation
  - Plan maintenance
- 
- ❖ EWS for flooding in the river basins and
  - ❖ EWS for coastal flooding due to meteorological and seismically induced flooding.

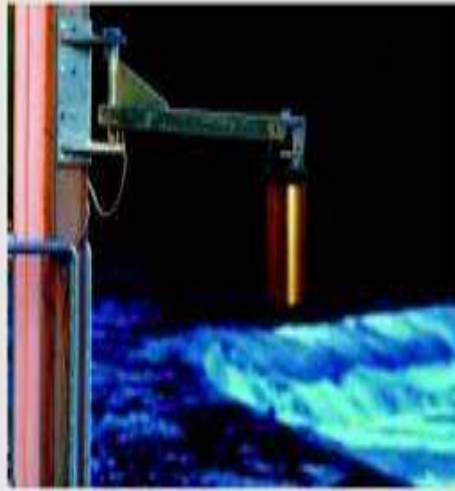
### **RIVER BASIN COMPONENT**

#### **Water Level:**

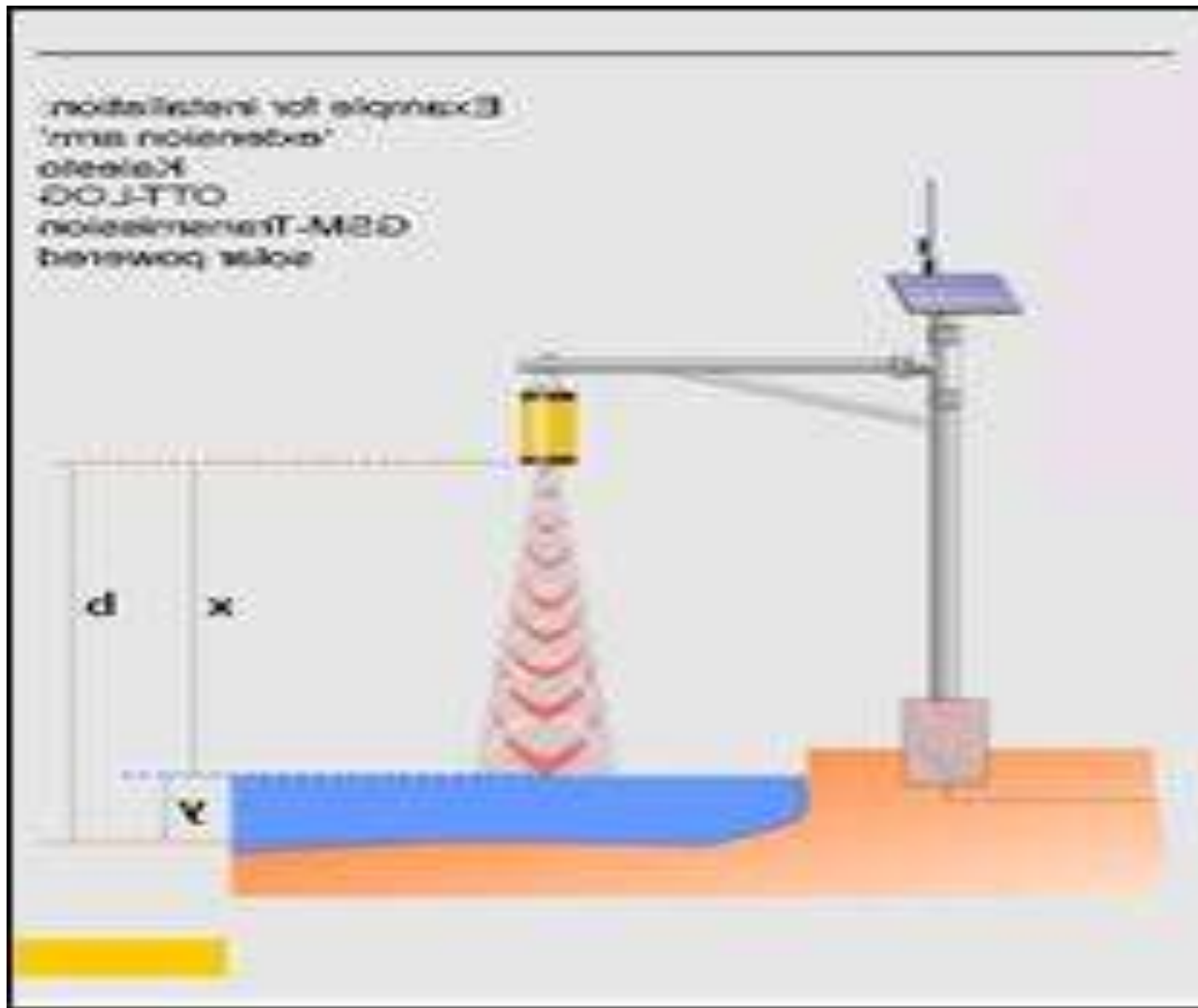
Consist of river gauges like the Kalesto radar water level measuring system that can store data automatically and send to a data processing center. The data center can process and disseminate warning to a central location. The water sensor can also have alert system to warn of astronomical high waters.



Sediment loaded rivers



Installation at a 'extension arm'

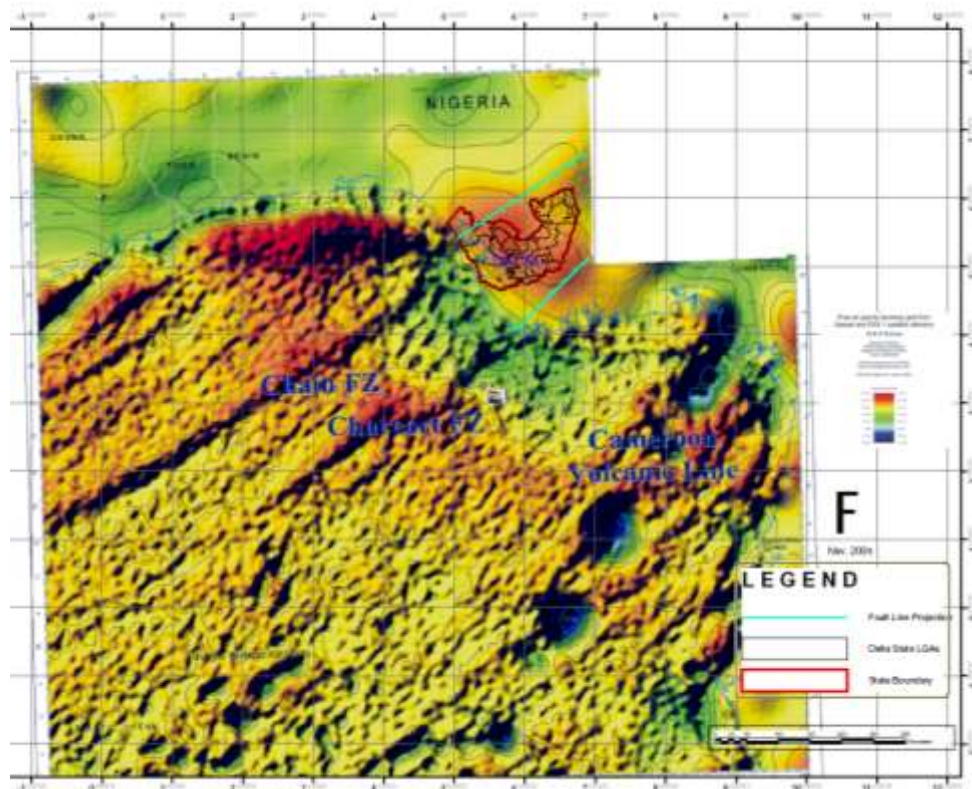


## KALESTRO RADAR WATER LEVEL MEASURING

## FLOOD EARLY WARNING SYSTEM DESIGN FOR NIGERIA: COASTAL AND MARINE COMPONENT

Installation of radar sensor tide gauges (Kalestro radar sensor) at strategic locations along the coast to monitor tidal oscillations and associated meteorological variables. Tide gauges should be networked with alarm system that will trigger an early warning system whenever there is an astronomical high water. 5 tide gauges are proposed at the following locations along the Nigerian coast as follows:

- ❖ Lagos (NIOMR has already acquired one Kalestro tide gauge with ancillary met sensor as GLOSS 259 station at the NIOMR jetty).
- ❖ Forcados
- ❖ Bonny
- ❖ Eket
- ❖ Offshore station on an oil platform (Agbami platform).



- ★ Tide gauge stations
- ☀ Seismograph stations

Free air gravity anomaly grid from Geosat and ERS satellite altimetry showing fracture zones, proposed locations of tide gauges and Seismographs.

## FLOOD EARLY WARNING SYSTEM DESIGN FOR NIGERIA : COASTAL AND MARINE COMPONENT: SEISMOGRAPH

Installation of seismographs at strategic locations both on shore and offshore to monitor earth tremors or movement. Such monitoring devices will measure possible micro seismicity that can generate tsunamis thereby providing data and information for EWS.



GEOPRO Seismograph (left) Offshore (right) Onshore

## **FLOOD EARLY WARNING SYSTEM DESIGN FOR NIGERIA: COASTAL AND MARINE COMPONENT:**

### **Communication Systems**

**For the effective implementation of the onshore and offshore based stations there must be a reliable communication system.**

The early warning signals from the Central coordinating center will serve as flood EWS operational center to make contact with all state government and local government, identified oil companies, institutions and agencies to take response actions, and initiate a wide variety of automated pre-programmed response actions by devices to mitigate the harmful effects of disasters.

### **CONCLUSION**

- ❖ Flood warning is a crucial part of a flood management system, but it can only be useful if it is integrated in pre and post flood activities.
- ❖ Flood EWS system must be integrated into national disaster reduction plan with clear definition of roles and responsibilities at all levels.

- ❖ The EWS should incorporate community-oriented programmes, including education programmes and modalities for community participation in the design of local early warning systems, and preparedness measures.
- ❖ EWS should also ensure improved data collection, availability of infrastructure for forecasting on different time scales.
- ❖ Above all, floods especially storm surges know no political boundaries hence any flood EWS for Nigeria should have links with regional and global EWS.

## Environmental Threats and Sustainable Development

### 2

**Bernice Heloo (Ph.D)**

#### **Abstract**

The paper is intended to provoke serious debate on the relationship between environmental threats and sustainable development in Africa. It highlights the various forms of environmental threat and their impact on man in general and the Africa continent, specifically. Remedies to the problem created by these environmental threats are also specified.

#### **Introduction**

Since time immemorial, people from various spheres of life have expressed concern for environmental degradation. I wish to refer to this quote from Joseph Wood Krutch, an American writer, critic, and naturalist who lived between 1893 and 1970 which resonates very well with me as an environmentalist which I find very relevant for our discussion today and I quote-"If people destroy something replaceable made by mankind, they are called vandals; if they destroy something irreplaceable made by God, they are called developers" I am sure other religions will have verses in their holy books on God's instruction in respect of keeping or conserving his creation. For Christians, the instruction from God in respect of environmental conservation is clearly stated in Genesis Chapter 2; 15. "The LORD God took man and put him in the Garden of Eden to work it and take care of it" (NIV). I want to believe that if man had taken God's instruction about working and taking care of God's creation seriously, we would not have woken up one day and realized that we had gone astray; destroyed everything God created in the quest for development and that we needed international diplomacy and a new paradigm to reverse the harm done to the environment and to ensure sustenance of life on earth. Mr. Chairman, I am talking about the setting up of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) (the Brundtland Commission) and the publication of the Commission's report in 1987 which gave birth to the Concept of Sustainable Development:

#### **The Brundtland Report defines sustainable development as:**

"development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" This concept hinges on three pillars to drive the realization of its goal and objectives: Environment, Social and Economic pillars. The foregoing suggests that we cannot talk about sustainable development without talking about the environment and specifically, environmental threats when sustainable development of Africa is concerned. The topic for this Annual Seminar,

“Environmental Threats and Sustainable Development in Africa” therefore cannot be more opportune.

The Environment both as a victim or a driver can play a pivotal role in human security and well-being and subsequently affect sustainable development. The threats of the environment to sustainable development was instrumental in the formation of the sub-program within the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP) called Disaster and Conflict sub-program which aims at enhancing understanding and reducing the impact of environmental degradation from disasters and conflicts on human health, livelihoods and security. Since 1999 this sub-program of UNEP has responded to crisis situations in more than 40 countries including many countries in Africa, delivering wide-ranging environmental expertise to national governments and other partners. Threats to the environment can result from poor management, over exploitation of natural resources and natural disasters.

Regardless of the cause, threats to the environment can lead to dwindling natural resources including: water, food, fuel wood etc with its associated conflicts and increased exposure and vulnerability to poverty and diseases. Although Africa has experienced its fair share of natural disasters, the main threats to the environment result from poor management and overexploitation of natural resources. For the purposes of this seminar, I will direct my submission to the Oil and Gas sector since this year's seminar aims at addressing current trends in criminal activities and various environmental challenges associated with oil and gas production in the coastal and oil producing regions of Nigeria and other parts of Africa. The environmental issues faced by the oil and gas exploration and production industry can be broadly characterized as:

- i) Habitat destruction and biodiversity loss,
- ii) Emission of pollutants and GHGs-climate change and variability
- iii) Marine and freshwater discharges
- iv) Spatial and land use challenges

### **Incidents of Oil spills**

There are also social impacts on local communities as a result of activities of operators within both the upstream and downstream industries.

It is important to mention that these broad categories of environmental threats associated with the oil and gas industry have been captured in the third Africa Environment Outlook report prepared by UNEP this year. This policy document focuses on the linkages between environment and health because of the recognition that environmental factors contribute about 28% of Africa's disease burden and provides policy recommendation for addressing the environmental issues identified in order to achieve sustainable development in Africa.

The policy recommendation provided which are relevant to addressing environmental threats associated with the oil and gas industry include:

**Monitoring of general environmental degradation:** developing baseline environmental data and sensitivity maps.

**Biodiversity:** Scaling up the capacity of lead agencies to address wetland conservation, coastal and marine degradation, fostering participatory management and ensuring benefit sharing Emission of GHGs, Climate Change and variability: Stepping up climate resilient national development planning through NAMAs, investment in climate sensitive areas such as agriculture and infrastructure through

robust planning Marine and freshwater discharges: developing environmental standards and implementing integrated coastal zone management plans Spatial and land use challenges: preparing regional spatial development and land use frameworks including local and structural plans.

**Incidents of Oil spills:** Developing emergency oil spill contingency plans In Ghana, the Ministry of Environment, Science, Technology and Innovation has identified and established collaboration with relevant institutions in Norway towards building local capacity to address the threats identified.

Moving forward, it will be beneficial and necessary to create the platform that will facilitate knowledge and experience sharing among industry players and technical institutions within Africa.

This paper was adopted from my address on Deputy Minister on the Ministry of environment, science, technology and innovation, Ghana at the 2013 Peace Environment Justice retreat held at Yenagoa, Bayelsa State Nigeria.

**3**

**Environmental Impact of Renewable Energy and Management Dilemma**

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**Abstract**

Energy from petroleum – oil and gas – constitutes the conventional energy source used worldwide. However, scientists have predicted that petroleum which is a fossil fuel is finite and exhaustible. In addition to this, petroleum usage produces greenhouse gases, which contributes significantly to climate change. These two principal factors amongst others call for the need to source for renewable sources of energy which are free from the identified problems of the conventional fossil energy. However, these sources of energy also have impact on the environment and those who manage these sources face some dilemma. The environmental impact of renewable energy is examined in this article together with the dilemma faced by those who manage the renewable energy sources.

**Introduction**

Renewable energy is energy generated from sources which occur naturally and repeatedly in the environment (Thornton, R. & Beckwith, S., 2004). It is replenishable in the human scale (Anyaku, O. 2005). Such sources include wind, waves, the sun, biomass, the tide, landfill gas, sewage treatment, plant gas. Energy from oil, gas and coal is regarded as fossil fuel energy. Scientists claimed that fossil fuel is finite and exhaustible. On the other hand, environmentalists claimed that the use of fossil fuel contributes significantly to environmental pollution. This is because the combustion of fossil fuel produces what are called greenhouse gases – gases which heat up the ozone layer and cause climate change. These two factors coupled with other factors to be considered below make it imperative for the need to source for other sources of energy. This is responsible for the clamour for alternative sources of energy, particularly renewable sources of energy that are thought to be free from the identified problems of the conventional fossil energy. This article examines the environmental impact of the renewable energy. In doing this, the article considers the management dilemma against the background of the sources of renewable energy and their advantages.

## **Sources of Renewable Energy**

Typical sources of renewable energy include:

- (i) Hydro energy
- (ii) Solar energy
- (iii) Bio energy (biomass)
- (iv) Wind energy
- (v) Firewood

These sources have not been fully explored and developed in Nigeria. Apart from hydro energy and solar energy which have been exploited to some extent, the rest are still in the basic or preliminary stages of exploitation.

### ***Hydro-energy***

Water may be used for the direct production of electricity. The areas in which this is done are hydroelectric schemes, tidal power and wave power (Harker, J. H., & Backhurst, J. R., 1981). Hydroelectric power is generated by water flowing from a high level to a low level, at a high efficiency. In order to generate electricity, water is allowed to flow from the higher level through a device which converts the kinetic energy of the water into rotational kinetic energy of rotor which is linked to a generator to produce the required electricity (Harker, J. H., & Backhurst, J. R., 1981). Nigeria has the Kainji Dam Hydroelectric Power Station on the River Niger, the Shiroro and Jebba electric power generating dams and the Mandila Dam which have different power generating capacities for the national grid.

### ***Solar Energy***

Solar energy involves the direct utilization of the sun's radiant energy as it reaches the earth (McMullan, J. T. et al., 1990; Atsegbua, L., Akpotaire, V., & Dimowo, F., 2010). Solar energy is used to generate electricity. The beauty of using solar energy is that it does not cause pollution, it is cheap and environment friendly.

In Nigeria, solar energy is an emerging area of scientific research and technological application with exciting possibility. There is a bright future for solar energy application in Nigeria because as a tropical country, there is abundant sunshine and the length of day varies very little during the year. In many major cities in Nigeria, solar energy is now used to generate electricity particularly for street lights. Solar energy provides a viable source of energy for rural communities in Nigeria. The use of solar energy will reduce the dependence on fossil fuel, thereby contributing to the economic development of Nigeria. In India, many rural communities now have access to solar energy power. This development shows that solar energy has a future in developing countries.

### ***Biomass***

Biomass encompasses a wide range of different actual and potential energy applications (Bradbrook, A. J., 197). Many of these are directly related to the production of electricity. These include the use of residues or the growth of crops in energy farms specifically designed to create fuel for burning in electricity generating stations. Electricity can also be generated by the exploitation of landfill gas in municipal waste dumps. Other uses of biomass are directed at fuel substitution, in particular, the partial replacement of petroleum products by ethanol and or methanol as a transportation fuel (Johnson, T. B., Kelly, H., Reddy, A. K., et al. 1994). The partial replacement of petroleum products has an important environmental side-

effect in that carbon-dioxide atmospheric emissions from biomass are zero if new biomass is grown to replace that which is consumed.

One typical source of bio-energy is biogas. This is gas that is generated by the digestion of animal waste under anaerobic conditions. The practice is to charge a vessel with animal waste after which the vessel is closed. There is an outlet to which a Bunsen burner is connected. After a day or two, some bacteria in the waste which function in the absence of air catalyse the conversion of organic waste to cooking gas.

Biomass technology is well developed in the United States, India and Brazil. In Nigeria, the technology is at its infancy. In 2005, the Nigerian national Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) launched the fuel ethanol initiative in Nigeria. The project which is expected to utilize sugar cane and cassava for the production of ethanol fuel, has the potential of making available up to 10 percent of the fuel being consumed currently in Nigeria (Kieriseiye, D., 1981). The project seeks to develop a sustainable bio-fuel industry in Nigeria in collaboration with the petroleum sector (NNPC, 2006). This project is known as the NNPC Automobile Biomass Ethanol Programme. The Renewable Energy Division (RED) was primarily created to champion the implementation of the programme. Biomass ethanol programme will increase economic development, and diversify energy source. It will also generate co-products (bagasse) that can be used as feedstock to power generation units.

### **Wind Energy**

Wind energy is becoming increasingly used in many countries for electricity generation, both in respect of small scale single generators designed for domestic use and in respect of large-scale electricity generations commonly referred to as “wind farms”. Access to the resources is essential in the case of wind energy if wind generators are to operate efficiently. Because the power obtained from the wind varies as the cube of its velocity, even relatively minor obstructions to the wind are capable of causing a large reduction in the production capacity of a wind generator. A legal means of protecting access of the wind to wind generators must be established. The application of wind energy in useful purposes in Nigeria is limited.

### ***Firewood***

Firewood is the primary source of energy in many rural communities in Nigeria. It is used for cooking and heating. There is an abundant supply of firewood in Nigeria. However, the use of firewood has an enormous environmental cost since firewood is derived from the forest. In order to reduce this high environmental cost, government must provide a cheap and environmentally friendly alternative.

### **The Need For Renewable Energy**

Renewable energy is needed for various reasons.

- (i) It is clean and causes less or no pollution. Ethanol fuel is used in Brazil and United States because of this advantage
- (ii) It is renewable. It is made from plants so it is replenishable.
- (iii) The use of renewable energy reduces the dependence on fossil fuel.
- (iv) It increases economic development.
- (v) It leads to creation of jobs and reduces unemployment.
- (vi) Use of renewable energy frees more crude oil for export.
- (vii) It diversifies energy source.

### **The Problems of Renewable Energy and Management Dilemma**

Although renewable energy has so many advantages, it has its own share of problems. These problems constitute the dilemma of the legal management regime to harness renewable energy.

Full exploitation of renewable energy will definitely require legal change, so a legal management regime is essential. The existence of such a regime can be regarded as the central core of the law in this area as it is an essential prerequisite for significant investment to occur.

The legal regime must give adequate protection to the legitimate expectations of all persons and companies who may choose to invest in energy technology. This applies to both manufacturers and consumers. To take one obvious illustration, why would a consumer choose to invest in a solar device if the collector panels could at any stage be shaded by trees or buildings erected on neighbouring land and there is no legal safeguard for the right of solar access? Why would a manufacturer of renewable energy or energy conservation products trade in a country where there are now adequate taxation incentives under local tax laws, especially when differing and more favourable tax treatment is given to non-renewable resources? In the field of non-renewable energy resources, significant private investment never occur without the prior establishment of a legal regime deemed satisfactory to private enterprise. In most countries one can contrast the dearth of national legislation concerning renewable energy and energy conservation with the favourable regulatory taxation regimes enacted in respect of the oil and gas industry. Equivalent legislation is required for renewable energy and energy conservation before these technologies will achieve significant market penetration.

### **Problems of Solar Energy and Management Dilemma**

There are many different applications of solar energy. The most significant ones are solar water heating, electricity generation by photovoltaic cells, solar thermal systems, and active and passive heating and cooling systems for buildings. Despite the differing nature of the solar technologies, they share in common the fact that all require access to the sun's rays during a period of approximately six hours centred on the zenith position of the sun. Solar access constitutes a legal issue because except at midday at certain times of the year in tropical latitudes, the sun is never overhead at any location. The effect of this is that sunlight reaching a solar device on the solar user's land will have to pass through the skyspace of one or more neighbouring properties. During this passage the sunlight may be blocked by vegetation or buildings, and if this occurs, the solar collector panels will be shaded. Legislation is required to protect a solar user's right of solar access, as any solar device will be rendered economically worthless if it does not have direct access to the sun's rays during the designated six-hour period of the day (Bradbrook, A. J., 1997).

Solar access could be protected if the solar users enter into a covenant with their neighbours to prevent the neighbours from blocking the sun's rays to the solar collector panels. A different access would be the use of planning laws. This approach would appear to be preferable as solar access protection is more genuinely related to planning law than to property law. For new land developments, solar access could best be protected by requiring the local planning authorities to take solar access into account when determining whether or not to approve a planning application.

Another legal management dilemma is legal barriers which constitute further impediment to the utilization of solar energy. One such barrier is the existence of various agreements or covenants on land titles designed to enhance the amenity of the neighbourhood which, while not aimed directly at solar devices, have the effect of legally excluding such devices. An illustration is a covenant which imposes height and or setback requirements from the front boundary line, or which precludes “appliances and installations on roofs” (Kraemer, S. F., 1978). In many cases, these covenants were imposed several decades ago, long before the current public interest in the protection of solar access arose. The way out of this dilemma is a legislative framework which contains a provision entitling the courts in their discretion to discharge such a covenant in the public interest, provided that this can be done without causing injustice to the person or persons in whose favour the covenant was originally made.

A further dilemma is regulations controlling the construction and design of buildings. These regulations are often drafted without taking account of solar development and leave basic questions unclear, such as the need to obtain a building permit for the erection of a solar device or the operation of height and setback requirements in solar context (Bradbrook, A. J., 1984). While a building permit may reasonably be required in the case of a large-scale, independently sited solar device such as a thermal power station or a photovoltaic array, it would seem unreasonable in the case of common domestic solar systems attached to the roofs of houses. The effort, expense and delays associated with the need to comply with the appropriate building regulations may be sufficient to deter potential purchasers of solar devices. An exemption to the operation of the building regulations for normal domestic solar uses should be included in a legislative arrangement to solve this dilemma.

Another impediment is a miscellaneous legislation impeding the installation of solar devices. This legislation differs from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, but commonly includes heritage legislation designed to protect buildings of historic significance, legislation designed to enhance the environmental qualities of a particular area (for example, to preserve a treed landscape), legislation granting local councils power to erect tree plantations on the streets and public land, and controls contained in various enactments concerning transmission of electricity across boundary lines, or any sale of electricity to other persons. The most important of these restrictions is heritage legislation. One way of getting out of this dilemma is that common domestic solar device should be given a statutory exemption from the operation of the legislation. Another alternative is to redraft such legislation so as to find a means of reconciling such legislation with the public policy of encouraging the use of solar energy.

### **Wind Energy and Management Dilemma**

The main dilemma of wind energy use is access to wind. As in the case of solar energy, wind access can be protected if the wind user enters into restrictive covenant with upwind landowners not to build or to allow vegetation to grow in areas of their property where the velocity of the wind reaching the generator would be affected. This is inadequate as a universal remedy to the problem as neighbouring landowners may refuse to agree to the establishment of restrictive covenant over their land, or may only agree subject to the payment of an unrealistic price.

Like solar access, wind access could be protected by the use of either property laws or planning laws.

Possible hazards associated with wind energy generation include noise and vibrations, blade throwing, fire damage, interference with television or radio reception (Bradbrook, A. J., 1984). It would be unrealistic to introduce a legislation to eliminate civil liability of a wind user. So there is scope for the wind user to incur civil legal liability to neighbouring landowner in certain circumstances. This indeed is a dilemma. One method of minimizing the possibility of the above hazards occurring, and to ensure that the advantages and safeguards of modern technology are built into wind generators in the future, is for national governments to prescribe product safety standards or to prepare a standard relating to the manufacture of wind generators non-compliance could be made an offence punishable by a substantial fine, and an injunction would lie to restrain a person from engaging in conduct that constitutes, or would constitute a contravention of the prescribed standards.

### **Biomass and Management Dilemma**

The management dilemma of biomass may be considered from two aspects. The first aspect is that biomass energy production requires the planting of biomass crops such as cassava and sugar cane. There are staple and edible food in many rural communities who do not even have access to motor vehicles. The use of arable land for the production of cassava and sugar cane designed to produce ethanol for one hundred percent automobile fuel or gasoline fuel substitution is a serious challenge to the rural farmers since the fuel produced is not used by them, but mostly used by urban dwellers. Thus, the local community dwellers would prefer their land to be used for the cultivation of cassava and sugar cane for consumption rather than for the production of renewable energy.

The second aspect is biogas. Biogas is produced as cooking gas from the anaerobic digestion of animal waste. In India where biogas use is very popular, inhabitants of small villages release their human waste, including excreta to a central enclosed reservoir for this purpose. Human excreta contain disease carrying pathogens. So the use of biogas has inherent health implications.

The solution to the above drawbacks would be to provide in legislative framework that planning laws should ensure there is no impediment to the use of land for the growing of fuel crops. Secondly, health safety standards should be introduced for all biogas plants.

### **Hydroenergy and Management Dilemma**

Small hydropower systems require rights of access to and the use of rivers and streams. It is accordingly submitted that the solution lies in a legislative framework that should contain provisions designed to ensure that the legal management regimes in existence for rivers should be amended to permit the use by riparian owners, of the rivers and streams for small hydropower schemes.

### **Recommendations**

#### **(a) Planning Law Approvals**

Under current planning law in most jurisdictions, renewable energy access is not listed as a relevant factor in planning approvals (Renewable Obligations Order 2002 (SI 200/914) made under the authority of the Electricity Act (UK) 1982, s.32). It is recommended that access to renewable energy or renewable energy access protection should be a major factor to consider in planning laws.

(b) **Fiscal Incentive**

In order to promote and encourage investment in renewable energy, fiscal incentive should be guaranteed to potential investors. Such incentives may be in the form of tax holidays and import waivers.

(c) **Compulsory Expenditure on Renewable Energy**

There should be put in place a legislative arrangement that could impose the requirement that multinational oil companies or other major companies should spend each year a designated percentage of their profit toward the development of renewable energy projects.

(d) **Heritage Legislation and Building Permits**

Heritage legislation and building permits are impediments to renewable energy use. It is accordingly recommended that heritage legislation should be redrafted to reconcile the legislation with the public policy of encouraging the use of renewable energy. In the case of small domestic buildings, building permits should be exempted.

(e) **Renewable Energy Obligation**

The renewable energy obligation requires electricity suppliers to supply to customers a proportion of electricity generation from eligible renewable sources. For example European Commission Renewable Directive on member states require to set targets for the consumption of electricity produced from renewable sources. Also, United Kingdom Renewable Obligation requires electricity suppliers to supply to customers a proportion of electricity generated from eligible renewable sources (Renewable Obligations Order 2002 SI 2002/914 made under the authority of the Electricity Act (UK) 1982 s.32).

(f) **Ethanol Substitution of Leaded Petrol**

Leaded petrol causes serious atmospheric pollution. In most countries, the use of petrol for motor vehicle use is reducing. Brazil is reported to be relying on one hundred percent ethanol fuel for their motor vehicles. In other jurisdictions, petrol producers are mandatorily required to substitute a given percentage of petrol with ethanol. This approach is recommended for Nigeria so that the environment may be free from lead pollution.

(g) **Removal of Legislative Barriers**

All pieces of legislation that pose impediments to the use or development of renewable energy should be removed.

(h) **Training and Awareness Campaign**

It is suggested that a scheme should be established to train and educate people on the new technology of renewable energy while efforts should be made to maintain sustained campaigns on the need to use and invest in renewable energy.

(i) **Comprehensive Legal Regime on Renewable Energy**

There should be established a comprehensive legal framework for renewable energy in Nigeria.

## **Conclusion**

Energy is very vital for economic growth and development. In Nigeria, economic growth and energy consumption are low due to overdependence on fossil fuel. If renewable energy resources are fully explored and developed, Nigeria will experience a high GDP and energy consumption pattern will also increase. Dependence on fossil oil makes most countries vulnerable because of the vagaries of cost and production. Renewable energy as an alternative source of energy is cheap and environmentally friendly. In order to harness the vast renewable energy

resources in Nigeria so as to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), the government through the Energy Commission should put in place a policy on renewable energy. Such a policy would attract multinational investors. In addition, legislation on renewable energy resources should grant fiscal incentives to investors. Investment protection codes, bilateral investment treaties, assuring foreign investors of stability in contractual relationships, and consenting to investment dispute settlement mechanism will provide foreign investors the enabling environment for investing in renewable energy.

For over five decades, the Nigerian economy has depended on fossil fuel. The time is now ripe for diversification if Nigeria's economic and development goals are to be attained globally. Developing economies like Nigeria should put in an enabling legal framework on renewable energy resources so as to halt the over dependence on fossil fuel. Unless this is done, Nigeria will be left behind in her quest for economic development.

Generally, as compared to fossil fuel, renewable energy is environmental friendly. However, renewable energy has its own share of environmental problems. But some sources of renewable energy such as biomass (ethanol fuel) and solar energy do not have much of the environmental problems such as pollution and climate change associated with fossil fuel.

Wind energy as a renewable energy source creates a lot of environmental problems. Wind engines cause very serious noise pollution and vibrations because of the nature of the equipment used in constructing wind farms. Besides, wind blades are prone to be flown away. This is besides the point that it is susceptible to fire accident.

In the case of hydropower, the likely collapse of a water dam portends disastrous environmental consequences which may lead to flooding, with concomitant effects.

As regards biomass energy, the planting of fuel crops may lead to competition between crops for food and crops for fuel. This stiff competition may result in over utilization of land which may have detrimental environmental effect. The over harvesting of these crops may lead to deficiency in carbon dioxide consumption by plants. This means there may be excess carbon dioxide concentration in the atmosphere which may lead to climate change as carbon dioxide is a green house gas.

And for solar energy, the need to protect solar access may lead to the removal of some trees and vegetation which may add aesthetic beauty to environment.

This is also applicable to wind energy since the need to provide access to wind energy may result in the cutting down of trees and vegetation that may obstruct wind flow.

It follows from the above that although renewable energy has comparative advantages over fossil fuel, renewable energy itself has serious impact on the environment. How to balance these problems with the advantages is the main dilemma of the legal management regime.

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**Environmental Resource Scarcity and the Challenges of Peace and Sustainable Development in Africa**

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**Abstract**

The paper examines challenges environmental resource scarcity and its impact on peace and sustainable development in Africa. Africans perceive the environment as an inextricable bastion of their existence and also take practical steps to protect and nurture the environment to achieve self-sufficient food supply. Quite sadly, Africa has been experiencing problems of environmental scarcity that is traceable to population explosion, climate variability, and situating the discourse within the political economy framework, the paper argues that the problem of environmental resource scarcities is exacerbated by the advent of western capitalist investors. Capitalist exploitation of environmental resource put profit over and above the welfare of both human beings and environment. Thus, the environment is degraded and the resources depleted. Consequently, Africa, a continent hitherto known for environmental resource surplus is now retrogressively notorious for acute environmental scarcities. The pervasive environmental resources scarcities elicit different shades of violent behaviour posing threat to peace and sustainable development. In order to come out of this predicament, the paper recommends among others that effective environment management policies must be put in place to revert Africa back to environmental sustainability and self-sufficiency.

**Key Words:** Africa, Environment, Peace, Sustainable development, Political economy.

## **Introduction**

Africa is the second largest and second most populated continent in the world. The first being Asia which hosts both China and India. In 2008, while Africa had a population of 0.92 billion, China and India had a population of 1.33 billion and 1.14 billion respectively. It is worthy to know that two countries China and India in the largest continent of the world have populations individually that are far greater than the whole of African continent. Africa as a continent host about 14.2 percent of the world's population with a total land area of 20.4 percent and covers about 30.2 million km<sup>2</sup> occupying 6 percent of the world surface area. African continent is bound in the North by the Mediterranean sea, the Suez Canal in the Northeast, in the southeast by the Indian ocean and in the West by the Atlantic Ocean. The central location of the continent makes it accessible by sea from Europe, America and Asia.

Besides, its central location and its accessibility from Europe, America, and Asia, Africa is a strategic continent in terms of precious and enormous resources in its environment. In addition to the abundant crude oil resources, Africa has manganese for steel production, chrome and cobalt-vital raw materials for alloys and aeronautics. It also has gold, vanadium, antimony, flourspar and germanium. In specific terms, 98 percent of the world's chrome reserves are found in Zimbabwe and South Africa while the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Zambia alone possess 50 percent of the world's cobalt reserve. Angola, Liberia, Ghana, Sierra Leone are major producers of gold and diamond.

The continent is also endowed with a viable environment for agriculture and related economic activities. The ecosystem of the Gulf of Guinea has a bionetwork of diverse fauna and flora. The Congo basin possesses the world's second largest reserve of rainforest and attractive habitat for diverse animals and other forest resources. Apart from the rainforest, the ecosystem has large expanse of arable land for agriculture. For instance, Cote'd Ivoire is the world's largest producer of cocoa and the second producer of coffee. At the level of subsistence, the environment offers the people various occupational options that revolve around farming, fishing, hunting and other environmentally linked economic activities.

With these natural resources in the African environment, the people still experience violent conflicts that are linked to environmental scarcities. This makes sustainable peace and development evasive in the continent. It is thus, a fundamental nexus that this paper charts to explore with a view to establishing the root causes of the environmental scarcities and their implication for peace and sustainable development in Africa.

## **Conceptual Clarifications: Environment Peace and Sustainable Development**

- **Environment:** Environment is conceptualized in a variety of ways drawn from a broad array of disciplines. The environment is a combination of the elements whose complex interrelationships make up the settings, the surroundings and the conditions of life of the individual and society. There are four basic components that characterised an environment. These are the atmosphere, hydrosphere, lithosphere and the biosphere. There exists a complex system of interaction within the components of the environment otherwise known as the ecosystem that human beings depended on for their

existential requirements (Chanlett 1973, May 1973 Canter 1977, Adriano 1986, Kormondy 1991, Okokesusi 1992, Bell 2004). The meaning and relevance of environment to human beings is aptly captured by Asthana & Asthana thus:

*The environment encompasses the waters, the soil on which we stand and the living and non living organism... it is from the environment that we get food to eat, water to drink, air to breathe and it is from the environment that human beings get all the necessities of the day to day life (Asthana & Asthana 2003:3).*

The assertion succinctly epitomized the importance and indispensability of the environment. Central to the usefulness of an environment is the concept of resources. Resources are any component of the environment that are capable of satisfying human needs. A resource is not merely a tangible object but also a functional relationship that exist between people's needs, their capabilities and their attitude towards the worth of an environment (Zimmermann 1951), Mitchell (1989) stressed further that availability of a resource, not merely physical presence is the major criterion of resources. Availability is in turn dependent on human needs and abilities.

The utility value of a resource is achieved through resource development. Resource development represents the actual exploitation or use of a resource either as a commodity or service to serve human needs and aspirations. Resource development incorporates placing value extraction and processing so that a neutral stuff becomes a resource to be used to meet human needs (Fajingbes 1999). The nature and manner in which a given resource is developed is determined by people attitudes towards the worth of an environment. This will in turn create the scarcity or abundance of environmental resources irrespective of whether the resource is in land, water or atmosphere, renewable or non renewable (Zimmerman 1964, Brown 2004).

- **Peace:** The concept of peace derives its meaning from the Latin word; *pax* or the Hebrew word *shalom* which both means freedom from disorder, injustice and violence and insecurity. This conceptualization set aside the traditional conception of peace as merely the absence of war. It is no doubt that, peace exists when society or group are not engaged in any form of violent conflict. It is also evident at the micro level, in which the preoccupation is the state of mind being in harmony and balance.

Sociologically speaking, peace is a value that emanates from just human relationships which enhances social harmony and social equilibrium. The concept of peace is both an ethical virtue and an axiological value that is necessary for the perfection of both the individual and the achievement of justice and well being in society. It is an adornment and one of humanity's highest values which increases the worth and dignity of the individual. A peaceful society is not just that which is not experiencing war but that in which justice reigns, where the equality of humans and the pursuit of the welfare and happiness of the greatest number of people become the ambition and priority of leaders in society. In a nutshell, peace is simply the absence of war, violence dissension, hostility, and disturbance or agitation freedom from disputes, anxiety. It is a state of human relationship that is characterized by harmony, concord and tranquility (Rummel 1981, Ikejiani-Clark & Ani 2009).

## ▪ **Sustainable Development**

Sustainable development is a multidimensional concept that is anchored on environment, development and society. In the 1987, the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) under the Chairmanship of Gro Harlem Brundtland published a book entitled *Our Common Future*. It was a pioneer attempt to link poverty, to natural resources management and the state of the environment (Pretty & Ward 2002). The commission defined sustainable development as a development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generation to meet their own needs (WCED 1987). United Nations Conference on Environment and Development held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 which took many themes from much earlier in Stockholm in 1972 lend credence to the meaning of sustainable development (World Development 1992, Serageldon 1993, Steer & Luz 1993).

Sustainable development is a societal progress that is though tied to the environment but does not endanger the environment and the resources for present and future generations. In other words, it is self sustaining and meets the needs of present and future generation (Segynola 2004) sustainable development is a dynamic framework that has the capacity to eliminate poverty and ensure equitable distribution of wealth, provide people with job options and opportunities, protect the environmental resource base in the land, water and air. All these must take place within an enabling political climate and governance (Habitat 1994).

## **The Environment and the Development of Economic Resources in African Tradition**

Human survival is closely and intricately linked to the environment. Africans are no exception. The environment occupies a prime place in indigenous African cultural milieu. The environment was an object of profuse reverence. Africans perceived the environment as an inextricable bastion of their existential base. African environment comprises land, deserts, mountain, rivers, lakes, as well as vegetation. These components are home to both diminutive and huge mammals. It also contains fauna which includes domesticated and wild, herbivorous and carnivorous species. The water body is home to a variety of fishes and aquatic creatures (Beinart & McGregor 2003).

Land is perceived as the most valuable of all the components of the environment. This is succinctly underscored by Olagbeuye thus:

*All life depends on land ... for people are born in hospitals and homes that are constructed on land. The only means of subsistence namely food is cultivated on land. Life's basic needs are expressed to be food, clothing and shelter. But it is true to assert that there is one essential or basic need of life and that is land because food, clothing and shelter are entirely derived from land... (Okaba 2004:9).*

The land is not seen as just an inanimate economic factor of production out there to be bruised and pillaged in order to satisfy human basic needs. The land is akin to a mortal with a life of its own. The land and the entire environment is inhabited by pantheon of spirits, spirits some of whom have apparently crystallized

as gods. Across African, these gods are continually appeased and venerated in recurrent festivals (with different nomenclature and seasons) which are set aside to celebrate environmentally induced accomplishments. The lakes, rivers, seas and that the water body is the abode of aquatic spirits and gods. In most traditional coastal societies, *Olokun* – the goddess of the river are highly revered with occasional festivals celebrated.

The celebration of the festivals is illustrative portrayal of the premium that Africans in traditional epoch place on the environment. They represent a celebration on environmental fertility and a symbolic recompense for the supportive role of the production of bountiful harvest and the sustenance of life. Apart from the veneration of the environment, Africans take practical steps to protect and nurture the environment to be able to give a maximum yield. At intervals of three years or more, the farmlands are allowed to go fallow as an ingenious effort of the Africans to ventilate and rejuvenate lost nutrients. Traditional ponds, lakes and rivers in most African societies adopt closed season and closed area as traditional water resources management techniques. The closed season could be the interval of 2-6 years before the traditional ponds, lakes, streams and rivers are harvested. It is to enable all the fishes to grow to harvestable size. The closed area is a permanent restriction order placed on certain lakes or rivers from being harvested, so that it can supply the closed season water resource. The forests were equally venerated. With these cultural mechanisms in place, abundance was unleashed as people could produce more than they could eat themselves.

### **Environmental Resource Scarcities: Complexities and Causation**

The African environment that was well known for its sustainability and abundance of environmental resources has gradually lost its glory. The productive capacity of the environment that hitherto unleashed surpluses have over the years witnessed a gross decline ushering in acute environmental resource scarcities. In other words, many societies in Africa have realized that the environment and the natural resources there entrusted to meet their basic needs are dwindling. Thus, creating problem of malnourishment and other health challenges that are related to environmental resource scarcities. This problem of environmental resource scarcities is traceable population explosion, climate variability and capitalist multinational environmental resource exploiters.

All African states are experiencing population density with greater proportion of the population residing in rural areas. Also worthy of note, is that majority of these rural settlers rely on land and agriculture as their mainstay: Approximately, only 21 percent representing 630 million hectares is suitable for cultivation. The direct dependency of most Africans on land and the substantial economic dependence of many African states on agriculture create a peculiar problem for land in Africa. It has now come to a point, where population now outgrows available land (Meyer 1987). In other words, there are too many people making too many demands on their natural resources stocks and their institutional support system. The implication is that insufficient land puts a constraint on bush following. Farmers are compelled to cultivate a piece of land continually until it loses its fertility and brings low yield. The pastoralists too also suffer a similar fate. This was evident in Kwazulu – Natal in South Africa, Mozambique, Rwanda and East Africa (Mkhondo 1993, Brook 1995, Fig 1996, Andre & Platteau 1998, Urdal 2005).

The second factor that is responsible for environmental resource scarcities in Africa is the impact of climate variability. Africa is experiencing extreme climate weather that manifest in various forms of ecological disaster including flood, drought, precipitation and tsunami with serious implications for environmental resource scarcity. Floods destroy crops and animals and the general means of livelihood. In most cases, even if the flood does not cover the farmsteads, it is extremely difficult to assess them. It becomes more compounded as people are displaced. This explains the acute scarcity of staple food and other farm related produce including forest resources in most states in Nigeria. Ethiopia experienced precipitation deficits from January – June of 2000 that exceeded 100mm. the drought also affect Kenya. In both countries, several persons had acute food shortage and hunger to contend with during and after the ecological disaster.

The African environment departs from its traditional environmental resource abundance with the penetration of multinational companies. Various transnational companies came to different parts of Africa to prospect for fossil fuel and other non renewable natural resources including diamond, gold etc. The exploratory activities of these companies unleash the greatest problem of environmental resource scarcities through devastating degradation of the environment. For instance, every phase of oil and gas production prospecting, transportation and refining have adverse impacts on the environment. Vegetation and agricultural land are degraded that are emitted during oil production (Ogege 2007). With this degradation, most arable farmlands that were hitherto fertile have retrogressively lost fertility. The land is so polluted and degraded by intermittent oil spills and other pollutants that most productive land now turned waste land. Farmers have become occupationally disoriented and displaced thereby creating acute food insecurity in many countries across the African continent. Besides, the impacts on land, water resources are equally affected. The incessant pollution has grossly depleted the fish population. Whenever, a spill occurs in a river, an oil slick is formed on the surface of the water and the dissolution of oxygen is reduced causing most fishes to suffocate to death (Jike 2004, Omoweh 2005).

The problem of environmental resource scarcities is aggravated by gas flaring with its attendant consequences for ozone layer and forest resources (Oyebode 2006). Forests contain about 37 percent of the total forest cover for Africa and provide wide range of ecological, social and cultural services and have vital economic significance. Forest resources are central to food security and a veritable source of livelihood. Quite sadly, African forests are under severe threat. Africa has the fastest rate of deforestation in the globe. Between 1990 and 2000, forest loss was more than 50 million hectares representing an average deforestation rate of about 0.8 percent (UNEP 2002). For instance, in Kenya, the area covered by forest has retrogressively decreased from 14 percent in the 1960 to less than 1 percent at present. Guinea has lost 80 percent of its forest other African countries have similar fate. This portend acute scarcities of valuable forest resource including bush meat, wild plants, herbal plant, firewoods, timber and non timber to mention but a few etc.

### **Environmental Resource Scarcity and the Threat to Peace and Sustainable Development: A Theoretical Reflection**

The theoretical approach that sufficiently provides explanation on environment resource scarcities and the challenges of peace and sustainable development in Africa is the political economy approach. This approach draws its

inspiration from the pioneer works of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels. The duo were marginally preoccupied with environmental degradation and the structural arrangement and alteration in society. This of course, constitutes the point of departure for several extensive theorizing about the environment. Marx and Engels maintains that the class polarization inherent in a capitalist economy have implication for the environment. Their emphasis was on *capitalist agriculture* which puts an express profit from environmental resources over and above the welfare of both humans and the environment.

The capitalist mode of production not only alienates the masses from their jobs but also potentially create their estrangement from nature itself. Marx and Engels argue that, apart from the role of capitalism, the state also enhances ecological destruction by creating an enabling environment for the capitalists. Within the realm of the sociology of the environment, the link between capitalism, the state and the environment is better appreciated in the famous work of Alan Schnaiberg. Schnaiberg (1980) highlights the nature and the origin of the contradictory relations between economic expansion and environmental degradation.

In discussing the political economy of environmental degradation, Schnaiberg maintains that modern industrial society is founded on what he refers to as the *trade-mill of production*. According to him, the trade-mill of production is the inherent need of an economic system to continually yield a profit by creating consumer demand for new products even if it means expanding the ecosystem beyond its limits or carrying capacity. This complex self destructive capitalist policy apparently lead to retrogressive depletion of natural resources, thereby creating problem of environmental resource scarcities. This is most evident in Third World States. The pervasive environmental resource scarcities give rise to different shades of violent behaviour that pose serious threat to peace and sustainable development (Schnaiberg & Gould 1994).

In relating the political economy approach to Africa, it becomes obvious that its predicament is man made and it is traceable to capitalism that came with colonialism. The structure of self sufficiency in Africa was altered, thus, moving Africans from a continent of food surplus to that of food scarcity. The traditional security against environmental resource scarcities, previously provided by extensive and integrated agricultural systems and community structures was grossly threatened by the advent of capitalism. The aftermath of all these was declining living standards and rural vulnerability to unproductive agriculture and acute environmental resource scarcities.

Environmental resource scarcities threaten peace in Africans states. At the micro level, resource scarcities often produce hardship and frustration and create a state of hopelessness on the individual. Individual in that state of despair are most vulnerable and are prepared to indulge in antisocial violent behaviour that could disturb peace. At a macro level, competition over scarce resources has been the cause of conflicts in Africa. Cases of such conflicts abound in various African states. There were conflicts in the Nile basin over the use of River Nile water; conflict over the use of grazing land in the Horn of Africa and South Africa. In Liberia Democratic republic of Congo, Zambia, Kenya, to mention but a few have experienced conflict over scarce natural resources including land, minerals and timbers (Dejene & Abduraham 2002). In Nigeria, there are conflicts over land,

environment degradation between the host communities and the Nigerian state (Obi 1999, Ibeanu 2000, Eze 2009, Ogege 2010).

## **Conclusion**

This discourse clearly portray how the Africa continent that was known for abundant environment resources have retrogressively slid into an era of environment resource scarcities. The basis of Africa self sufficiency in environmental resources and food have been undermined by the incursion of capitalism that was heralded by colonialism. The unprecedented use for profit that characterized capitalism led to the resource beyond it limit. The problem is compounded by monumental environmental degradation by reckless exploitation of environmental resources. This has resulted in acute environmental resource scarcity and food insecurity in most African state unleashing different shades of violent behaviour and armed conflicts over scarce resources at the individual and group respectively.

With this scenario, peace is apparently threatened with dire consequences for sustainable development in Africa. There is therefore the need to proffer solutions to the lingering problem of environment resource scarcities. African leaders must place premium on the prudent management of their environmental resources. The resources must be exploited in a way that is devoid of unsustainability. If this is adhered to religiously, Africa will regain it glory of abundance and self sufficiency in terms of environmental resources.

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**5**

**Flooding and Food Insecurity in Nigeria**

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**Abstract**

The recent flood disasters that ravaged the country have a lot of implications in the area of food production. During the flood incidence, people were faced with critical problems such as food scarcity, general increase in the price level of food items as well as food quality depreciation. Yet, little or no effort has been put in place to ameliorate the impending food crisis resulting from the ravaging flood. Thus, the study examines the extent to which food items were made available, its quality as well as market price variation indices of selected food items during and immediately after the flood incidence using Yenagoa city as a case study. On that basis, the study adopted cross-sectional survey design. Systems theory with an extension to chaotic systems theory was adopted as the analytical framework for the study. The researchers equally adopted both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection. 60 market traders, who were randomly selected, using the instrument of questionnaires participated in the study in addition to 3 market leaders, who were deliberately selected for in-depth interviews (IDIs) to ascertain questions related to the phenomenon under investigation. Findings show that there was shortage of food supply to the market, hike in food prices and food quality depreciation during and immediately after the flood incidence, thus, portend to food insecurity. Recommendations were made to cushion the effects of the floods on agriculture production as well as the flood victims. Such includes provision of food items to meet

immediate food needs of the people around the flood prone zone areas by the government, flood recession food production intervention, planting of flood resistant crops species, measures to prevent future occurrence of flood as well as relocation of residents from flood prone zone to areas that are safe from future flood occurrence among others recommendations.

**Keywords:** Flood disasters, food insecurity, agricultural produce, food quality, food availability and affordability.

### **Introduction/Background of the Study**

According to the Director of Information Zamfara Emergency Management Agency (ZEMA), Alhaji Bello Na-Allah, food and cash crops estimated at more than ₦1 billion in seven Local Government Areas of Zamfara have been washed away by the flood that has ravaged several states across the country. Such crops include maize, sorghum, millet, sugarcane, rice, cotton and soya-beans (Nigeria Pilot October 25, 2012). As Abdul-Aziz added, about 16 villages were completely washed off while property with about one million hectares of farm lands of rice and maize worth millions of naira were destroyed with the total population no fewer than 4,700 residents (Nigeria Pilot September 28, 2012). Alabira in the Nigeria Pilot (October 6, 2012) also observed that about 400,000 hectares of farmland in Jigawa had been destroyed, as well as about 95% of rice farmland in Kano destroyed (Nigeria Pilot October 6, 2012). In other words, the flooding that submerged farmlands across the country, destroyed valuable property and displaced thousands of persons in several communities in about 13 states is a signpost to imminent food crisis in the land (Agbakwuru, 2012).

Following the occurrence of the acute flood disasters particularly in the flood prone zone in Nigeria, the federal government has expressed fears of impending food crisis in the country (The Guardian October 23, 2012). Yet, little or no effort has been made by all stakeholders to cushion the devastating effects of the flood as well as preventing the escalation of flooding in the nearest future. Nevertheless, the study is made to focus on the causes of the flood disasters and its impending food crisis it may bring in terms of food quality, availability and affordability (accessibility) during and immediately after the flood incidence.

### **Statement of Problem**

The biggest casualty of the current state of insecurity in Nigeria is the Agricultural sector (Nigerian Pilot October 9, 2012). Because of the unprecedented flooding experienced in most parts of the country, the effects of the flooding on food quality, availability and affordability may be risky and detrimental to the Nigerian economy as a whole. Of course, the implications of the ravaging flood disasters most especially on food availability (Agricultural production) are enormous.

To start with, the flood ridden areas of the country are mostly the rural regions where agriculture is the main stay of the people, and now that these people have been sacked from their communities, getting food is expectedly a problem (Nigerian Pilot October 23, 2012). So also, transportation of the few agricultural produce became so difficult for the traders as many of the road networks were turned to rivers and streams for easy access road networks (Nigerian Pilot October 16, 2012). In fact, the psychological effects resulting from the flood disaster is catastrophic as many of the farmers reportedly committed suicide after the flood

incidence in some states of the federation due to the fear of lack of food and sources of income to keep them alive with their families (Nigerian Pilot October 12, 2012).

Consequent upon these however, agriculture sector may be faced with setback due to the problem of crops species' extinction in the nearest future ([www.pulitzercenter.org/food-security](http://www.pulitzercenter.org/food-security)). Already, Nigeria is experiencing high cost of food stuffs in the local markets. For example, one "mudu" of beans which is the cheapest source of protein now sells for between N500 and N600 and from all indications it is gradually getting out of the reach of the common man as the prices of some of the food items may be forced to increase (Nigerian Pilot October 23, 2012). In the same vein, and because of the effects of climate change without the predictions of soothsayers, malnutrition may become a blotted monster waiting to claim the lives of more children (Nigerian Pilot October 23, 2012) at the same time skyrocketing the number of malnourished children in the nearest future if measures are not taken to cushion the effects. Take for instance, it has been reported that 2 in 5 Nigerian children are experiencing malnourishment. In regards to this, as statistics from 2011 World Hunger Index has shown, Nigeria has contributed about 58 per cent in the global hunger burden. But with the incidences of farmlands being swept away by the ravaging flood disaster, the ratio is expected to profoundly increase (Nigerian Pilot October 23, 2012).

Because of the negative impact of the flooding on agricultural production and the economy as a whole, the study would be made to focus on examining the causes of the flood incidence and the effects on food quality, availability and affordability (accessibility) immediately after the flood incidence using Yenagoa in Bayelsa State as a case study.

### **Objectives of the Study**

The central objective of the study is to examine the impending food insecurity resulting from the emerging flood incidence in Bayelsa State. Thus, the following are the objectives of the study:

1. To examine the causes of the flood incidence in the state.
2. To ascertain the degree of food quality, availability and affordability (or accessibility) during and immediately after the flood incidence in the state.
3. To give recommendations that would cushion the effects and prevent any future occurrence of flooding in general.

### **Key Research Questions**

1. What factors responsible for the causes of the ravaging flood incidence in Nigeria as a whole?
2. To what extent has the ravaging flood aggravated the costs of the major food items in the State?
3. Does agricultural produce made available with the best quantity and quality to the consumers during and immediately after the flood incidence?
4. How can we proactively cushion the unpalatable consequences of the flood rampage in the agricultural sector as well as the impending food crisis in the future?

### **Theoretical Framework: Systems Theory**

Systems theory provides a configuration of parts connected and joined together by a web of relationships. It is equally defined as a family of relationships among the members acting as a whole. Ludwig Von also averred system as

"elements in standing relationship" (Banathy, 1997). In this, systems theory provides an internally consistent framework for classifying and evaluating the world of the phenomenon under investigation.

Generally, systems theory was originally proposed by biologist Ludwig Von Bertalanffy in 1928, and it is characterized by the interactions of various components or units in a nonlinearity of interactions within the framework of the system (McNeill and Freiburger, 1993:22). Thus, systems theory is a trans-disciplinary, interdisciplinary and multi-perspectival domain in theoretical analysis, therefore serves as a bridge for interdisciplinary dialogue between autonomous areas of study (such as flooding and food availability) as well as within the area of system science itself. However, the system's view of the society is a world-view that is based on the discipline of system inquiry.

Moreover, viewing system theory from this frame of reference, it is composed of regularly interacting or interrelating groups of activities. For example, in noting the influence in each sector of the economy (such as agriculture, finance, education, works, etc), the economy as a whole is a complex system; reducing the component parts from the whole, reduces the overall effectiveness of the entire social system (Schein, 1980) recognizing the interdependence between all sectors of the economy, be it the physical environments and the social environments constituting the societal structures and processes that enable an economy to function effectively.

On the other hand, Laszlo (1996) in his own contribution to system theory further explains that the new systems view of organized complexity went "one step beyond the Newtonian view of organized simplicity" in reducing the parts from the whole, or in understanding the whole without relation to the parts. In this, the relationship between organizations and their environments became recognized as the foremost source of complexity and interdependence as the case may be in the phenomenon of the flooding (physical environment) and food availability (relatively, the essence of the social environment). However, as Kuhn (1974) maintains, knowing one part of a system enables us to know something about another part. In other words, the information content of a "piece of information" is proportional to the amount of information that can be inferred from the information to form a whole.

In the view of Walonick (1993) who further explained that system can be either controlled (cybernetic) or uncontrolled. In controlled systems information is sensed, and changes are effected in response to the information. Kuhn (1974) refers to this as the detector, selector, and effect or functions of the system. The detector is concerned with the communication of information between systems. The selector is defined by the rules that the system uses to make decisions, and the effect or is the means by which transactions are made between systems. Communication and transaction are the only intersystem interactions. Communication is the exchange of information, while transaction involves the exchange of matter-energy. All organizational and social interactions involve communication and/or transaction either directly or indirectly to function and maintain stability (emphasis mine). Thus, a controlled (cybernetic) system maintains at least one system variable within some specified range, or if the variable goes outside the range, the system moves to bring the variable back into the range. This control is internal to the system which helps to maintain orderliness within the system (Walonick, 1993).

In addition to this, a system is equally characterized by input and output (or open and closed). In system input, there is movement of information or matter-energy from the environment into the system, while system output allows for

information or matter-energy to move from the system to the environment. As Cosmologist Stephen Hawking added in a 1980 lecture, he pointed out that we already know the physical laws that govern our everyday experience and referred this to as chaos theory as an extension of system theory (Gleick, 1987). That being the case, we must now extend system theory to include the phenomena that lies outside of our normal perceptual limits of experience. Subscribing to the same view, Meteorologist Lorenz (1963) asserted that any uncontrolled system variable (such as the flood or other natural disasters) could thwart efforts to control the overall state of the system (emphasis mine).

Lorenz (1963) in Walonick (1993) however noted that chaotic system depends largely on the nonlinear nature of its component and this can be both stable and unstable components. This implies that both input and output involve crossing the boundaries that define the system as the case may be in natural disasters that go beyond the immediate control of humans. Viewing it in the same mannerism, he observed that organizations and social systems operating within a chaotic environment are being continually challenged to maintain their purpose and structure. The paradox of this, however, is that larger and more established structures are usually less able to change. The inertia resulting from their size (e.g., number of people) makes it difficult to introduce planned organizational or social change. Large institutions generally encompass well-established patterns. The stability of these structures makes them less able to adapt to environmental and internal system changes. All other things being equal, small structures can adapt to change more efficiently than larger ones (Walonick, 1993).

Thus, when all forces in a system are balanced to the point where no change is occurring, the system is said to be in a state of static equilibrium. Dynamic (steady state) equilibrium exists when the system components are in a state of change, but at least one variable stays within a specified range. Homeostasis is the condition of dynamic equilibrium between at least two system variables. This corroborates Kuhn (1974) assertion that all systems tend toward equilibrium, and that a prerequisite for the continuance of a system is its ability to maintain a steady state or steadily oscillating state.

### **A Brief Review of Literature**

Etymologically, the word "flood" comes from the Old English *flod*, a word common to Germanic languages (compare German Flut, Dutch vloed from the same root as is seen in flow, float; also compare with Latin fluctus, flumen). Monkhouse and Small (1978) in Oriola (2000) saw it as a situation when a river channel is inadequate to accommodate discharge from its catchment. It can also be regarded as usually high rate of water discharge, which often leads to inundation of land adjacent to the river. As Oriola (2000) put it, a river is said to be in floods when it overflows both its natural and artificial banks. MSN Encarta Dictionary defined flood as an overflow of water that submerges land. The European Union (EU) Floods Directive defines a flood as a covering by water of land not normally covered by water ([http://eur-lex.europa.eu/lexUriServ/lexUriServ.do?uri= Oj:2007:288: 0027: 0034:EN: PDF](http://eur-lex.europa.eu/lexUriServ/lexUriServ.do?uri=Oj:2007:288:0027:0034:EN:PDF)).

In this however, this implies that flooding may result from the volume of water within a body of water, such as a river or lake, which overflows or breaks levees, with the result that some of the water escapes its usual boundaries (Glossary of Meteorology, June 2000), or may be due to accumulation of rainwater on saturated ground in an area flooded. Generally speaking, floods occur in rivers or

lakes when flow exceeds the capacity of the river channel, particularly at bends or meanders or the lakes.

### **Types of Flooding**

Oriola (2000) identified six typologies of flood: (1) Flash flood: the type of flood that occurs as a result of high intensity of rain associated with conventional rainfall and is characterized by a very short duration, lasting for some minutes; perhaps a few minutes after the rain must have stopped and its disappearance is sudden. Most Nigeria cities are characterized by this type of flood such as Ibadan, Lagos, Benin, Aba, Owerri, Osogbo. (2) Single event flood: the type of flood that is characterized by longer duration, single high flow and lasting for some days. This type of flood is common in some cities in Western Nigeria such as Ibadan April 1978, August 1980 and Ilorin October 1976 among others. (3) Multiple events flood: this type of flood is associated with cyclonic rainfall which covers a large geographical area, produce a very large stream of flow and even extend over a period of several weeks or months before disappearance. This is common in Czeck, Poland, German Republic and some parts of Nigeria due to the effect of climate change. (4) Seasonal flood as a type of flood is an extension of multiple event floods due to a re-occurrence of multiple event flooding. The periods of high water often extend over several days or months and cover wider thousands of kilometers. The inflow of combinations of tributaries associated with heavy discharges of water during the raining season between September and October often results in seasonal flood in some part of Nigeria. Such areas that are common with this type of flooding in Nigeria are the Niger Delta regions characterized by many tributaries, Kogi, Benue and others. (5) Coastal flood: this type of flood is associated with meteorological conditions such as tsunami, hurricane or storm surge, from either a tropical cyclone or an extra-tropical cyclone, which produce abnormally high sea level which may include storm surges that occur at spring tides. When wind speed is high, the sea pile up against the coastline and large scale turbulence is generated, moving the wave up the shore above the height of the embankment wall. Bar beach in Lagos, Nembe area in Bayelsa, Sapelle in Delta, Some parts in Rivers (Nigeria), Gulf Coast of the United State and the Bay of Bengal are good examples for this type of flooding. (6) Estuarine flood: this type of flood occurs at the mouth of a river. It is commonly caused by a combination of sea tidal surges caused by storm-force winds and high river stages due to heavy rain. It equally occurs when there is conflict between river and seawater in delta areas which results to flooding. This type of flooding has been reported in the Niger, Nile and Mekong delta areas.

Moreover, as the free online encyclopedia has further added, catastrophic flood is another type of flooding which is caused by a significant and unexpected event e.g. dam breakage, or as a result of another hazard (e.g. earthquake or volcanic eruption) such as Dogurog dam in Wales in 1952, Frejus dam in France 1959, Kano dam in Nigeria 1988. Finally, human-induced flood which is characterized by accidental damage to tunnels (pipes) or deliberate effort by man to enhance the utilization of resources in his environment such as the case of Kanji dam release in Nigeria, Nyos and Lagdo dam in Cameroon among others by the activities of men.

### **Causes of the Ravaging Flood: July–November 2012**

According to Chief Leke Success, the National President of NUHPSW in the *Nigeria Pilot published on Tuesday October 25, 2012* the disaster that ravaged almost one-quarter of the country recently can be attributed to adverse climate

change, the potential consequences of global warming which is the rising of sea levels. Global warming causes the polar ice caps to melt and the oceans to warm and expand. As the glaciers and other forms of land ice melt, sea levels will rise (Giddens, 2001) low-lying areas will be flooded and become uninhabitable.

In addition to this, lack of good town planning and rapid urbanization (urban land use) currently estimated at between three to five percent in the country which is higher than the annual growth population rate have been identified as another cause of the flooding in Nigeria. As a matter of fact, the flagrant flouting of town planning regulations, rise in sea level, blockage of drainage channels with refuse, sediments and buildings as well as the reported release of Lagdo Dam in the Republic of Cameroun contributed to a large extent to the flood incidence across the country (Nigeria Pilot, Tuesday October 25, 2012).

As the ZEMA Director of Information averred in *the Nigeria Pilot October 25, 2012*, the major cause of the ravaging flood was the collapse of some dams in the northern Nigeria which has immensely contributed to rivers overflow their banks across the flood prone zone in the country. Thus, making the flood disasters monstrous and uncontrollable in the country.

### **The Concept of food security and food insecurity**

The World Food Summit of 1996 defined food security as “when people at all times have access to sufficient, safe, nutritious food to maintain a healthy and active life”. Defining food security in this way, it thus means food security includes both physical and economic access to food that meets people’s dietary needs as well as their food preferences ([www.who.int/./en/](http://www.who.int/./en/)). On the other hand, food security is the measure of the ability that ensures access to essential nutrition. It refers to households or country’s ability to provide both present and future physical and nutritious food that fulfills the dietary needs and food preferences for living active and healthy lifestyles. It is a measure of resilience to future disruption or the unavailability of critical food supply due to various risk factors including droughts, shipping disruptions, fuel shortages, economic instability, wars, etc ([www.fao.org/publications/sofi/](http://www.fao.org/publications/sofi/)). The United Nations defines it as “all people at all time having both physical and economic access to the basic food they need” ([www.pulitzercenter.org/food-security](http://www.pulitzercenter.org/food-security)). In all however, according to the World Food Summit of 1996, food security is thus built on three pillars: (1) Food availability: That is to say, sufficient quantities of food available on consistent basis. (2) Food access: That is, having sufficient resources to obtain appropriate foods for a nutritious diet. (3) Food use: That is, appropriate use of food based on the knowledge of basic nutrition and care, as well as adequate water and sanitation.

Food insecurity on the other hand, is the state of, or risk of, being unable to provide food to oneself, a family or a nation ([www.waywordradio.org/food-insecurity/](http://www.waywordradio.org/food-insecurity/)). In regards to this, food insecurity is simply food unavailability, inaccessibility and of course inappropriate use of food. In other words, food insecurity is the opposite of food security which may result from climate change or natural disasters (such as drought, flood, etc) urban development, population growth and oil price shifts ([www.pulitzercenter.org/food-security](http://www.pulitzercenter.org/food-security)).

### **Methods**

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design using Yenagoa city of Bayelsa State as the case study. The research locale was deliberately undertaken due to the strategic location of the area to a flood prone zone. The study also adopted

triangulation of methods for data collection which include in-depth interview (IDI) conducted by the researchers with three (3) market leaders purposively selected due to their leadership roles among the food stuffs sellers as well as Sixty (60) market traders, who participated in the study as respondents which were randomly selected using the instrument of questionnaires. The choice of the 60 market traders was motivated by the intermediary roles they play in the channel of distribution between the producers (farmers) and the consumers as *the middlemen*.

### **Procedure**

The consents of the respondents were sought; confidentiality as well as anonymity of the participants were assured. The researcher did not take much of their time as this was first informed and given assurance. In terms of the structures of the questionnaires administered, two categories of questions were asked: First, the socio-demographical information about the respondents; second, questions were asked on the degree of food quality, availability, affordability (or accessibility) and suggested solutions that could ameliorate the unbearable consequences of the flood in the area in a closed ended format. While in the in-depth interview (IDI), a question guide was drafted by the researchers to ascertain the market price variation indices during and immediately after the flood incidence as well as questions related to the quality, availability and affordability of major food items during and immediately after the flood incidence in an open-ended format.

### **Results and Discussion**

The data collected for the study were analyzed based on the instruments used for the collection. Microsoft EXCEL was used to analyze numerical data in table-and-chart format for easier statistical interpretations and inferences, while verbatim method was used for the analysis of non-numerical data collected from the in-depth interview conducted as a complement to the empirical data analysis.

### **Socio-Demographical Information of the Respondents**

On the basis of sex, the table reveals that 31.7% of the respondents is male, 68.3% is female. Though there is disparity in the percentage of the respondents but has no effects on the objectives which the study is set to achieve. This disparity may be as a result of the female population taking to trading as occupation larger than the male population. On the educational qualification of the respondents, 18.3% attended tertiary education, 45% attended secondary education, 21.7% attended primary education, 6.7% drop-out while 8.3% has no formal education. Despite the lower percentage of tertiary education of the entire sample population, the researcher communicated with a mixture of English and Pidgin with respondents which did not affect the much information desired from the respondents. Hence, there was neither language barrier nor problem encountered in the course of answering questions on the questionnaires administered.

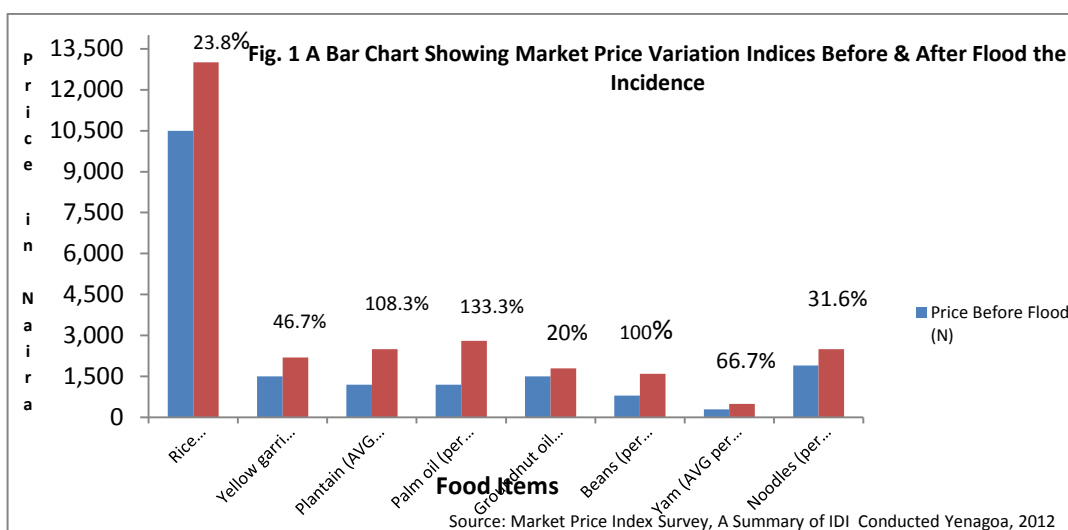
**Table 1. Socio-Demographical Characteristics of Respondents**

Variables	Market 'A'	Market 'B'	Market 'C'	Total	Percentage
<b>Sex</b>					
Male	6	9	4	19	<b>31.7</b>
Female	14	11	16	41	<b>68.3</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Education</b>					
Tertiary	3	5	3	11	<b>18.3</b>
Secondary	5	10	12	27	<b>45.0</b>
Primary	8	2	3	13	<b>21.7</b>
Drop-out	3	0	1	4	<b>6.7</b>
No Formal Education	1	3	1	5	<b>8.3</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>100</b>

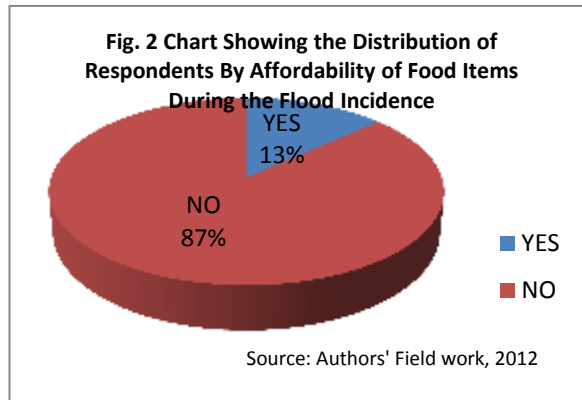
Source: Authors' Field work, 2012

### Market Price Variation Indices of Selected Food Items

On the market price variation indices during and immediately after the flood incidence, as shown on fig. 1, the percentage increase of rice (Mamagold per bag) is 23.81%, yellow garri per bag is 46.67%, plantain (on the average price per bunch) is 108.33%, palm oil per 5 litres is 133.33%, groundnut oil per 5 litres is 20%, beans per 5 litres of paint bucket is 100%, while yam on the average price per tuber is 66.67%. This implies that the prices of most of the staple food we consume on daily basis skyrocketed above 50% of their normal sales prices prior to the flood incidence.



**Note:** (1) IDI =In-depth Interview (2) AVG=Average Price (3) L=litre (4) BUC=Bucket (5) TUB=Tubber (6) INDO=Indomie

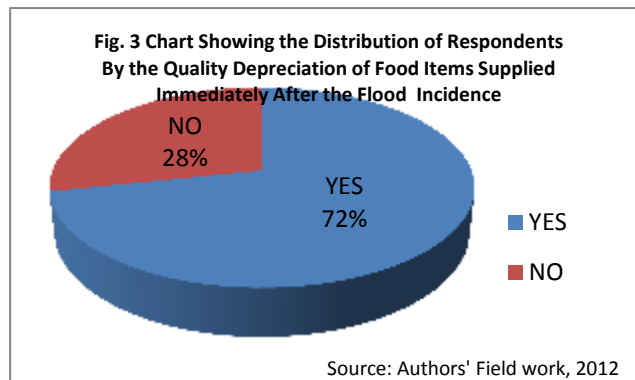


### Degree of Food Items Affordability During and After the Flood Incidence

On the degree of food items affordability, fig. 2 shows that 80% of the respondents said NO as to the affordability of food items during and after the flood incidence while 13% of them said YES as to the affordability of food items during and immediately after the flood. This is an indication that the larger percentage of the food items supplied to the market during and immediately after the flood incidence was not affordable to buy. Corroborating this however, a male respondent from market “A” has this to say:

*What do you expect in this period of flood everywhere?  
My brother, the food stuffs cannot be affordable now oo...  
As you can see the access roads have been flooded...no  
road at all to transport food to the market. The whole  
farmlands where we buy yams and cassava for garri have  
been swept away by the flood. That's why you can see  
that food stuffs are very expensive now  
(IDI/Male/Market 'A'/2012).*

### Quality Depreciation of Food Items Supplied to the Market During and After the Flood Incidence

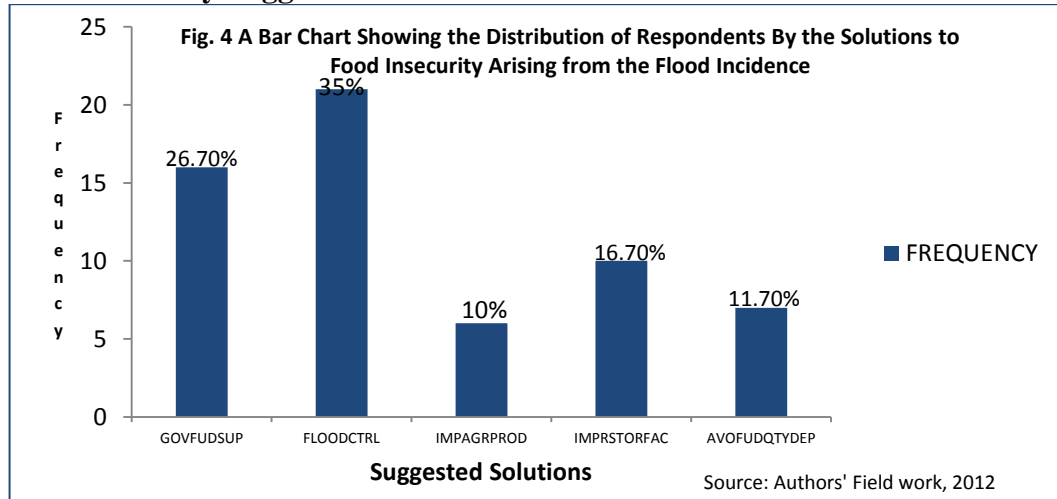


On the quality of food supplied to the market during and immediately after the flood incidence, fig.3 indicates that 72% of the respondents said YES as to food quality depreciation after the flood incidence while 28% said NO. This implies that the larger percentage of the respondents agree that the food items supplied to the market have depreciated in quality. The reason for the few who said NO as to the quality not

to have depreciated may be for the remaining food items in stock before the flood rampage. Subscribing to the same view, another participant from market “C” said this:

*No quality at all after the flood. Just take a look at this palm oil and compare it with this one, are they the same? It cannot. You see our people will mix it with something else to make it plenty even rice, beans and some other food stuffs; they are not the same as before now. Even the effects of the flood can make it not to have quality again (IDI/Female/Market ‘C’/2012).*

### Distribution By Suggested Solutions to the Flood Incidence



**Note:** (1) GOVFUDSUP = Government Food Supply (2) FLOODCTRL =Flood Control (3) IMPAGRPROD =Improve Agricultural Production (4) AVODFUDQTYDEP =Avoid Food Quality Depreciation

On the suggested solutions to the impending food crisis resulting from flood incidence as indicated on fig. 4, 26.70% suggested that the government should supply food to the state to cushion the effects of food unavailability, 35% said there should be flood control to guide against its negative consequences, 10% said there should be improvement in agricultural production, 16.70% said there should be improvement in storage facilities so as to provide for the future while 11.70% said food quality depreciation should be avoided. This also implies that the largest percentage of the respondents want the ravaging flood to be controlled which is the major cause of the impending food crisis. Though every other solutions suggested are of importance to the study.

### Summary of Research Findings

Based on the objectives of the study, the following are the summary of the findings:

1. That the ravaging flood resulted to shortage of food supply in the regions where they occurred and that led to the increase in the general price level of food items during and immediately after the flood incidence as indicated in fig. 1.
2. That during and immediately after the flood incidence, major food items were not affordable by all as revealed on fig. 2.

3. That the ravaging flood resulted to food quality depreciation immediately after the flood incidence as shown in fig. 3.

### **Conclusion and Recommendations**

From the findings and all indications, the emerging flood is cataclysmic to food security both in the present and in the nearest future if adequate measures are not taken by the government to prevent its occurrence. Thus, the issue of flooding generally in Nigeria represents the uncontrolled force of the environment that has posed critical problem to the normal functioning of the entire systems relatively to agricultural production. However, in the views of the findings of the study, the government needs to take urgent and drastic measures in preventing the escalation of flooding in Nigeria using the following recommendations as policy instruments to cushion the effects of the ravaging flood as well as preventing future occurrence of flooding.

As a matter of fact, an urgent effort needs to be taken by the government to supply food items to all flood prone zone areas to meet their immediate food needs. Similar to this however, the government needs to embark on flood recession food production intervention to prevent impending food crisis in the country as well as providing flood resistant species of crops seedling to farmers in the areas that are prone to flood. So also, boosting agricultural production in the country requires much input. In line with this, foreign aids in the agriculture sector particularly on farm inputs should be advocated such may include fertilizer, herbicides and pesticides to enhance production of food at all seasons as well as providing for mechanized agriculture for the purpose of mass production. Consequently, effort to improve on food storage facilities at all levels of government should be necessitated through enhanced storage facilities and buffer harvest.

On the issue of flood control, buffer dams should be constructed across the major river channels in the country to safeguard future occurrence of dam breakages or release. Similarly, all environmental laws should be reviewed and further redesigned by the government such as thorough environmental impact assessments (EIA) of all projects on any environmental related project as well as effective environmental information management so that people can always be accurately informed on the consequences of all environmental related activities. Preventing future occurrence of flooding requires proactive and holistic approach. As such, Government Meteorological Departments should be well equipped and funded in order to facilitate accurate weather forecasts and research on climate to guide against flood hazard. People who reside at the flood-prone zone or building on waterways should be relocated by the government to guide against any future occurrence.

Finally, those who are directly affected by the flood should not be left out particularly the farmers in respect to rehabilitate them. With regard to this, efforts should be taken by Nigeria Agricultural Insurance Corporation, NAIC, to compensate them adequately while Proper measures to rehabilitate the victims of the flood disaster should be advocated.

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6

**Theoretical Approaches to Understanding African Politics and the Challenges of Development**

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**Abstract**

The paper discusses conceptual and theoretical approaches to African politics such as the Modernization School; Marxian School; and the Statist School of thought vis-à-vis development and underdevelopment paradigm. The paper uncovers critical argument in various schools of thought, the variables that have caused relative development and severe-underdevelopment in Africa at present and in the past respectively. Using Nigeria as a point of departure and melting-point, it critically and objectively identifies the problems and challenges of development in Africa and offer suggestions that will move Africa further along the path of development. However, the paper concludes with the statist school of thought position, attributing underdevelopment (poverty, unemployment, communal clashes, the rise of ethnic militia and militancy and so no) due to the problem of corruption and failure of governmental policy implementation in African.

**Keywords:** Development, underdevelopment, modernization, Marxian, statist and corruption.

**Introduction**

The issues of underdevelopment and development have gained a specific and dramatic focus from a context that includes the demise of classic European imperialism, and the conflicting claims of rival socio-economic systems. As at 1950s, issues on development and underdevelopment in the less development states attracted series of research work that engendered two major schools of thought (Liberal school and the Marxian school of thought) (Jhingan, 1997 and Naomi, 1999). These were informed by several challenges of political development such as the challenges of identity, legitimacy, participation, penetration, distribution and integration. However, the ascendancy of Western-European countries in the area of

industrialization, economic growth and development of democratic ethos at this period gave them the veritable ground to plant “the theory of modernization” into Latin American and other less developed countries popularly called third world countries as a way out of underdevelopment crises (Jhingan, 2005 and Naomi, 1999). Consequently, the woeful failure of modernization concept in Latin American and other third world countries sparked serious debates in the mind of nationalists and scholars in the third world countries, the Marxian school of thought unfolded which tends to attribute underdevelopment as a result of asymmetric relations that engulfed countries in the world (Jhingan, 2005).

However, this paper explores these schools of thought, how valid and consistence are these theories in our present politics in Africa and particularly how attainable are these theories vis-à-vis underdevelopment and challenges of development in Africa. On the other hand, using Nigeria as a point of reference, it will critically and objectively identify the problems and challenges of development in Africa and offer suggestions that will move Africa further along the path of development. Based on the issue of underdevelopment, Oko (n.d) observed that Africans’ thirst for genuine development is at present unslaked and perhaps unslakeable under the current circumstances in Africa. Development is off kilter in Nigeria, and indeed, most parts of Africa and appears to be spiralling over the edge into dictatorship, and perhaps even social disorder, fatally assaulted by political elites whose moral equipoise have been disarranged by narcissism and corruption . He furthered explained that available evidence provides a disturbing hint that Africans are losing confidence in the democratic process. The opportunities presented by democratic transitions have been squandered by the cocktail of hubris, arrogance, and corruption ---- the trademark of Africa’s political elites. Elected officials upon assuming office tend to emulate the military despots they denounced and replaced. The spectres of the past ---- corruption, human rights abuses and economic mismanagement remain for the most part unsolved and unaddressed. This notion of leadership attitudinal pattern of administration justified statist paradigm.

However, the statist theory emphasizes the pattern and style of administration adopted by Africa leaders. This theory attributed the problem of underdevelopment on Africa leaders due to their orientation anchored on private and primitive accumulation of wealth against public interest (Naomi, 1999). This theory describes current dilemma that African States are facing especially implementation of public policies and private wealth accumulation. Scholars have attempted to treat these issues mainly from underdevelopment and modernization view-points given little attention to statist theory (Okereke and Ekpe, 2002). However, in addressing these challenges of development in African, we begin with modernisation (liberal) school of thought, follow by the Marxian thinking and finally we end it with statist intellectual analyses.

### **The Concept of Development and Underdevelopment: The Liberal Perspective.**

Most classical and contemporary liberal scholars described development as an increase or raise in gross national product through proliferation of industries aim to the reduction of poverty/inequality, unemployment in a country (Little, 1982; Todaro, 1979; Meier, 1989; Shultz, 1961 and Hag, 1971 cited in Okereke and Ekpe, 2002). One of the facts that underlined Little’s (1982) concept (cit. Okereke and Ekpe, 2002) is on the issue of price mechanism. For him, all industries should be owned by private individuals that this would create development, in other words, the

activities of the market should be control by the forces of demand and supply (Ibid). For most liberal scholars, development connotes the capacity of a country's national economy, whose initial economic condition has been more or less stable to generate and sustain annual rise in its gross national product at rates of 5 to 7% (Okereke and Ekpe, 2002). In search of more robust concept of development Okereke and Ekpe (2002) observe that "developmental economists see it as a device or instrumental process of overcoming persistent poverty, absorbing the surplus labour and reducing the gap between the rich and the poor".

Moreover, the United Nations and her agencies stressed on the issue of redistribution of growth and basic human needs. Conversely, Underdevelopment for them connote persistent or constant rise in poverty level, an increase in unemployment, low saving, high consumption level, high standard of living and decrease in gross national product (GNP) precipitated by deformed culture and tradition of a society, this can also be described as "vicious cycle of poverty". The concepts of underdevelopment by liberal scholars denote cultural deformity and disjointed-traditions inherent in the Africa societies (Naomi, 1999). The liberal school of thought believed that capitalism is antithetical with the operations of African traditions. In other words, underdevelopment is as result of the opposing nature of the Africa culture against capitalism. The term often used to refer to, economic development symptoms of which include lack of access to job opportunities, health care, drinkable water, food, education and housing (Jhingan, 2005). The general problem (ignorance) of the liberal postulations, it undermined extraneous variables and underscores the cultures of the African as a negative index. Although, there are some traditional patterns and norms in Africa that oppose development such as men that are poor but still give birth to plenty of children as a good sign of a hero and fertility; a man must give birth to a male child as a sign of not curse by the gods; women are second class fellow meant for certain domestic duties (like cooking, washing of husband's cloths); human rituals/sacrifice as way of pleasing some deities (like the sacrifice of a virgin and the birth of twin) and so on. However contemporary scholars also argued that development is a function of a nation's traditions and cultural values coexisting with other values, that is, development is meaningless without the promotion of a nation's cultural values. In other words, there is no development without the development of a nation's way of life.

### **The Concept of Development and Underdevelopment: The Marxian perspective.**

The drawback and weakness of Modernization Theory in Latin America sparked the thinking of scholars in the less developed economies to offer a pathway for development in the less developed societies (Jhingan, 2005). Scholars such as Lenin, Key, Kwame Nkruman, Walter Rodney, Gunder Frank among others have criticized the modernization school of thought in view of its woeful failure, its ethnocentrism and incompatibility in Africa Societies and other developing economies. The convergent of these thought of radical scholars give birth to the Marxian philosophy (Okereke and Ekpe, 2002 and Naomi, 1999). This new thinking and ideal prompted the believed that; there is asymmetrical relation that exist between countries in the world which has created stagnancy and retarded countries that ought to developed into perpetual underdevelopment situation. The genesis of this proposition is basically applauded and tied on the problem of slavery and colonialisation of the African countries, the exploitation of the African States by the

European countries (Nunn, 2007). Consequently the picture below showed the despicable nature of relationship between European explorers and the African people. Africans were seen as sub-humans and monkeys in the jungle been captured, killed and used as domestic animals for human labour during slavery (Ibid).



(Getty Image)

Source:

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The explanation for the origins of African severe underdevelopment is explained by history and much of Africa's poor performance can be characterised by over 400 years of slave raiding (Nunn, 2007). The impact of the issue of slave trade on underdevelopment of Africa cannot be dismissed with a wave of hand. During the period when African countries were colonized, slave trade was at high level. Many of the citizens were exported to the foreign countries then to develop their economies (Jhingan, 1997 and Naomi, 1999). Moreover, slavery has resulted in regional communities and many nations to be both politically and ethnically fragmented. Trade has caused political instability, meaning both political and social unrest leaving communities unfit for pursuing economic development and planning for the future economy of the country. If the slave trades had not occurred, then 72% of the average income gap between Africa and the rest of the world would not exist today (Nunn, 2007). Slavery, according to historians, played an important role in African underdevelopment. It fostered ethnic fractionalisation and undermined effective states. The largest numbers of slaves were taken from areas that were the most underdeveloped politically at the end of the 19th century and are the most ethnically fragmented today. Historical evidence from case studies show how the slave trade caused political instability, weakened states, promoted political and social fragmentation, and resulted in a deterioration of domestic legal institutions. Extrapolating on the issue of slavery, Nathan Nunn (2007) observes that:

Between 1400 and 1900, the African continent experienced four simultaneous slave trades. The largest and most well-known is the trans-Atlantic slave trade where, beginning in the fifteenth century, slaves were shipped from West Africa, West Central Africa, and Eastern Africa to the European colonies in

the New World. The three other slave trades -- the trans-Saharan, Red Sea, and Indian Ocean slave trades -- are much older and predate the trans-Atlantic slave trade. During the trans-Saharan slave trade, slaves were taken from south of the Saharan desert and shipped to Northern Africa. In the Red Sea slave trade, slaves were taken from inland of the Red Sea and shipped to the Middle East and India. In the Indian Ocean slave trade, slaves were taken from Eastern Africa and shipped either to the Middle East, India or to plantation islands in the Indian Ocean.

He further buttressed the argument that if slave trades are partly responsible for Africa's current underdevelopment, then looking across countries within Africa, one should observe that the parts of Africa that are the poorest today are also the areas from which the largest number of slaves were taken in the past. The countries from which the most slaves were taken (taking into account differences in country size) are today the poorest in Africa. An alternative explanation for the relationship is that the parts of Africa from which the largest number of slaves were taken were initially the most underdeveloped. Today, because these characteristics persist, these parts of Africa continue to be underdeveloped and poor.

By using instrumental variables to identify the causal effect of the slave trade on economic development, indentifying distance from each country to the locations of the demand for slaves as instruments to estimate the causal effect of the slave trades on economic development. His initial analysis of the data is consistent with historic accounts suggesting that the slave trades impeded the formation of broader ethnic groups, leading to ethnic fractionalisation, and that the slave trades resulted in a weakening and underdevelopment of political structures (Ibid). In his estimates of the impact of the slave trades on economic development, Nathan Nunn provides an estimate of how much more developed Africa would be if the slave trades had not taken place. The average per capita income level of the countries in Africa is \$1,834, measured in 2000. This is significantly lower than the income for the rest of the world (which is \$8,809), and it is even much lower than the income of other developing countries (which is \$4,868). Corroborating the above analyses, Nunn (2007) concluded that:

If slave trade had not occurred, then 72% of the average income gap between Africa and the rest of the world would not exist today, and 99% of the income gap between Africa and the rest of the underdeveloped world would not exist. In terms of economic development, Africa would not look any different from the other developing countries in the world. This finding is striking. These results may not be the final and definitive explanation for the origins of Africa's severe underdevelopment, but they do provide very strong evidence that much of Africa's poor performance can be explained by its history, which is characterised by over 400 years of slave raiding.

Arising from the above conceptual analyses, the modernisation school sees underdevelopment as a result of inimical practices and deforms traditional values of the Third World countries which cannot coexist with the precepts of modernity and while the Marxian paradigm believed that underdevelopment is as result of slavery, colonialisation, neocolonisation and imperialism that have created an unequal socio-economy and political relation popularly called asymmetrical relation. To them, development can occur when countries can break this unequal relations and also redefining her mode of production, overhauling the environment and investing in the development of human psychology. However, contemporary literature has engendered these issues through leadership failure and corrupt practices of African leaders (Aiyede, 2008). In other words, billions of naira met for capital and developmental projects have been diverted and used for personal projects. This current wave in African societies is what scholars have described as “corruption”, although it is not exclusive in the African continent but it (corruption) has been a cog in the wheel of African pathway to development. For example, in Nigeria, approximately US\$ 200 billion was invested between 1973 and 1993, with very little development to show for it and the country has experienced unprecedented debt of #22.59 trillion as at March, 2012 (Aiyede, 2008; The Nigerian Punch, July 7, 2012). According to University of Massachusetts researchers (cit. Aiyede, 2008) estimated that from 1970 to 1996, Capital flight from 30 sub-Saharan African countries totalled \$187bn, exceeding those nations' external debts due to political corruption. This is the similar views of the statist school of thought.

### **The Concept of Development and Underdevelopment: Statist Theory**

Its central thrust of the statist school of thought is on the premise that underdevelopment of African states emerged due to bad administrative technique applied by the ruling elites, corruption, problem of good policy implementations, patron-client permutation and other variables that undermines modern innovations and democracy (Naomi et.al, 1999). In other words, embezzlement, misappropriations, mediocrity in place of meritocracy and among others are factors that have retarded development in the states in Africa. Leaders see corruption as a hobby and a way of life while the act has created a huge inequality and social vices that has become a cog in the wheel of African developmental plan. These and among others are the variables that the statist theorists have highlighted as the cause of underdevelopment of the states in Africa.

Evidently, Sub-Sahara African states have been described as the most corrupt region in the world and this menace has erupted communal clashes, the rise of ethnic militia, insurgency of militancy, all these and among others have tainted the African states as Hobbes' state of nature where the security of life and property is absent (Naomi et. al, 1999). In Nigeria right from the onset of her independence, the country has experienced heinous crises in various regions, ranging from the clash of political elites, the clash of power between and among the regions, civil war, communal clashes, the rise of ethnic militia, militancy and religious sect and coupled with the problem of corruption. These factors have created impediment for socio-economic and political development of the Nigerian state. A vivid case worth to be remembered, over #5.8 trillion is missing in the ongoing democratic dispensation arising from corrupt politicians and debt profile increases every year. As at July 2012, the total debt profile of the country was #1.2 trillion (The Punch July 7, 2012). However, in a nation-wide survey on the perceptions of Nigerians regarding

corruption and governance conducted in 2001 by a consortium of experts from Nigerian universities (cited in Aiyede, 2008) reveals that:

Over 80% of the sampled population regarded corruption as “serious.” Respondents also ranked political parties among the most corrupt institutions in the country. The details of the findings from the survey listed the 30 top most corrupt institutions in Nigeria with the police as number one. In ranking government agencies and parastatals according to their levels of involvement in corrupt practices, the first and second most corrupt government agencies in Nigeria are the police and the National Electric Power Authority (NEPA) (now Power Holding Company of Nigeria, PHCN), respectively. The third, fourth, fifth and sixth most corrupt institutions of government are political parties, the executive arm of federal, state and local governments, members of the national and state assemblies and the court. The Customs and Exercise Department, Federal Road Safety Commission (FRSC) offices of the Accountant-General at federal and state levels and Water Boards are also among the top ten corrupt governmental agencies.

However, the principal impediment to democratic consolidation in Africa is the attitude of leaders, especially their conflicting attitudes toward democracy and human right abuses. They laud, and indeed, relish the powers and authority of democracy and revel in its glory but loathe its restraints, especially fidelity to the rule of law, accountability and respect for citizen’s rights. A work that was investigated by Christensen (cited in Adofu and Abula, 2010) finds out that domestic debt markets in these countries are generally small, highly short term and often have a narrow investors-base. He also discovered that domestic interest rate payment present a significant burdens to the budget, despite much smaller domestic debt than foreign indebtedness. Also Sanusi (cited in Adofu and Abula, 2010) in his study was of the view that faulty domestic policies which ranges from project financing mismatch, in appropriate monetary and fiscal policies was responsible for domestic borrowing problem. He believes that some of the policies were of little significance because of the perceived temporary effect of the external shocks that led to stupendous macroeconomic fallout, which encourage import and discourage export production.

Ahmed (cited in Adofu and Abula, 2010) reflected the causes of debt problem as related to both the nature of the economy and the economic policies put in place by the government. He articulated that the developing economies are characterized by heavy dependence on one or few agricultural and mineral commodities and export trade is highly concentrated on the other. The manufacturing sector is mostly at the infant stage and relies heavily on imported inputs. To him, they are dependent on the developed countries for supply of other input and finance needed for economic development, which made them vulnerable to external shocks. James (cited in Adofu and Abula, 2010) opined that public debt has no significant effect on the growth of most African states economy because the fund borrowed were not channelled into productive ventures, but diverted into

private purse. He suggested further, that, for the gains of the debt forgiveness to be realized the war against corruption should be fought to the highest. In view of the above analyses Adofu and Abula (2010) concluded that:

The rise in domestic debt profile in most African States is attributed to government extra budgetary activities, which most often are not used for the intended project. Commitment to budget should be encouraged for fiscal discipline on the part of the government and its agencies. The government and the Debt Management Office (DMO) should draw up guidelines to limit the growth of future domestic debt. ...., debts service ratio must not exceed 40percent of allocation from the federation account. Effective mechanism should be put in place to ensure that any new borrowing is judiciously utilized to contribute to economic growth. The place of corruption in public debt in most African States is central. Most often, borrowed fund are either misapplied or embezzled.

Another factor that can be linked with under-development of contemporary African States is corruption. Most countries in Africa are today plagued by high-level of corruption in public and private sectors. This is worsen by the selfish and greediness of those in corridors of power. Today, many of the African leaders are operating foreign accounts, being serviced by looted money, which could have been better utilized for the development of African countries. Many of the African leaders are 'sit tight' leaders, having spent several years in power without appreciable progress; tenure elongation and agitation for second term have become a right once they are in leadership. Many of these leaders prefer to die in power rather that to be ousted from power (Naomi, 1999 and Obah-Akpowoghaha, 2013).

Moreover, poor planning and failure of policy implementation also contribute to under-development of states in African. The role of planning in the achievement of objectives cannot be over emphasised. Unfortunately, planning efforts in Africa leave much to be desired. Most of the plans in African countries are myopic, from obsolete data as well as faulty data gathering procedures, thus cannot stand the test of time (Naomi, 1999). However, the problem of free and fair elections, godfatherism and arson, ethnic superiority, inter/intra party crises, human right abuse, the problem of constitutionalism and among others have become issues and challenge to the development of states in African countries (Obah-Akpowoghaha, 2013 and Oko, n.d). A study that was carryout by Obah-Akpowoghaha (2013) concluded that the problem of conducting credible election has be an issue that threaten the survival of democratic values and other developmental variables. Corroborating the above view, Okechukwu, Oko (n.d) a professor of Southern University Law Centre, Baton Rouge Louisiami USA carryout a study titled "The challenge of Democratic Consolidation in Africa, Nigeria as a Case Study" identified the following as the major challenges facing the African states: domestic challenges, organizing credible election, improving the condition of government, revamping public institutions, improving security, counteracting anti-democratic sentiments, citizen and leaders.

Extrapolating from the above studies carried out by Obah-Akpowoghaha (2013) and Oko (n.d), the current problem of development in African is a function of bad leadership. The colonial masters left the soil of African over 30 years ago (most African countries such as Nigeria, Ghana and so no) and African is the one of the richest continent in the globe in the area of natural and human resources but ironically one of the poorest and less industrialised continent in the world(Ibid). The point is derivable in the area of merciless corrupt practices perpetrated by public officials and corporate organisations in connection with outright embezzlement and inflicted-contract respectively. However, the statist theory failed to acknowledge external factors such as porous external boundaries, lack of technology and the interplay of globalisation, these and among others still influence and determine the decisions of African leaders.

### **Concluding Remarks**

Consequently, in this paper we have observe that colonialism has contributed to underdevelopment in Africa and the problem of contemporary Africa states is a function of bad leadership exercise by the ruling elites whose private interests override national interests. However, Corruption has been identified as a major problem in the bid for developmental goals. What seems to be lacking is effective leadership to galvanize and channel the desires and energies toward productive ends. A word from Fareed Zarakı quoted by Oko (n.d) explicit remarks that what Africa needs more urgently than democracy is good governance. Other problems in Africa will easily be addressed once leaders rise to the responsibility, to the challenge of personal examples which are the hallmarks of true leadership. Good leadership in Africa will be necessary to orchestrate fundamental and paradigm shifting changes in the culture and ethos that impede democratic consolidation. Good governance will immeasurably enrich the condition and quality of lives in Africa, transform the continent and ultimately smoothen the path to the creation of a continent so eloquently predicted by Mentah (cited in Oko, n.d), genuine excitement would be generated worldwide by an Africa in which governments demonstrate respect for the constitution and laws, state officials at all levels responsibly execute the duties of their offices, public institutions make efficient use of funds provided, political violence and corruption are sharply reduced, the people's needs are dutifully addressed by public and private services, elections are fairly conducted, and the state once again becomes the collective property of its citizens. While none of these virtues are new in contemporary African context, they would be revolutionary and promote popular democracy.

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## 7

### Contending issues in conflicts and Conflict management in developing economies

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#### ABSTRACT

This paper provides insight into understanding the nature, causes, typologies of conflicts and the effects of conflict resolution strategies. The study opines that efficient management of conflicts is vital for organizational optimum performance. Conflicts are inevitable in human organization because of class struggles and competition for resource allocation and utilization. The study identifies the causes of conflicts and concludes that these agents or forces of destabilization are spatially factionalized. The author recommends that the parties involved should device strategies or systems to mitigate violent conflict and ensure sustainable environment for organizational optimum performance. Furthermore, a holistic approach should be used to entrench a culture of peace through capacity building and peace education to reduce conflicts and group restiveness. There is also the need to build spatial blocks of good relationships between parties in conflict, since any attempt to foil the process could be detrimental to the overall goal of the organization. There is also the urgent need to formulate definitive policies that can eradicate the problem and enhance legislative oversight in Labour and Industrial issues

**Key Concepts:** Conflicts and Clashes, Groups and Individuals, Peace, Culture and management strategies.

#### Introduction

Conflict has no universally accepted meaning or interpretation, However, Szilagyyi (1981) defined conflict as a disagreement between two or more organizational members (employees and employers) concerning the manner to be

used to achieve certain organizational goals, Mescon (1988) defined conflict as “a disagreement between two or more parties which may be individual or groups, Robins (1974) views conflict administratively as all kinds of opposition or antagonistic interactions. Thus the opposite of conflicts is ‘no conflict’ and the opposite of co-operation is ‘no co-operation or’ lack of co-operation. Conflict is inevitable in group relationships. Conflict in management is a fundamental aspect of organizational behaviour and performance. It is an inevitable part of organizational activity because members are from diverse backgrounds. This paper is divided into seven sections; section one focuses on the nature of conflict, section 2 deals with the typologies of conflict, section 3 discusses the sources of conflicts in an organization, section 4 examines the effects of conflicts and clashes. Section 5 considers conflict management and approaches, section 6 focuses on conflict resolution and strategies, while section 7 deals with conclusion and recommendation.

“Many management writings both theoretical and empirical tend to perceive that conflict within an organization is very highly negative” (Peretomode, 1995, Egbon, 2009). Indeed, one of the primary aims of Weber’s bureaucracy was to eliminate conflict. Management today, recognizes that total lack of conflict within an organization is not only “impossible but undesirable.” Conflict is dynamic in nature and does not usually appear suddenly. It usually passes through a series of time, sequence, and progressive stages during which tensions build up. Most industrial organizations are complex with different objectives and philosophies between the employees and the employers in terms of needs, goals, status, knowledge, behavioural styles, interests, aggressiveness and perceptions. Thus, individuals and groups are bound to disagree on issues with emotional intensity. Consequently, conflict is inevitable, unavoidable, natural and a normal part of organizational activities. As a result of its inevitability in modern organizations, stakeholders must learn to manage conflicts rather than attempt to eliminate it.

Stoner and Freeman (1989) opined that too much or too little conflict can inhibit creativity. When conflict is properly managed, problems can be resolved effectively and the solutions are more likely to be more innovative. Other schools of thought view conflict as something unnecessary, bad, destructive, irrational, harmful or dysfunctional and should be avoided when possible and be immediately resolved or eliminated whenever it occurs. (Mescon, 1998, Ogba Uche, 2008).

### **Typologies of Conflicts**

There are several ways of classifying conflicts. Miller and Steinberg (1975) provided a tripartite categorization, namely, simple conflict, pseudo conflict, Ego conflict and line-staff conflict.

- (i) **Simple Conflict** is one in which the conflict is cast in a mutual non-competitive frame. It arises when two people or two groups of people know each other’s goals, but neither side can attain its personal desires without blocking the goal of the other person or groups (Timm and Peterson, 1986).
- (ii) **Pseudo Conflict.** Pseudo–conflict exists in a situation of ineffective communication. According to Timm and Peterson, people who actually agree on an issue, but who are unable to effectively communicate the agreement assume that they disagree.
- (iii) **Ego Conflict:** This type of conflict occurs when people become emotionally involved to a point that there is some threat to their egos.

Therefore, they would want to save their face at any cost by pulling others down in order to protect themselves.

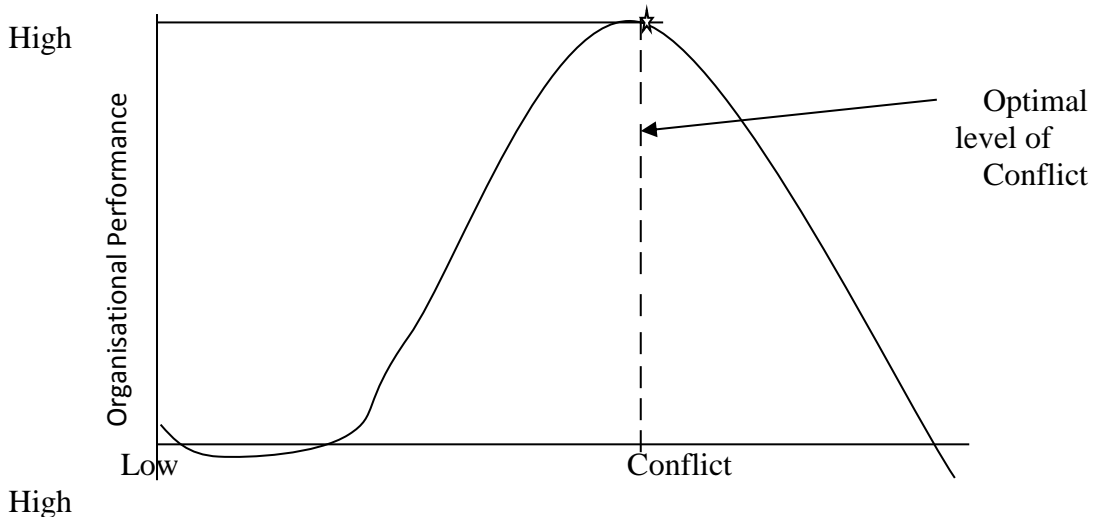
(iv) **Line-Staff Conflict:** This usually takes place between line personnel and staff personnel in an organization. This is the most common type of structural and inter-group conflict in organizations. Staff personnel are expected to advise line personnel but, very often line personnel often resent the advice from staff.

### Functional and Dyfunctional Conflict

Conflict has both positive and negative consequences for organizational optimum performance. Conflicts are inherently neither functional or dysfunctional. It merely has the potential for improving or impairing on how it is managed. Functional conflict is said to occur when the outcomes lead to improved organizational performance. Dyfunctional conflict on the contrary is one that makes it difficult to co-ordinate the activities of an organization and helps to impede or inhibit the effective achievement of the organizational goals.

**Figure 1**, below shows the relationship between organizational conflict and organizational Optimum performance. This is Curvilinear in nature. An optimal, highly functional conflict may lead to maximum organizational performance or effectiveness. However, when the level of conflict is too high, chaos, and disruption may follow. This will lead to low level organizational performance and sometimes even endanger the operational chances of Survival (see Stoner, 1978, Peretomode (1995), Middlmist and Hitt, 1981).

**Figure 1:**



Relationship between Organizational performance and Organizational conflict

### Sources of Conflicts and Clashes

This can be considered under two broad categories, namely, non-structural and structural factors. As Steers and his associates (1985), rightly pointed out, “to understand the sources of conflict, we have to take a broad look at the organization, its environment, and how they work with designed features to cause conflict. Non

structural factors means that the cause of conflict are not attributable to the way in which the best set of work rules and administrative arrangements that determine the pattern of authority and relationship among work activities and task employees are formally defined. These causes can be referred to as personal or behavioural sources of conflict. They include differences in personnel traits, differences' in background, differences in values, differences in perception and emotional attitudes. Most people have conflict prone personalities and "moral character structure."

(a) **Moral Causes:** In general, conflicts over moral differences tend to be long-lasting when groups have different ideas about the good life, they often stress the importance of different things, and may develop radically different or incompatible goals. In some cases, one group may regard the beliefs and actions of another group as so fundamentally wrong that they exceed the bounds of tolerance and require active, committed opposition. Because values, ethics and morals tend to be quite stable, people are often unwilling to negotiate or compromise with respect to these issues. Indeed, if the basic substantive issues of the conflict are deeply embedded in the people's moral perspectives, these issues are likely to be non-negotiable (Hmaes Schellenberg, 1982).

(b) **Issues of Justice:** The desire for justice, especially in a democratic setting, is one that people tend to be unwilling to compromise. The obverse, claims of injustice and desire for restitution can lead to conflicts. Perceptions of injustice can occur, when either a procedure or outcome is viewed as unfair. Indeed, a sense of injustice often motivates aggression or retaliation. Those who benefit from injustice often perpetuate it. In fact, those who feel they have been the victims of injustice or unfair treatment may grow extremely angry and feel justified in seeking revenge.

a. **Issues of Rights:** Grievances that revolve around issues of rights are also likely to contribute to conflicts. A dispute begins when one person or groups make a claim or demand on another who rejects it. However, if both parties advance their claims as a "right" moderate positions become less likely and it becomes difficult to compromise or reach consensus. When parties or groups do not balance their rights and claims against the rights of others, conflicts are likely to result.

b. **Issues of Basic Human Needs:** Theorists have argued that many conflicts are caused by lack of provision of fundamental human needs. These include basic needs for food, water and shelter as well as more complex needs of safety, security, self esteem and personal fulfillment. Because all individuals are driven to fulfill these essential needs, they will fight indefinitely to achieve them and will not give up until their goal is attained.

c. **Identity Issues:** Identity is one of the fundamental needs that underlie many conflicts. Conflicts over identity arise when group members feel that their sense of self-esteem is threatened or denied legitimately and respect. This is because identity is integral to one's self-esteem. Identity conflict leads to increasing polarization and developed hostility towards those in the out-group. Identity is the primary issue in most racial and ethnic conflicts.

- (c) **Distributional Issues:** Issues concerning who gets what, how much they get also can lead to conflict among groups. The items to be distributed include: tangible values such as money, better jobs and deployment as well as intangible values such as social status. The more one party gets the less the other party gets. When the items in questions are very important or valuable, these conflicts tend to become very intractable. The quest for the acquisition of financial gains has been the reason behind numerous conflicts in organizations in Nigeria.

Conflicts and clashes divert resources that could have been used to produce goods and services for the populace, leading to short falls in the welfare of the populace. The inability of managers to respond appropriately to conflicts affects organizational performance.

Conflicts may arise as a result of contest for access to resources and the struggle over identity (Ibeanu, 2003, Egbon, 2010). The state of deprivation and pauperization of the people can motivate and sustain rebellion. This paper is an attempt to establish some attributes charactering organizational conflicts and domestic and international policies to minimize conflict in Nigeria. Conflicts have also been defined as a “war or battle”. According to the Structural Conflict Theory, the way organization is structured and organized precipitate conflicts. Political and economic exclusion, injustice, poverty, exploitation and inequity are also sources of conflict. Conflict can be resolved through revolution generated by the inherent contradictions in the unjust system conflicts remains a major impediment to reducing poverty, upholding human rights and achieving sustainable development (Egbon, 2008). In effect, the control of economic resources has become a vital tool in the motivation and sustenance of violent conflicts. Collier (1998), Collier and Hoeffler (2004) and Hoeffler (2002) opined that control of economic sources are called ‘justice seeking’ and ‘loot seeking’ motives of conflicts. According to Hoeffler (2002), low income, declining economy and the struggles/contests for rents are central bases for conflicts in organizations. Generally, conflicts direct resources away from productive uses and thus motivation and sustenance further conflicts.

### **Effects of Conflict and Clashes:**

#### **Functional Consequences of Conflict**

Conflict is not an evil phenomena per-se. Its effect, whether constructive or destructive, depends upon how it is managed. The beneficial effects of conflicts are very subtle and include the following:

- (i) Conflict between divergent views often results in higher quality decisions or solutions to problems.
- (ii) Conflict can highlight important problems by bringing problems to the surface and to the notice of management.
- (iii) Conflict is a form of communication, and the resolution of conflict may open new and lasting channels

Conflict often provide an outlet for pent-up tensions, resulting in catharsis. With the air cleared, the participants can again concentrate on their primary responsibilities.

### **Dysfunctional Consequences of Conflict**

The destructive effects of conflict are generally obvious and include the following:-

- (i) Hostility and aggression develop in between the parties to the conflict. This can hinder cooperation and co-ordination of activities of the parties within the organization.
- (ii) Dissatisfaction, low morale and a decrease in productivity.
- (iii) Conflicts bring about unnecessary and/or overpowering stress.
- (iv) Conflict remains a major impediment to reducing poverty, upholding human rights and achieving sustainable development.

### **Other Effects of Conflicts and Clashes**

- (a) **Erosion of Professionalism.** The most significant observation that can be made about conflict is that the standard of professionalism that have been attained over the years of training, corporate existence and development are undermined and eroded.
- (b) **Undermining Laws and Order:** Probably the most significant effect of clashes is that they undermine the critical organizational function of maintaining law and order. All enterprises require their employees to surrender some degree of freedom in the workplace. Profit maximizing organizations do not want situations of random killing, stealing and general lawlessness.
- (c) **Individual Security:** At all level of the individuals and groups, Security is most often understood as safety. This safety includes; freedom from harm whether physical or psychological. Individual or group security here relates to social threats that are embedded in a human environment with unforeseen and sometimes unavoidable social, economic or political problems such as violence, crimes, destruction of property etc.

### **Conflict Management and Approaches**

Conflict results from both non-structural factors and structured characteristics of formal organizations. It is a phenomena that is inevitable in every organization. It cannot be eliminated entirely. Managers or executives should recognize it as inheritable and therefore develop an understanding often, ways of managing, minimizing and resolving chaos. The various ways of managing or resolving conflicts can be classified under broad categories such as avoidance, diffusion and confrontation (Golembieski and Blumberg (1976).

### **Non- Structural determinants of Organizational Conflict**

By non-structural factors, we mean sources of conflict within the organization which are the causes of conflict not attributable to the ways in which the set of work rules and administrative arrangements, that determine the pattern of authority relationship among work activities and task employees are formally defined. These causes includes; personnel traits, poor communication skills, differences in perceptions, emotions and attitudes, mannerism, self esteem, result to provocation and predisposition to distrust and suspicion. People with these abrasive character/traits are likely to engage or find themselves in conflict more frequently with others than those without these traits (Hampton 1986).

## **Structural Sources of Organizational Conflict**

Organizational structure refers to the formally defined framework or task and authority relationships. Conflicts that arise from the structural and design features in an organization and its integrated sources are what we call structural conflicts. Most conflicts are however based on the structural characteristics of the organization rather than personal disputes (Steers, Ungson and Monday, 1985), structural sources of conflict include; work interdependence natural dependence or limited resources, differences in performance criteria and reward system, and differences in status.

## **Conflict Resolution Strategies**

Conflict is a phenomenon that is inevitable in every organization. It cannot be eliminated entirely. Thus managers should recognize it and must live with conflict. Thus, they must develop an understanding of the ways of managing, minimizing and resolving it. The various ways of managing or resolving conflict according to Golembieski and Blumberg (1976): include avoidance, diffusion and confrontation. Reitz (1977) opined two broad categories namely; non-intervention and intervention approaches. In the non-intervention strategy, the parties to the conflict resolve the conflict themselves.

- i) Avoidance: This is sometimes referred to as “withdrawing” Management simply totally avoids, ignores, “Looking the other way”. It is leaving the resolution of the conflict to “fate or change.”
- ii) Persuasion  
This is a form of non-intervention approach in which the parties in conflict are encouraged to confront their differences and then solve them themselves.
- iii) Bargaining: This is defined as the process by which two conflicting parties exchange offers, counter-offers and concessions (either directly or through representatives) in an attempt to reach a mutually acceptable agreement (Baron, 1990). Bargaining is often considered as the most common method for inter-group conflict resolution. Bargaining or compromising implies that one or both parties give something up in order to reach a solution.
- iv) Bribing: This is a non-intervention approach to managing or resolving conflict in which one party to the conflict accepts some compensation from the other in exchange for ending the conflict in question.
- v) Integrative Problem Solving:  
Szilagyi (1981), opined that this problem solving intervention management strategy involves bringing together the groups in conflict in order to conduct a formal confrontation meeting. This is often referred to as a ‘Confrontation’ technique. The conflicting groups present their views to each other and work through the differences in perceptions. Issues of who is wrong or right are not allowed; only the identification of problems and possible solutions are permitted. There are situations in which management have applied some of the intervention and non-intervention techniques with great success (Robins 1978).

## **Intervention Approaches:**

Intervention conflict management strategies involve management of organizations of the existence of the conflicts situation to intervene and to modify or

settle conflicts between the parties involved. Some of the strategies include the following: smoothing, forcing, (administrative command, Arbitration and majority rule.)

- i. **Smoothing Overt Conflict** is often considered as a more diplomatic way of suppressing conflict and it involves the use of reward power. It is believed that stressing shared view points on certain issues facilitates movement toward a common goal (Matterson, 1987, Peretomode 1995 and Szilagayi, 1981).
- ii. **Forcing:** This is referred to as repressing or use of authority or authority command for resolving conflict. That is, the management uses its authority to solve the conflict by dictating what the subordinate will do. Thus management simply revolves the conflict as it sees it fit and communicates its decision or desires to the groups involved in the conflict. Subordinates normally abide by the decisions of the superior whether or not they agree with it.
- iii. **Arbitration:** This is a conflict management strategy in which the conflicting parties submit to the judgment of the third party called arbitrator whose decision is binding on both parties to the dispute or conflict.
- iv. **Majority Rule:** This technique is sometimes also called democratic means of resolving conflict. The leaders simply just allow the larger group to settle the issue of conflict by vote.

The identified causes of violent conflicts include: morality and propriety, basic human needs and the distribution of values. The effects include undermining of law and order, weakens the organizational performance. The recommendations proffered cover the formulation of policy to eradicate the problem and enhanced legislature oversight and industrial and labour relations issues. This paper attempts to look at the problems of conflict with a view to identify their causes and effects and proposing recommendations. Conflicts can be defined as incompatibility between two or more individual groups or organization concerning something that at least one of the parties regards as values. They may develop a mutual fear of each other and a profound desire to inflict as much physical and psychological harm on each others as possible. Such tendencies are exacerbated by collective memories of antipathy and hate. This sense of threat and hostility often pervades the everyday lives of the parties involved.

### **Conclusions and Recommendation**

This paper shows in consonance with earlier studies, (Collier 2004, Hoeffler 2002, Peretomode 1995, Egbon 2009) that low income, declining economy and the struggle/contests for resources allocation are central economic basis for conflicts in modern organizations. Generally, conflicts divert resources away from productive uses and therefore affect adversely, investment, social provisions and the living standard of the people in the work place and thus motivating and sustaining further conflicts.

The study recommends that management should go beyond the rhetories of the monetary consensus. Management should formulate policies to eradicate or reduce conflicts and clashes and enhance legislature oversight and friendly industrial and labour environmental related issues.

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8

**Peace-Building as Third-Tier Governance Variable For Sustainable  
Grassroot Development: South-South Nigeria**

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**Abstract**

The recurrence of conflicts in parts of contemporary Nigeria especially in the South-south geopolitical region following the protracted struggle for regional economic determinism, otherwise called, resource control has unearthed a series of developmental challenges for policy makers at the grassroots level of governance in the region. This paper presents a historical analysis of some of the major challenges that policy makers in the region face in attempting to build (or rather re-build) peace in a conflict ridden geopolitical region. The paper identifies, among other factors, the complex role of political officers at the grassroots in reconciling divergent interest of youths and other community stakeholders with those of prospective investors and developers. It also establishes the rationale for local government policymakers to be concerned about peace-building and suggests *inter alia*, the need to enhance local government peace-building capabilities by making them benefit from direct central (federal) funding sources in order to also make them more responsible and accountable to their local populations.

**Keywords:** Peace-building, Sustainable development, Grassroots governance, Nigerian local government.

**Introduction and Conceptual Clarification**

Of the several contemporary developmental challenges of the Nigerian state, the issue of national security resonates as a very crucial component. Policymakers of the nation's South-south geopolitical regions have in acquiescence hinged their governmental policy foci *inter alia* on the maintenance of peace and security. For instance, the governor of Delta State, one of the principal oil-producing states in the Niger Delta, Dr. Emmanuel Uduaghan, has admittedly cemented his administration

on a three-point agenda of maintaining peace and security, accelerating human capital development and thirdly extending the network of infrastructure in the state during his tenure. Discourses on peace-building in our time therefore become very auspicious at this critical point of national development in Nigeria especially as the nation grapples with internal security challenges.

The subject matter of development is undoubtedly very topical to the existence of any government. In fact, the major goal of contemporary governments globally is to provide a reasonable level of socio-economic development for their people. This goal has continued to engender concern for not only developing but also, and perhaps even more importantly, the G20 world economic leaders whose summits have assumed more strident frequency in recent times. Development in fact remains a major yardstick for assessing the performance and hence relevance of any government at whatever levels it exists.

**Development** generally can be seen as a “process” of growth. Often when we use the term development the reference or emphasis is on “economic development” or more comfortably “socio-economic development”. However, the term applies to all other spheres of human and societal existence. So we can talk of political development, physical development, cultural development, spiritual development among others. The context in which we use the term here is socio-economic. As a “process” of growth, we see socio-economic development not just merely as an “increase in size” of national income but also one accompanied with noticeable, tangible positive changes in the physical structure of the society and improvement in the general standard and quality of life that the people in the society are living. A country that just attained an increase in size of its national income is merely “growing” not developing. Economic growth is necessary but not sufficient for a state. Such growth must be transformed into qualitative changes in infrastructure and services to the people in terms of increased housing, stable and continuous supply of public power, improved education and health services, more kilometers of motorable roads, growing number of industries, higher rate of employment (and if possible, full employment), improved human and material security among others. Economic development is therefore a more desirable state than mere economic growth for any society. The distinction between growth and development is very distinct and must therefore be clearly deciphered in a development discourse.

However, contemporary concern among policymakers in Nigeria is not merely attaining development but in sustaining it. Sustainable development is a more complex topic. Sustainability is a process which tells of a development of all aspects of human life affecting sustenance. The term *sustainable development* refers to a mode of human development in which resource use aims to meet human needs while ensuring the sustainability of natural systems and the environment, so that these needs can be met not only in the present, but also for generations to come. Sustainable development was first used by the World Commission for Environment and Development (otherwise known as the Brundtland Commission named after its chairperson, Norwegian physician *Gro Harlem Brundtland*) which was set up by the United Nations in 1983. In its report published in 1987, the commission coined what has become the most often-quoted definition of sustainable development as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."(UN:1987). Claims to efforts at achieving some socio-economic developments in Nigerian communities may be

made by policymakers especially in pointing to some (perhaps ephemeral) physical projects being undertaken by present political officers. In fact, the commonest registers in the dictum of the average politician in contemporary Nigeria are “*dividends of democracy*” and “*sustainable development*”. What is however very evident is the claimants’ elusive understanding of the sustainability contents in such claims. To be sustainable, development must resolve the conflict between the various competing goals and involve the simultaneous pursuit of economic prosperity, environmental quality and social-political equity (Hasna,2007). These formed the three dimensions popularly called the Triple Bottom Line of sustainable development. In other words, sustainability must satisfy the three basic constituent conditions of ensuring *environmental sustainability*, *economic sustainability* and *sociopolitical sustainability*. Economic sustainability means keeping all aspects of economic activities going without disruption while environmental sustainability implies making the environment continuously ready for use by its bio-diverse inhabitants (plants and animals) without destroying its ability to regenerate new resources. Socio-political sustainability refers to the ability of present development to keep existing sociopolitical structures while meeting the needs of all people in an equitable manner. These three strands of sustainable development as we must expectedly understand cannot easily be achieved by any government whether local or international. It is easier to state them than to achieve them. In the Nigerian setting particularly, sustainable sociopolitical development is very challenging as it refers to the disposition of the leaders to keep existing good government initiatives and build on them. Rather, most political leaders tend to start something new to take glory. Thus, OFN is replaced by Green Revolution, MAMSER, by Better life programs, UPE by UBE and Operation Fire for Fire by “to serve with integrity”. All these initiatives though have identical objectives and goals, implementation procedures and processes and even resource requirements, are changed with new regimes thereby destroying sustainability. No one wants to build on the success or failures of predecessors. Everyone wants to be a creator yet not many (if any) create something new after all.

**Peace-building** has been used perhaps erroneously with two other terms *Peacekeeping* and *Peacemaking*. But it is the former United Nations Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali that popularizes the term peace-building which clearly distinguishes it from the other two. According to Boutros-Ghali, Peace-building is simply “action to solidify peace and avoid relapse into conflict” (Boutros-Ghali, 1992). But such Boutros-Ghali’s definition of peace-building appears to be one sided because it sees the concept from the point of view of someone or parties who had been involved in conflict (post-conflict intervention). However peace-building is more than just preventing “a relapse” into conflict. It also includes actions designed to avoid “lapsing” into it in the first place (pre-conflict intervention). **Peace-building** describes outside interventions that are designed to prevent the start or resumption of violent conflict within a nation by creating a sustainable peace. Peace-building activities address the root causes or potential causes of violence, create a societal expectation for peaceful conflict resolution and stabilize society politically and socioeconomically. It was Norwegian sociologist Johan Galtung who first created the term peace-building in the 1970’s through his promotion of systems that would create sustainable peace. Such systems needed to address the root causes of conflict and support local capacity for peace management and conflict resolution. Galtung's work emphasized a bottom-up approach that

decentralized social and economic structures, amounting to a call for a societal shift from structures of coercion and violence to a culture of peace (UN,2013). Peace-building is essentially “attempting to resolve conflict before it starts at all”.

The other two terms **Peacekeeping** and **peacemaking** are essentially post-conflict in nature because they are forms of intervention by third parties in order to broker a resolution of an existing conflict or crisis. **Peacekeeping** involves mobilizing troops and other human and material resources to conflict fields with a view to preventing belligerents from continuing a present violent conflict. The peacekeeper actually engages in activities to stop and (if possible, disarm the combatants). Peacekeepers are often military officers – soldiers and police officers - who have mandates to use weapons especially if directly under attack by a stubborn belligerent. In the course of their mission, the peacekeepers themselves could be killed. As we speak, Nigerian soldiers in conjunction with those from other African states are in various peacekeeping missions in African and other international battlefields. The term **peacemaking** is essentially a post-escalation conflict resolution activity that is used in several different ways. However, from the United Nations perspective, peacemaking is: *action to bring hostile parties to agreement, essentially through such peaceful means*. Those means are contained in Chapter VI of the Charter of the United Nations relating to the section on the “Pacific Settlement of Disputes.” In this sense, peacemaking is the diplomatic effort intended to move a violent conflict into nonviolent dialogue, where differences are settled through representative political institutions. The objective of peacemaking is thus to end the violence between the contending parties (Quellet, 2003). Several means can be used to attain peacemaking including *negotiation, mediation, conciliation, and arbitration*. International Law also provides another channel of *adjudication* through the international court. The case of the Nigerian-Cameroon conflict over the Bakassi Peninsula is still a fresh example here.

### **Peace-Building In Conflict Theoretical Perspective**

There is no contesting the premise under which academic discourses on peace-building, peacekeeping and peacemaking are situated – conflict theory. In fact the subject-matter of conflict has become very topical in the contemporary literature of the African (and particularly Nigerian) Social Sciences. This phenomenon has been particularly promoted by two significant events which occurred in the early years of the twenty-first century namely the September 11, 2001 attacks by the Al Qaeda network and the Niger Delta Crises. The colossal impact of these events on global security and economy has given analysts and policymakers a matter for close attention. One aspect of this concern lies in the desire to understand the fundamental logic of societal conflict especially in a pluralistic society like Nigeria.

Social conflicts have been classified variously as there are “observers/analysts”. One view sees conflict as the “interaction of independent parties who perceive incompatible goals (interests, aspirations, positions) and interference from each other in achieving those goals” (Oregon State University, 2000). Creative Associates International Incorporation (2003) in their discourse on conflict prevention on African conflicts sees conflict as “present when two or more parties perceive that their interests are incompatible, express hostile attitudes, or pursue their interests through actions that damage the other parties”. These parties may be individuals, small or large groups, and countries. It is a situation in which at least two actors or their representatives try to pursue their perceptions of mutually incompatible goals by undermining directly or otherwise, the goal-seeking capability

of one another (Sandole, 1996). A “conflict exists whenever incompatible activities occur... an action that is incompatible with another prevents, obstructs, interferes, injures, or in some way makes the latter less likely or less effective” (Deutsch, 1973). This definition is quite similar to that of Pruitt & Rubin (1986), which sees conflict as “...perceived divergence of interest, or a belief that the parties’ current aspirations cannot be achieved simultaneously”. Conflict, from the foregoing therefore, is the expression of an incompatibility between different parties.

In every conflict, there is a **conflict realm**, which is *the social environment in which the conflict resides*, defined by both context and process. For instance, a conflict between two sons of a deceased father over inherited landed properties exists within the realm of the family but if such conflicts escalate in a way that lives and properties of other persons in the community are threatened, the realm has grown from a family conflict to that of the community. Under this perspective, three types of conflicts can be identified namely: *interpersonal conflicts*, in which goal interference is attributable to other individuals; *Impersonal conflicts*, in which individuals have encounters with non-responsive, impersonal entity (e.g. a bureaucratic organization). In such impersonal cases, the individuals may experience feelings of powerlessness and frustration. Before these impersonal conflicts can be resolved through direct, constructive communication, the “impersonal” party must perceive interdependence; if not, that party will likely not see a conflict; and *corporate conflicts* which occur within and between formal organizations. Corporate conflicts are influenced by the nature of the organization and its policies, both formal and informal, concerning change.

Four issues which would normally bring people, bodies or states into conflicts can be identified namely; *Substantive issues* that are tangible (observable, definable and measurable) elements parties perceive in a conflict. Such substantive issues center on the questions: “what to do, what decisions to make, where to go, how to allocate resources – jobs or revenues, or other externally objectionable issues”. The second types of issues in a conflict are *Procedural issues*. These are issues in which there are perceived incompatibilities in organizational procedures between the parties. Discussion of procedural issues may need to precede discussion in substantive issues. Procedural issues are generally tangible. Thirdly, there are *Relational issues*, which are intangible, subjective materials. Relational issues involve “each party’s importance to the other, the emotional distance they wish to maintain, the influence each is willing to grant the other, the degree to which the parties are seen in a unit or the rights the parties accede to one another” (Hocker & Wilmot, 1991). The fourth types are those issues relating to *identity*, in which parties identify with groups that share symbols, meanings and norms/rules for conduct. Within interpersonal relationships, people negotiate social role and personal identities. Identities provide individuals with purpose, meaning and a sense of worth. They can be broad in scope, like nationalism or narrow in scope, such as identification with an individual or even personality type. Typically intangible, *identity* issues can feature concerns about self-esteem, acknowledgement, achievement, reputation, and image or “face” (Folger, Poole & Stutman, 1995).

**Interests** can diverge in many ways: over *resources* - territory, money, energy sources, jobs, food - and how they should be distributed; over *power* - how control and participation in political decision-making are allocated; over *identity* - concerning the cultural, social and political communities to which people are tied; over *status* - whether people believe they are treated with respect and dignity and

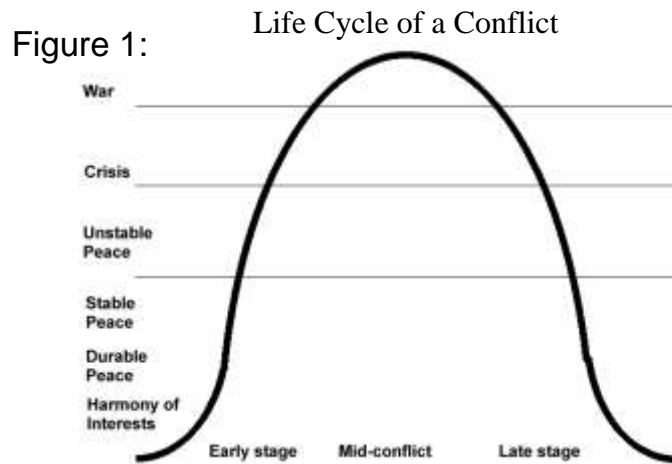
whether their traditions and social positions are respected; and or, over *values* - particularly those embodied in systems of government, religion, or ideology (CAII,2003)

Incompatibilities can be seen in changes in *objective* circumstances- a lowered standard of living; demographic changes or population movements; technological changes that alter communications, material capacities, weaponry and relative power. *Subjective* changes can also generate conflict through, for instance, newly felt social resentments or a rising new nationalist ideology: these subjectively felt changes could arise whether or not objective changes have occurred. The parties' emotional states and mental outlooks influence conflicts. Conflicts only arise out of these conditions – changes in them- when parties perceive that such interests are threatened by some other party.

In **Latent** conflicts, an observer may believe that parties' interests are compatible but the respective parties are not aware of these incompatibilities. This may be caused by self-delusion, rationalization, lack of knowledge, or suppressed information. All such unacknowledged or barely recognized conflicts of interests are latent. However, conflicts become **Manifest** when these unacknowledged contrary interests become voiced.

In most conflicts, three major *parties* (entities – individuals, groups, organizations, government – who are capable of making decisions directly or indirectly related to the conflict) can be identified namely; *Primary parties*, these are major players in the conflict; they perceive that their goals or aspirations are incompatible with one another and interact directly with each other in pursuit of their objectives; *Secondary parties* these have a vested interest in or may be affected directly by the conflict and its outcomes, but for some reasons ( such as inadequate resources, lack of access, perception of inappropriateness) are not directly involved in prosecuting it. For instance, in the intractable 2013 disagreement between academic staff union of universities and the Nigerian government authorities resulting in an industrial action (strike) parents or students were not directly drawn into the conflict but these are the secondary parties to it because they are directly affected by the outcome of the rift. Secondary parties are potential coalition members, and may become primary parties at some point: and *Peripheral parties*, these have an interest in the conflict and outcome but are not affected directly. For instance, in the current political conflict in the Rivers State House of Assembly, the media and the “general public” may be peripheral parties.

Typically, every conflict has a life cycle as is diagrammatically shown hereunder:



**Source:** *Creative Associate International Incorporation; Conflict Prevention Forum(2003),p.2.*

Pruitt & Rubin’s description of three conflict phases coheres with the idea of the Conflict Prevention Forum diagram above. Typically, conflicts develop through three stages namely, *conflict escalation, stalemate and settlement*. The “point at which the parties are using the maximum force possible (or the maximum that they are willing to use) yet neither side is able to prevail in the conflict” is “the stalemate” or to use a chess analogy, they have reached a “draw”(Pruitt & Rubin: 1986). They believe that when the conflict is very violent or costly in emotional or economic terms, the situation is often referred to as a “hurting stalemate” – a situation in which continuing the conflict will bring only continued harm, without benefit. Once all the parties to a conflict agree that the conflict has reached this stage, they are more likely to be willing to negotiate at least a temporary settlement, since they can tell that continuing the confrontation will do them no good. Here stalemate may occur due to four main reasons. First, is the *failure of contention tactics* where it is believed that contention tactics that work early in the conflict are not as effective later on, as the parties get to know just how far the other will go and how they can counter any offensive effectively. The second cause of stalemate is *resource limits* in which parties may run out of energy, money, or time. Third, they may run out of *people* who are willing to continue the fight. If a contending party cannot win a conflict in a relatively quick and easy manner, its people often get tired and want to give up. Fourth, the *cost of continuing the conflict may just be too high* (if the situation is a “hurting stalemate”) that the parties may choose to discontinue it. This was the situation, Pruitt & Rubin argue, in the Cuban Missile Crisis of 1961, because neither side was willing to run the risk of a nuclear war in order to prevail. They observe that both sides intentionally escalated the conflict in the Cuban Missile Crisis in order to produce a stalemate, which was then ripe for negotiation.

In the conflict theoretical logic, peace-building occupies a commanding role before, during and most importantly after the violence in the conflict had occurred. In identifying some seven steps to peace-building in Indonesian conflict situation, Braithwaite and his co-researchers acknowledge Emile Durkheim’s thesis of *anomie* in the explanation of violence wherein, they believe that “at the onset of every violence, anti-sadism norms are often suspended” by parties in strong contention or at least ignored (Braithwaite et al, 2010). When conflicting parties are overwhelmed

by the force of optimism in defending their perceived interests which they consider as being threatened (or lost), no known social norms may seem potent to dissuade them from lapsing into violence. Peace-building is an aspect of conflict theory which encapsulates the totality of policy actions that can avert conflict whether previous or future from recurring. Anyone talking about peace must be very much concerned in his mind about conflict. In fact, some people say if you want peace, you must be prepared for war. That saying implies that peace is not just an easy state or outcome to achieve. One must first create a ground for attaining it otherwise what he shall often get is conflict.

### **Main Objectives of Peace-Building**

Generally, peace building activities whether local, national or international are designed to fulfill the following major objectives:

- ❖ ***Durable peace.*** This refers to a social environment where there is not just only peace among the inhabitants but a supportive self-sustaining peace among them. From the diagram above on the life cycle of conflict, we can see that durable peace exist prior to, and after a conflict. Before a conflict occurs, people live harmoniously loving each other and taking one and other as they first appear. However, after a conflict, people now know themselves better and then understand how best to avoid conflict between each other.
- ❖ ***Reconciliation of opponents.*** Peace-building is an informal yet institutional way of bringing hitherto opposing parties into agreement without having to use force or a dialogue table. The peace-builder does not necessarily have to call the parties to a roundtable (as in peacemaking). He also does not point fingers or apportion blames (as in adjudication). The reconciliation move is done without either of the opposing parties feeling agitated about what the peace-builder does. For instance, if the indiscriminate dumping of refuse by market women on the side of a major road causes a car crash involving two road users in their attempt to avoid the refuse heap or dump, the man who comes to mediate between the conflicting road-users (vehicle-drivers or owners) is a *peacemaker*, the police officer that comes to apportion blame and to know whose driving is right or wrong is a *peace-keeper*. But the man who comes to clear the refuse which is the original cause of the crash (conflict) is a *peace builder*. His action helps to avoid a future incidence. Also, none of the conflicting parties will feel agitated that he is clearing the refuse. This simple example epitomizes in a nutshell the role of the peace-builder in a conflict, whatever the scale or form.
- ❖ ***Forestall future conflict.*** Boutros-Ghali's definition of peace-building clearly underscores this objective – preventing future occurrence. A peace-builder cannot and does not feel concerned about a conflict that has already occurred but more importantly with the one that will occur in future. That is, he is interested in asking the question “why” and neither the questions “what” nor “how”. His interest is on what to do in order to prevent the future one from occurring. That is, if in the first place, he had been unable to avoid the previous one from occurring.
- ❖ ***Integrating civil society.*** The peace-builder seeks to bring people together in a harmonious and integrated fashion. To integrate is to weave or to interconnect one body to the other in such a way that as one of the interconnected bodies moves, it carries the other or its interest along with it.

Consider how tight it is to clamp the fingers of the two hands of a human being together. In a heterogeneous society as Nigeria and more particularly in the conflict-ridden South-south geopolitical region, the peace-builder has a lot to do to bring people of different ethnic, religious, family, educational, cultural or other social background together.

- ❖ **Create Rule of Law mechanisms.** One theory of conflict believes that people oppose each other and gets into conflict because they do not follow the laid-down laws or follow procedures laid-down (Burnett, 1993). If they adhered to laws governing the society (the rule of conduct), they would avoid conflict with one another. The laws may be natural or secular (man-made). The peace-builder seeks to build into societies mechanisms that will make people respect the prevailing societal laws. He does this by creating awareness among the people and encouraging them to keep strictly to these laws.
- ❖ **Addressing Structural and Societal issues.** Sometimes, conflict arises over how a society is structured or over how issues relating to peoples’ needs or welfare are handled by those in authority. For instance, the way a community development authority is set up in an oil-producing community or the way post-flooding relief materials brought to a community by the government or a Non-Governmental Organization(NGO) are distributed among component bodies of the community can breed conflict. The peace-builder seeks to define how these structures and issues are properly situated to avoid conflict.

To accomplish these goals, peace-building must, according to Nitze (2012) address functional structures, emotional conditions and social psychology, social stability, rule of law and ethics and cultural sensitivities.

From a theoretical point of view, peace building especially post-conflict, involves three main dimensions as indicated by the chart below;

1st Dimension	2nd Dimension	3rd Dimension	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Taking away weapons</li> <li>• Re-integrating former combatants into civilian society</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rebuilding basic facilities, transportation and communication networks, utilities</li> <li>• Developing rule of law systems and public administration</li> <li>• Building educational and health infrastructure</li> <li>• Providing technical and capacity-building assistance for institutions</li> <li>• Creating legitimate (democratic accountable,) state institutions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Trauma counseling</li> <li>• Transitional justice and restoration</li> <li>• Community dialogue</li> <li>• Building bridges between different communities</li> <li>• Increasing human rights</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender empowerment</li> <li>• Raising environmental awareness</li> <li>• Promoting economic development</li> <li>• Developing a civil society and private sector that can represent diverse interests and challenge the state peacefully</li> </ul>

Source: Barnett *et al*

## **Peace-Building as A Third Tier Governance Variable**

Nigeria runs a federal government structure networked within three levels of governance namely; the central government (otherwise known as the Federal Government) at Abuja, thirty-six regional governments (otherwise known as State Governments) and seven hundred and seventy-four grassroots divisional governments (otherwise known as Local governments). On this sprawling webbed structure is development-based governance being provided (or at least being expected). With a massive population of not less than a hundred and forty-four million people, as per the 2006 census estimates provided by the National Population Commission (NPC) in 2006, peace and security challenges *inter alia* should implicitly be profound. Peace-building challenges should accordingly be much onerous and daunting. The Niger Delta crisis which unearthed a series of grassroots security challenges in the oil-rich region has noticeably created fresh developmental variables for political officers at the local government level. The momentum in this research is to address the various challenges that these policymakers are grappling with in the course of dispensing good governance at the local government levels using the South-south geopolitical council areas as research terrain.

As political officers at the grassroots level, policymaking concern mainly is neither on peacekeeping nor on peacemaking but on peace-building. Only the federal government is involved in all three activities because it is the singular authority that can take decisions on peacekeeping since it involves the use of force which only the federal government possesses. The States can get involved in peacemaking whenever situations demand. We have seen several instances where State governments in the South-south geopolitical region have intervened on inter-community and chieftaincy crises within their areas of jurisdiction. Local governments are however fully involved in efforts at peace-building. This forum essentially provides us with strategies that the local government officers can use in promoting peace-building in their areas of jurisdiction (domains). We turn presently to that salient aspect of our discourse.

### **Why Peace-Building at the Grassroots Level?**

Some reasons for the involvement of local government officials in peace-building are

- **Only a peaceful environment can attract grassroots development.** No government can execute any projects in a community that is involved in conflicts and violence. For many years before the present administration's intervention, people dread buying and developing landed properties in some of the urban and suburban cities in the South-south states. In such cities as Port Harcourt, Effurun, Warri, Yenagoa and Asaba where violent youth activities have obstructed private (and sometimes corporate and public) investors and developers, grassroots policymakers have suffered serious stress in reconciling the developmental interests of government with these obstructing youths. Community youths who forcefully impose fees popularly called "deve" on prospective land developers have scared meaningful development from their communities. Their inordinate financial demands on these investors and developers sometimes scare the latter away from their prospective business locations. Shell Petroleum Development Company (SPDC) a major foreign oil firm operating a joint-venture with the federal

government of Nigeria in the exploration /exploitation of crude oil in the region has had to grapple with series of community settlements and compensations most of which would falter in the balance-spring of moral and economic justification.

- **Meagre resources at the local government level.** Compared to what the State and Federal governments have, local government funding capacities are still dangerously small relative to the development expectations of the society on these councils. Local government cannot fund peacekeeping or some peacemaking missions that runs into billions of naira to execute. Although in the final analysis, what may be spent on peace-building may be higher than the other two, the fact that peace-building take a relatively long time to realize makes it less burdensome for councils to undertake in piecemeal than the others.
- **Most conflicts have fundamentally local interests in origin.** Apart from national or regional conflicts which involve several groups of states or communities, in which local officials are almost indifferent, most people are aggrieved over local interests – things that directly affect their immediate existence. For instance, if a local road is blocked by some persons who are organizing some form of parties or ceremonies so that local commuters cannot drive or walk through, it is not appropriate to expect the State or Federal government to intervene and find immediate local solutions. Only the local government councils can meet such needs. Some other local interests that can easily precipitate crisis or conflict include local drainage, security, market space, sanitation, street-naming, chieftaincy, marriage, schools and hospital among others. A local government chairman may not be as agitated if Nigeria is having a diplomatic row with say Ghana as he would be if floods are sweeping off parts of his council areas. Peace-building are better established to address local issues of interests to the grassroots populations.
- **Peace-building is practically a peacetime activity.** Unlike peacekeeping and peacemaking which are activities embarked upon during times of conflict (post-eruption stage), peace-building is an activity that can be executed during peacetime before or after conflict (pre-eruption or post-resolution stage). Governments at the grassroots can only carry out activities aimed at maintaining or securing harmony during peace time and not during war. Local governments only have alternative tools of conflict resolutions aimed at providing grassroots socio-political developments or generation of local employments rather than primary tools of war such as the police or army which are instruments possessed only by the higher authorities.

### **Strategies for Peace-Building at the Grassroots Level (Practical Dimension)**

We have said that peace-building can take place either before or after conflict occurs. This two- phase dimension of peace-building brings several components into it. At the grassroots level, the local government can create healthy peace-building by undertaking the following strategies as much as possible within the limits of their resource capabilities.

- ✓ **Create Job Opportunities.** A hungry man they say is an angry man. The challenges of insecurity that council areas are facing today in the South-South geopolitical region are a direct fall-out of the high rate of graduate

unemployment especially among the youths in these communities. The army of unemployed youths in our communities is so great that even parents are confused about how to keep their children under social control after their college (or university) education. It is not just enough nowadays to have a comfortable home where children can live and feel happy with all household facilities provided let alone living in a tight apartment with your family. At some point, the children will become tired of watching television or playing games. They will need to go out and meet with friends and other people. That is where the risk of mingling with peers with bad influences and hence crimes come in. One youth gainfully employed is one security threat avoided. We know that local government councils do not have the power to employ workers on a permanent, pensionable basis although in the long run, they should be able to do so. However they, at present, engage in the creation of local short-term jobs such as direct labour activities in local construction; revenue collection; refuse collection; street cleaning; community security among others. Local government can set up production units for local staple-foods such as Garri or Palm oil processing or large-scale farming schemes where local employees are engaged. There are yet very few local government councils in the geopolitical region that have developed a local government transport scheme where several jobs could be created for drivers and mechanics, clerks, secretaries, accountants among others. We would rather that local government chairmen patronize local contractors in executing their local projects than for them to use “foreigners”. This will not only help develop local potentials but also empower local businesses at the grassroots. Most big businesses started as small units initially. Beside, when you go out to engage foreigners, you also give yourselves room for suspicion of corruption among your subjects. Local patronage among Nigeria’s major ethnic groups: Ibos, Yorubas and Hausas are however higher than among minority ethnic groups who have often grown very suspicious of each other.

- ✓ **Identifying with the interests of local people.** It is now common knowledge that it is no longer possible or fashionable to be an absentee local government chairman these days. Rather, chairmen/chairpersons must be constantly on ground to identify with the problems and plights of the local people. By appearing very elitist and inaccessible, political leaders estrange themselves from the people and create distance between them and the government thus promoting the feeling of indifference among the people about their existence. Local government political officers should as much as possible attend social ceremonies and give generously (without compulsion however) to support them. Durable peace is ensured if people have a feeling of acceptance of one another rather than rejection.
- ✓ **Building infrastructure.** Infrastructure in terms of markets, schools, parks and playgrounds, hospitals, roads, hotels or other recreational centres help to build peace. For instance, effective street lighting helps to reduce incidence of armed attack and other criminal activities. A dark place is a potential scene of crime and sin as the Biblical saying goes, “there is no connection between light and darkness”(2 Cor.6:14). The more infrastructure a community possesses the more peaceful the people lives. If three communities are to share an electricity transformer or a primary school, the potential risk of conflict is higher than when each of these communities has its own. Although the resources at the disposal of local councils are very

much limited especially as they are yet to be independent from the State in terms of funding allocation, however as much as possible, the councils can initiate development projects that they can complete in reasonable time. By building infrastructure they build peace among people

- ✓ **Supporting traditional institutions.** Although modern democracy in theory has no place for traditional rulers, the Nigerian society had recognized and continues to give recognition to existing traditional rulers as instruments for maintaining socio-cultural harmony. In a heterogeneous society like Nigeria, different people desire to keep their traditions, customs and religions intact in order to avoid being forgotten or eroded with time. Traditional rulers are a symbol of culture retention and respect for authority. Local government officers must continue to draw synergies from existing traditional institutions to build peace. By continuing to sideline local traditional institutions (rulers) some of whom are highly learned former public servants, local political officers are rather not building “bridges” but “walls” instead (Stewart,1995). It is not proper to have a mindset that, “they did not employ or elect me into office, why should I honour them”? The traditional rulers still enjoy the support of the local people both of whom are simultaneous subjects of the political officers. They regard the traditional rulers as custodians of their culture. By strengthening the hands of the traditional rulers through your support and recognition you build peace in your domain. Until a constitutional process outlaws ( if at all) the existence of traditional rulers from the African societies, they will continue to be very relevant peace-building mechanisms.
- ✓ **Create environmental awareness.** The currency of global awareness calls on environmental sustainability provides political officers with much obligation to bring their local communities into such knowledge. Government officials have the opportunities of knowing what is happening to the environment in the larger world context. It is the duty of local government officials as mouthpiece of government at the grassroots to bring this awareness to the local people so as to keep them abreast of global developments. Not many local inhabitants would have heard of the Nigerian Meteorological Service’s prediction of flooding or heavy rainfall in 2013. By emphasizing the need to keep all drainage systems free from blockage and ready at all times, local policy makers are promoting environmental awareness and keeping their local populations alert against any flooding hazards.
- ✓ **Enforce Bye laws.** A major challenge to peace-building at the grassroots level is the non enforcement of bye laws made by the government at that tier of government. By enforcing their own laws, local political officers set good examples and keep people away from breaching them. Partial or sentimental enforcement of local government bye laws would breed conflict rather than build peace. For instance, by enforcing sanitation laws without favouring any offender irrespective of status or relationship, equity is promoted and helps to avoid conflict. Enforcing byelaws with equity is a strategy for building peace in the grassroots domains.

## **Challenges to Effective Peace-Building At The Grassroots Level**

Peace building is an expensive task both in terms of physical resources and time. Local government councils face a lot of challenges in meeting these tasks. They include

- **Funding Challenges.** There is the need to raise the funding status of the local government councils. By subjecting them to the dictates of the State government, the local governments are seriously constrained to operate within tight financial jackets. Releasing local government funding allocation direct from federal revenue sources would not only make them become more successful in providing grassroots development but also in promoting the principle of accountability among public officials. If as it is being said, “unto whom much is given, much is expected”, then conversely, “unto whom less is given, less or perhaps nothing should be expected” in return. Building peace at the grassroots for sustainable development is easier said than done. With the resources which councils have in terms of materials and funds, much will definitely be desired of them to meet the broad goals of peace-building at the local levels.
- **Poor societal response.** Often people flout local orders from councils probably due to their non-enforcement by the council officials. It is not easy to enforce sanitation laws for example in some major cities (as earlier listed) in the region. Over the years, people have grown cynical about the activities and sincerity of local government councils whose leadership they often dismiss as “they are there to make their money”. Such poor attitude toward government at the grassroots level makes the enforcement of local laws onerous. They do not see the real intention of government officials at the local level as worthwhile. By the time they realize such intentions, the prevailing local government officers have left office.
- **Growing social pressure on government.** The combination of growing youth unemployment, security challenges, health and other related challenges accompanying urbanization, all put pressure on governance at the local level that they are only able to make minimal (if any) impact on peace-building. How many treated mosquito nets for instance, can a local government acquire if it is to effectively cover its area of jurisdiction

## **Concluding Statements and Recommendation**

The forgoing discourse makes one vital idea very clear: peace-building for sustainable development at the grassroots level is not an easy task. Peace-building activities basically summarize the functions of local government as contained in the various reforms and the state laws relating to these. In fact, every programme or project that a local government embarks upon (from building of infrastructure, empowering local people, funding local institutions to providing social services) is geared towards some form of peace-building or the other. Every local government chairman, vice, secretary or legislator is involved in one form or the other in peace-building in the areas of jurisdiction of the council. The level of success is determined however by the degree of commitment of the respective political officer, the available funding and the amount of social response that these officials get from their peoples.

It is suggested that grassroots governance should be adequately funded directly from the consolidated federal revenues sources so as to make them accountable and responsible. The reliance on state governments to direct and control their funding sources and application would not only make the third-tier government incapable of dispensing good governance but also perpetually keep them subservient to the whims and caprices of the state governors who would continue to use them as “pawns” in a political “chess game”.

In such circumstances, peace-building at the grassroots level of governance would be in perils. On the part of the council officials, it is suggested that political officers should see their roles as peace-builders in their domains as crucial so that they can give more to their people than they take out from the local government system on their own.

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9

**Foreign Direct Investment and Poverty Reduction in Nigeria: Evidence from Cointegration and Error Correction Modeling Methodology**

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**Abstract**

Poverty reduction has gain renewed interest in many developing economies in recent times as a result of the devastating effects of poverty. Many political and socio-economic thinkers argue that reducing poverty will not only bring about social order but also fast-track the process of growth and development. FDI has been identified as an important resource for economic development, and also believed to be instrumental in the reduction of poverty. In this study, we investigate the contribution of foreign direct investment (FDI) to poverty reduction in Nigeria from 1981 to 2010 using an appropriate and robust estimation technique. We used human development index (HDI) and life expectancy at birth (in separate model) as proxies for poverty reduction. The study finds long run and short run relationships in the models. The most important finding of the study is the positive and significant contribution of FDI to poverty reduction in Nigeria in the period covered by the study.

**Key words:** Poverty reduction, FDI, Unit root, Cointegration and ECM

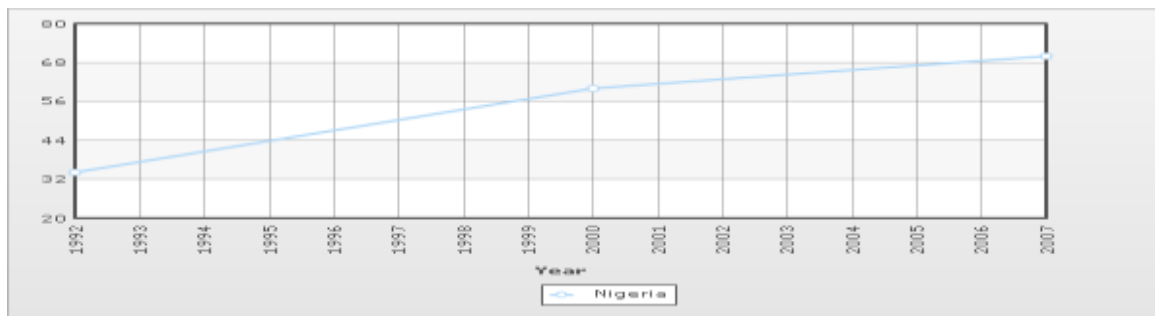
**Introduction**

Poverty seems to be the major macroeconomic evil ravaging most countries in Africa today and the world at large. Other macroeconomic challenges like insecurity, corruption, social vices and social disorder, among others things, are some of the fall-out of poverty. Hitherto, poverty is as old as man's evolution of the state and civilization but what is worrisome at present, is the rising consequences of poverty on the economy. Recently, poverty has become a major socio-political and economic phenomena eliciting serious attention by governments allover; because poverty anywhere is poverty everywhere. According to some estimates, some 30 per cent of the world population continues to live in poverty (ILO, 1995). This figure

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may also increase in the near future especially on the part of developing countries given the high level of income inequality, political instability, corruption and rent seeking activities, marginalization, problem of policy coordination, social deprivation, poor strategy implementation, lack of infrastructure, lack of political will, misguided plans, ethnic conflict etc., except urgent and serious policy steps are taken. A significant number of Nigerian's population is either unemployed or underemployed and this explains the high level of poverty in the country with over 70 million Nigerians reportedly being poor (World Bank, 2013). This affirms the earlier reports of Okonjo – Iweala, Soludo and Muhtar (2003) that about 70 per cent of the Nigerian populations live in absolute poverty. The Figure below shows that 34.1% of the Nigerian population was below poverty line in 1992. In 2000, this figure rose to 60% and finally stood at 70% in 2007.

**Figure 1: Population below poverty line (%)**



Country	1992	2000	2007
Nigeria	34.1	60	70

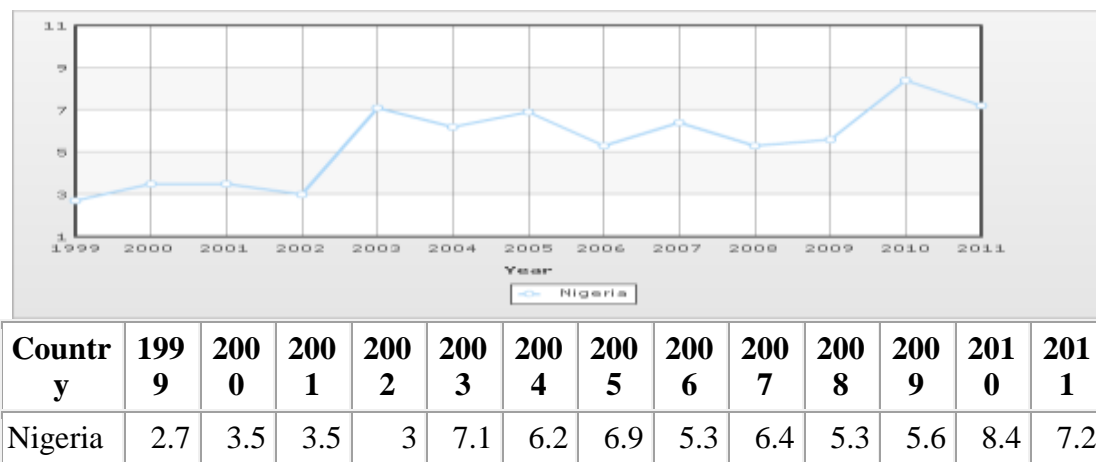
**Source:** CIA World Factbook

Poverty has been the major obstacle confronting sustained development in most emerging economies over the past two decades, hence the need to reduce poverty has become the central focus of most governments because progress in this direction (poverty reduction) would translate to growth and development. Prior to this time, socio-economic efforts in terms of valuable developmental programmes have been put in place by various organs of government to combat the effect of poverty.<sup>2</sup> But such programmes only resulted marginally in the rise in real GDP without substantial improvement in the standard of living, life expectancy at birth and welfare of the majority of the populace (see Figure 2 and 3 below). These programme could not yield the desired result due to lack of commitment and political will on the part of government. They also failed, perhaps, because the right population was not targeted. For example, the rural areas which contribute the largest percentage to the country gross domestic product (GDP) before the advent of oil in the fifties suffered severe neglect and grossly underdeveloped. This explains perhaps why about 80% of the rural areas in Nigeria are poor.

The advent of oil in the mid fifties and the slump in the international economy due to crash in world oil price in the early 1980s further deepened the

poverty situation in the rural areas. The area had suffered serious neglect and deprivation cum socio-economic and environmental degradation because attention was shifted from agriculture which was predominately the occupation of the rural area communities to oil exploration as the major source of income. According to CBN (1998), the effect of the crash in world oil market price and the severe economic hardship which was the aftermath of the international slump made Nigeria to move from a middle income to become one of the poorest nations in the world. Despite the gradual improvement and relative stability in the international oil price in recent time, Nigeria has manage to maintained her position, perhaps, a little movement upward in the ladder of the poorest nations in the world. Hence, Nwaobi (2003) and Otu, Eja, Eko and Emeka (2011) described Nigeria’s socio-economic conditions as “presenting in general a perplexing paradox. In spite of a robust endowment in natural and human resources, the level of poverty of her people stands in contrast to the country’s enormous wealth”.

**Figure 2: GDP- real growth rate (%)**



**Source:** CIA World Factbook.

Against this milieu, the governments in the third world countries including Nigeria believe that FDI can assist to provide the panacea in ameliorating the effect of poverty on their economies by making up for domestic capital shortfalls, provide domestic finance, technology and managerial skills, facilitate access to foreign market and generate both technological and efficient spill overs to local firms. To facilitate this believe, governments in the developing countries has engaged in capacity building and divers institutional reforms that would create the needed platforms for the attraction of FDI in the past decades. Then, the question that easy call to mind is that “has FDI contributed significantly to poverty reduction in these countries especially in Nigeria?” This is the fundamental question that provoked this study and we intend to use empirical analysis to attempt an answer.

The main aim of this study is to investigate the contributions of FDI in the reduction of poverty in Nigeria straddling 1981 to 2010. The rest of the paper is organized thus: section two gives literature review, the model and methodology are discussed in section three, section four discusses empirical results while section five shows conclusions and recommendations.

**Literature Review**

The term poverty has been described in different ways and forms by various scholars and researchers with emphasis pointing towards the same end. Poverty is multi-dimensional, it affects the physical, psychological, moral and socio-economic conditions of human lives (see Sen, 1983; Olayemi 1995; World Bank, 1995; Obadan, 1997, Kankwenda et al, 2000; Muller, 2002; Ogwumike, 2002; Na'Allah, 2004; Olaniyan and Bankole, 2005 and Kwaghe, 2006). No matter how poverty is described, Broad based economic growth and development have been argued to be the key ingredient of reducing poverty. In recent times, (FDI) has proven to be one of the most critical drivers and determinants of economic growth in developing countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America (see Klein, Aaron and Hadjimichael, 2001). Efforts are being made by these countries to attract FDI by building strong institutional base, engaging in various policy reforms and stable macroeconomic environment among others. It has been observed that FDI contributions to poverty reduction trickle-down through income and employment creation. It is not all dimensions of poverty that is affected by FDI.<sup>3</sup> Other community based developmental programme and social safety net that affects the grass-root populace are needed to complement the effect of FDI, if FDI may have meaningful contribution to poverty reduction.

### **FDI and Poverty**

Few literatures in recent times have arguably show evidence of the contributions of FDI in the reduction of poverty in Nigeria. This study attempts to close this gap by contributing to existing body of literature. Most recent studies view the impact of FDI on poverty reduction through economic growth, and that growth is the sole- most crucial factor affecting poverty. This is often referred to as the indirect impact of FDI on poverty reduction (see World Bank 2000/2001; IFC 2000; Dollar and Kraay 2001, and Klein et al, 2002). Dollar and Kraay (2000) opine that growth tends to lift the incomes of the poor proportionately with overall growth. A most significant ingredient for poverty reduction is FDI-as a key instrument to generate growth. Jenknis (1987) and Chitrakar (1994) views FDI as a catalyst to industrial transformation and economic development; and that foreign investors tend to add new resources such as capital, technology, management and marketing to host employment activities. More so, they argue that FDI also promote income distributions through hiding up for wages and driving down the return to capital. Given competitive market conditions, national and foreign private sector enterprises, can offer developing countries the best prospects for rapid national economic growth and thus reduce poverty.

Klein et al (2002) argued that FDI can actually do more than just generate growth, and that FDI has the potential to improve the quality of growth by reducing the volatility of capital flows and incomes; improving asset and income distribution at the time of privatization; helping improve social and environmental standards; helping improve social safety nets and basic services for the poor. They added that FDI belongs to the toolkit for poverty reduction in countries where simple reliance on “trickle down” does not work. In a similar study, World Bank (1999) shows that FDI flows into countries are more stable compared to other international investment and debt flows. Thus, FDI may help protect the poor from the impact of volatility in

international financial markets during currency and financial crisis. FDI is more available to poor countries and less likely to saddle taxpayers in poor countries with unbearable debt service obligations. Among private financial flows FDI is thus most conducive to promote sensible development for the poor (Klein et al, 2001).

Okpe and Abu (2009) examined the impact of foreign private investment on poverty reduction in Nigeria using appropriate estimation technique for the period 1995 to 2003. The findings revealed that the inflow of foreign private investment has a positive and significant relationship to poverty reduction in the country. On a positive light, Gohou and Soumare (2009) confirm a positive significant relationship between FDI net inflows and poverty reduction in Africa using FDI and welfare variables. In a similar study, Jalilian and Weiss (2002) found that FDI inflows, particularly in the case of ASEAN, are associated with higher economic growth, and there is a close relation between average income growth and growth of the income of the poor. Apart from income, the local poor can also benefit from FDI through infrastructure and government led programmes especially if they are designed to facilitate FDI (Klein et al, 2001).

Jenkins and Thomas (2002) argue that if FDI serves to multiply job opportunities in host countries, this will not only help to address unemployment and raise wages, but also encourage investment in human capital through the transfer of skills and knowledge to the local workforce via both on the job and specialized training.

**Figure 3: Life expectancy at birth (years)**



Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Nigeria	51.56	51.07	50.59	51.01	50.49	46.74	47.08	47.44	46.53	46.94	47.24	47.56	52.05

Source: CIA World Factbook

### The Model and Methodology

This section presents the statistical and econometric analysis of the contribution of FDI to poverty reduction in Nigeria from 1981 – 2010. Studies suggest two basic indicators of poverty: monetary and nonmonetary indicator (see for instance, Coudouzel, Hentschel and Wodon; Lipton 1996; Nye 2002; Reddy 2002; Ravallion 2002). The monetary indicator of poverty uses income or consumption as a measure of well-being while nonmonetary indicator employs social toolkits with respect to health, education, literacy, nutrition, etc. The use of nonmonetary indicators particularly the human poverty index (HPI) designed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 1997 to incorporate into Human Development Reports (HDRs) of countries as a measure of well-being has gained renewed interest in recent time. This is perhaps because HDI is adequate in the

measurement of poverty by incorporating, among other things, education, standard of living and life expectancy.

Main while, from conventional wisdom, countries with higher incomes tends to have higher nutritional value, higher life expectancy, higher literacy rates and higher standard of living. This has not been the case for developing countries. Economic realities have not truly reflected the real growth in income in these countries. For instance, Figure 2 shows relative rise in the growth rate of GDP in Nigeria between 1999 and 2011 while life expectancy at birth (Figure 3) on the other hand shows a gradual decline until 2010. Hence Moez (1997) opines that inter-country comparisons have revealed that less than half of variations in life expectancy or child mortality may be explained by income, and variations in adult literacy may be explained by an even smaller Percentage. Hence, in this study, we adopt the nonmonetary indicator.

**The Model:** In order to investigate the contribution of FDI to poverty reduction in Nigeria, the study adopts two models. Model one uses human development index (HDI) and model two uses life expectancy (both as proxy for poverty) as dependent variable. The aim is to enable us know if the same findings can be realized by using different parameters. FDI, government expenditure on health, government expenditure on education, unemployment rate and GDP growth rate were the explanatory variables. The implicit form of the models is as follows:

- (1)  $HDI_t = f(FDI_t, GEXH_t, GEDU_t, UEMPR_t, GDPGR_t)$
- (2)  $LEXP_t = f(FDI_t, GEXH_t, GEDU_t, UEMPR_t, GDPGR_t)$

Adding stochastic error terms at time  $t$  ( $U_t$ ) to the implicit form of the models (i.e. model 1 and 2) yields the final form of the econometric models to be estimated as:

$$HDI_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 FDI_t + \alpha_2 GEXH_t + \alpha_3 GEDU_t + \alpha_4 UEMPR_t + \alpha_5 GDPGR_t + U_{1t} \quad (3)$$

$$HDI_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 FDI_t + \beta_2 GEXH_t + \beta_3 GEDU_t + \beta_4 UEMPR_t + \beta_5 GDPGR_t + U_{1t} \quad (4)$$

Where:  $HDI_t$  is Human Development Index at time  $t$ ,  $FDI_t$  is Foreign Direct Investment at time  $t$ ,  $GEXH_t$  is Government Expenditure on Health at time  $t$ ,  $GEDU_t$  is Government Expenditure on Education at time  $t$ ,  $UEMPR_t$  is Unemployment Rate at time  $t$  and  $GDPGR_t$  is GDP Growth Rate at time  $t$ .

**Methodology:** The study employs Engle-Granger (1987) cointegration (appropriate for single cointegration test) and the error correction modeling methodology. Before proceeding, we carried out some preliminary investigation of the data in terms of stationarity. In this regard, Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test was adopted. The ADF unit root test is widely considered as the most reliable test of stationarity for economic time series variables. Further, a structural stability test on the models using CUSUM (cumulative sum) and CUSUM-sq (CUSUM squared) test introduced by Brown et al, (1975) was added. Finally, this section uses annual time-series data from 1981 to 2010. The data set was sourced from the Central Bank of Nigeria and complemented by the United Nations Human Development Reports (various issues).

## Presentation of Regression Results and Discussions

**Unit root tests results**

In order to test for the stationarity of variables used in this study, unit root testing of all the variables in the models was carried out using the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) methodology. The unit root tests were carried out using the Eviews 7 by David, et al, (2009) and the following results were obtained.

**Table 1: Summary of Unit root tests using the ADF Criterion**

Variable Decision	Level	Order of Integration	First Difference	Order of Integration	Second Difference	Order of Integration	Decision
HDI	-1.719846	I(0)	-3.681761**	I(1)	-8.377780*	I(2)	Stationary
LEXP	-7.866563	I(0)	-5.711149*	I(1)	-3.768151*	I(2)	Stationary
FDI	-1.672602	I(0)	-3.476703	I(1)	-4.104387*	I(2)	Stationary
GEXH	-1.695134	I(0)	-5.943941*	I(1)	-7.795623*	I(2)	Stationary
GEDU	-1.170196	I(0)	-4.516094*	I(1)	-5.380279*	I(2)	Stationary
UEMPR	-1.775958	I(0)	-4.000515**	I(1)	-6.045288*	I(2)	Stationary
GRGDP	-3.222833	I(0)	-7.831499*	I(1)	-12.97360*	I(2)	Stationary

*Critical values at 1% and 5% respectively are -4.356068 and -3.595026.*

*\*Significance at 1% and \*\*Significance at 5%.*

Note that the ADF criterion in Table 1 shows that all variables, viz., human development index (HDI), life expectancy (LEXP), government expenditure on health (GEXH), government expenditure on education (GEDU) and unemployment rate (UEMPR) are difference stationary, that is, they are I(1) variables except foreign direct investment (FDI) which was found to be stationary at the second difference. Based on this, we therefore conclude that the variables used in this study are unit roots free. Therefore, we proceed to test the existence of co-integration among the variables in each model.

**Cointegration and Error-Correction Modeling Results**

The standard procedure of obtaining short-run dynamics suitably described by an error-correction model can be obtained by the use of autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) model provided meaningful long-run relationship (cointegration) exist among a given set of variables. Using the maximum R-bar squared criterion, we obtain the parsimonious error-correction representation of each model. The cointegration and error correction model are reported hereunder:

**Table 2: Cointegration Test result of HDI on FDI, GEXH, GEDU, UEMPR and GRGDP**

Included observations: 30

Cointegrating equation deterministics: C @TREND

Automatic lags specification based on Schwarz criterion (maxlag=6)

Dependent	tau-statistic	Prob.*	z-statistic	Prob.*
HDI	-3.890584	0.5202	-20.32573	0.5148
FDI	-4.963869	0.1622	312.6338	1.0000
GEXH	-5.457355	0.0869	16.54195	1.0000
GEDU	-6.153480	0.0235	-33.61718	0.0184
UEMPR	-3.812811	0.5542	-20.15183	0.5263
GRGDP	-5.309745	0.0938	-25.63894	0.2069

\*MacKinnon (1996) p-values.

It can be verified from Table 2 that HDI is co-integrated with FDI, GEXH, GEDU, UEMPR and GRGDP using the Engle-Granger cointegration test. Note that the absolute value of the tau-statistic of all the variables is larger than the absolute value of the 99 % tau-statistic critical value of 2.47. The same result is true for the z-statistic. Thus, there exists a long-run equilibrium relationship among the six variables and they cannot wander apart arbitrary.

Having established the existence of cointegration, we can therefore estimate an error-correction model using the autoregressive distributed lag technique. The parsimonious representation of the error-correction model is reported in Table 3.

**Table 3: Parsimonious Error Correction model for HDI**

Dependent variable is dDHD1

27 observations used for estimation from 1984 to 2010

Explanatory variable	Coefficient	Standard error	T-ratios [prob.]
dDHD1	-.33205	.22246	-1.4926[.155]
dDFDI	.4187E-7	.2013E-7	2.0798[.054]
dDGRGDP	.7175E-3	.4433E-3	1.6186[.125]
dDGRGDP1	.8258E-3	.3358E-3	2.4595[.026]
dDGEXH	.1193E-6	.1570E-6	.76007[.458]
dDGEXH1	-.1459E-6	.9912E-7	-1.4715[.161]
dDGEDU	-.1772E-6	.2220E-6	-.79813[.436]
dDUEMPR	-.3426E-3	.4094E-3	-.83681[.415]

dDUEMPR1	.7162E-3	.4730E-3	1.5141[.149]
dC	.0043750	.0022002	1.9885[.064]
ecm(-1)	-.82602	.34454	-2.3975[.029]
R-Squared = .92405, R-Bar-Squared = .82048, S.E. of Regression = .0058777, F-stat. F(10, 16) = 13.3828[.000], Mean of Dependent Variable = .4000E-3, S.D. of Dependent Variable = .013872 Residual Sum of Squares = .3800E-3, Equation Log-likelihood = 112.4990, Akaike Info. Criterion = 96.4990, Schwarz Bayesian Criterion = 86.1323, DW-statistic = 1.8882			

**Table 4: Estimated Long Run Coefficients using the ARDL Approach ARDL(2) selected**

**based on R-BAR Squared Criterion**

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Ratio[Prob]
DFDI	.1146E-6	.4728E-7	2.4241[.034]
DGEXH	.7245E-6	.3489E-6	2.0763[.062]
DGEDU	-.7868E-6	.4292E-6	-1.8331[.094]
DUEMPR	-.8603E-3	.0012373	-.69531[.501]
DGRGDP	.9078E-4	.0011140	.081489[.937]
C	.0052965	.0020523	2.5807[.026]

Dependent variable is dDHDI

27 observations used for estimation from 1984 to 2010

The human development index (HDI) model is very robust as it has an R-Bar squared of 0.82. Thus, the regressors in this model explain over 82 percent of the systematic variations in the HDI model in the period under review, 1981 through 2010. The model has an F statistic of 13.38 (with a p-value of 0.000). Thus, the hypothesis of a linear relationship between HDI and the explanatory variables in the model cannot be rejected at the 1 percent confidence level. The adequacy of the model was further buttressed by the low standard error of the regression which stood at .0057. The residual sum of squares also reveals the absence of misspecification error. The Durbin-Watson statistic value of 1.88 is sufficiently close to 2 to suggest any autocorrelation or specification error. The ECM (error correction mechanism) had a negative sign as expected and with a t-statistic of -2.39 passed the significance test at the 1 percent confidence level. Thus, the ECM will rightly act to correct any deviation of the dependent variable from its long run equilibrium. This shows a dynamic adjustment from the short run to the long run equilibrium. The speed of adjustment is reasonably high, this is shown by the coefficient of the ECM (-0.82) which means that a very significant adjustment to long-run equilibrium is completed during the current year. In other words, the disequilibrium in the previous year's shock adjusts back to the long run equilibrium in the current year. The most important variables impacting on HDI (proxy for poverty reduction) during the period under study were foreign direct investment and growth rate of GDP. These

two variables had positive signs and were significantly different from zero at the 5 percent confidence level using their t-ratios (prob.) which is less than 5 percent. This implies that FDI contribute significantly to poverty reduction in Nigeria in the short-run. Based on the result, a unit increase in FDI in the short-run will reduce poverty (proxy by HDI) by  $.4187E-7$  units. If this increase in FDI inflow is sustained, poverty will further reduce by  $.1146E-6$  units in the long-run as reported in Table 4. Government expenditure on health proved to contribute significantly to poverty reduction in the long-run (see Table 4). Expenditure on education on the other hand did not contribute to poverty reduction in either period (short or long-run) as indicated in the results in the period covered by the study.

**Figure 4: CUSUM and CUSUM-sq Tests for HDI Model**

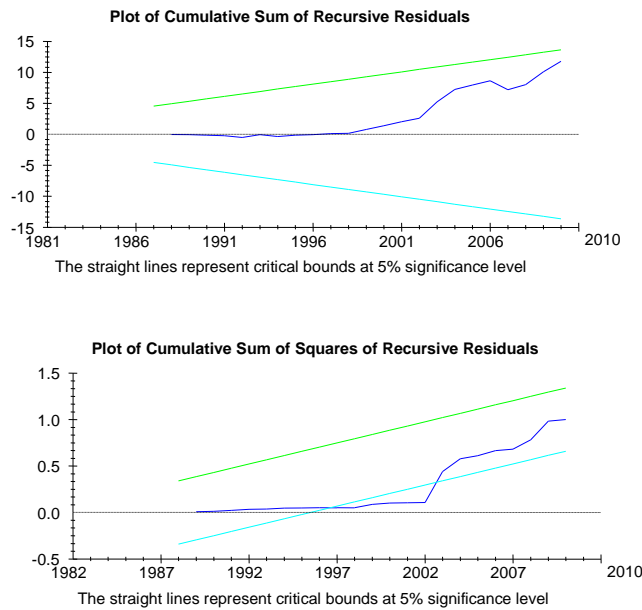


Figure 4 above shows CUSUM (cumulative sum) and CUSUM-sq (CUSUM squared) test for HDI model. CUSUM and CUSUM-sq test do not exceed the critical boundaries at 5% level of confidence as displaced in the figures. This implies that the model of poverty (proxy by HDI) is accurately specified and long run coefficients are meaningful and reliable.

**Table 5: Cointegration Test result of LEXP on FDI, GEXH, GEDU, UEMPR and GRGDP**

Included observations: 30

Cointegrating equation deterministics: C @TREND Automatic lags specification

Schwarz criterion (maxlag=6)

Dependent	tau-statistic	Prob.*	z-statistic	Prob.*
LEXP	-4.132575	0.4176	-23.01891	0.3443
FDI	-4.916828	0.1727	373.3294	1.0000
GEXH	-3.831856	0.5565	20.54871	1.0000
GEDU	-5.834855	0.0405	-31.76818	0.0371
UEMPR	-3.866609	0.5307	-20.29457	0.5169
GRGDP	-6.479317	0.0132	-32.08509	0.0331

\*MacKinnon (1996) p-values.

The results of cointegration test (using life expectancy (LEXP) as a proxy for poverty) reveal that all the variables employed have meaningful long run equilibrium relationship when their tau-statistics are compared with the critical tau-statistic value of 2.47 at 1 percent level of confidence. This means that LEXP is cointegrated with FDI, GEXH, GEDU, UEMPR and GRGDP using the Engle-Granger cointegration test. Therefore, we can estimate an error-correction model using error correction model. The parsimonious representation of the error-correction model is reported in Table 6.

**Table 6: Parsimonious Error Correction model for LEXP**

Dependent variable is dDLEXP

26 observations used for estimation from 1985 to 2010

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Ratio[Prob]
dDLEXP1	1.1261	.071990	15.6430[.000]
dDFDI	.6147E-6	.1209E-6	5.0841[.001]
dDFDI1	.7025E-6	.2181E-6	3.2206[.010]
dDFDI2	.8928E-6	.2056E-6	4.3412[.002]
dDGRGDP	.0028031	.3182E-3	8.8090[.000]
dDGRGDP1	-.0020846	.2625E-3	-7.9417[.000]
dDGEXH	.2100E-6	.4061E-6	.51726[.617]
dDGEXH1	-.1020E-4	.1810E-5	-5.6322[.000]
dDGEXH2	-.1034E-4	.1989E-5	-5.2011[.001]
dDGEDU	-.3349E-5	.8828E-6	-3.7936[.004]

dDGEDU1	.8448E-5	.1786E-5	4.7293[.001]
dDGEDU2	.7109E-5	.1536E-5	4.6270[.001]
dDUEMPR	.0049528	.0010436	4.7458[.001]
dDUEMPR1	-.0089697	.0015232	-5.8888[.000]
dDUEMPR2	-.0038106	.6735E-3	-5.6582[.000]
dC	.010034	.0026150	3.8369[.004]
ecm(-1)	-.13144	.0089479	-14.6899[.000]
<p>R-Squared = .99927, R-Bar-Squared = .99544, S.E. of Regression = .0033906, F-stat. F(16, 9) = 342.2401[.000], Mean of Dependent Variable = .014927, S.D. of Dependent Variable = .050198, Residual Sum of Squares = .4598E-4, Equation Log-likelihood = 135.2965,</p> <p>Akaike Info. Criterion = 113.2965, Schwarz Bayesian Criterion = 99.4574, DW-statistic = 2.6644</p>			

**Table 7: Estimated Long Run Coefficients using the ARDL Approach ARDL(2) selected.**

**based on R-BAR Squared Criterion**

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Ratio[Prob]
DFDI	.1149E-5	.5734E-6	2.0040[.076]
DGEXH	.4273E-4	.1064E-4	4.0160[.003]
DGEDU	-.2593E-4	.1130E-4	-2.2954[.047]
DUEMPR	.028236	.016026	1.7619[.112]
DGRGDP	.041114	.012605	3.2618[.010]
C	.033539	.029350	1.1427[.283]

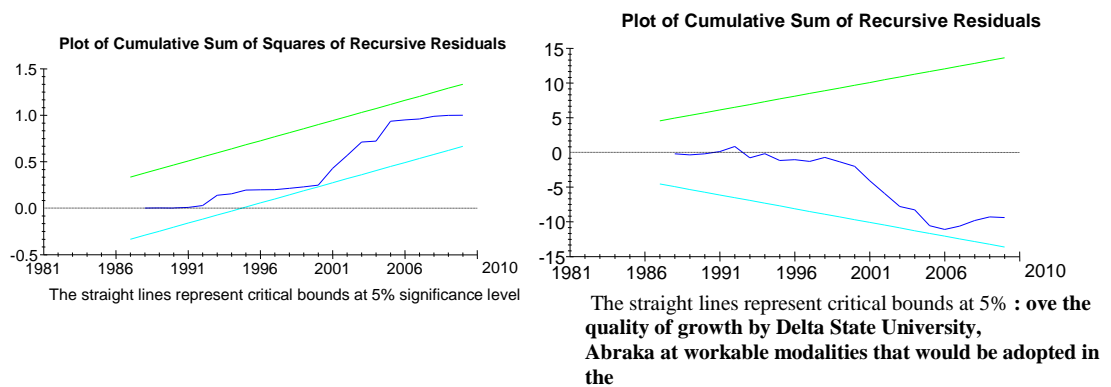
Dependent variable is DLEXP  
27 observations used for estimation from 1984 to 2010

The life expectancy model was very good, with an R-Bar squared of 0.99 percent. Thus, the explanatory variables used in the model sufficiently explain over 99 percent of the systematic variations in the LEXP model between 1981 and 2010, and leaving less than 1 percent to the error term. The F-statistic of 342.24 (with a p-value of 0.000) easily passes the significance test at the 1 percent level. Hence, the hypothesis of a significant linear relationship between LEXP and the regressors in this model is validated. The standard error of reression and the residyual sum of squares are very small. This means that we can rely on the predictive power of the model. The ECM (error correction mechanism) had a negative sign as expected and with a t-statistic of -14.68 passed the significance test at the 1 percent confidence

level. Thus, the ECM will rightly act to correct any deviation of the LEXP from its long run equilibrium. This shows a dynamic adjustment from the short run to the long run equilibrium. The speed of adjustment is very high, this is shown by the coefficient of the ECM (-0.13) which means that a very significant adjustment to long-run equilibrium is completed during the current year. All the regressors contributed significantly to poverty reduction (proxy by LEXP) including its own lagged value. Foreign direct investment, growth rate of GDP and lagged government expenditure on education contributed positively while lagged value of unemployment rate contributed negatively, all in line with theoretical expectations. With a t-value of 2.76, foreign direct investment and growth rate of GDP were significantly different from zero at 1 percent confidence level. Thus, a unit increase in FDI and growth rate of GDP will cause life expectancy to rise by .6147E-7 and .002 units respectively. Nevertheless, if the increase in FDI and growth of GDP is sustained in the short-run, life expectancy will further improve by .1149E-5 and .041 units respectively in the long-run (see table 7). This translates to poverty reduction in the short and long-run periods. Also, with a t-value of 2.76, lagged of government expenditure on education; and unemployment rate and its lagged value were significantly different from zero at 1 percent level of confidence. Government expenditure on health (though positive) did not pass the significant test at 5 percent. But, its lagged value has a negative sign but passed the significance test at the 1 percent confidence level.

Complementing the significant of the explanatory variables in the short-run, the long-run results reported in table 7 shows that all the regressors also proved to contribute significantly at 5 percent level of confidence to poverty reduction in Nigeria in the period under review. Thus, to state that FDI contributes significantly to poverty reduction in Nigeria in the period covered by the study is stating the obvious. Also, the model of poverty reduction proxy by life expectancy (LEXP) is sufficiently reliable as indicated in figure 2 by the CUSUM and CUSUM-sq tests.

**Figure 5: CUSUM and CUSUM-sq test for LEXP Model**



Like figure 4 above, figure 5 also shows CUSUM and CUSUM-sq test for LEXP model and the test results have similar conclusion. CUSUM and CUSUM-sq test do not exceed the critical boundaries at 5% level of confidence in the figures. This means that the model of poverty (proxy by LEXP) is accurately specified and long run coefficients are meaningful and reliable.

## **Conclusions and Recommendations**

So far, the study undertakes a sound analysis of the contributions of FDI to poverty reduction in Nigeria using human development index (HDI) and life expectancy (LEXP) as proxies for poverty reduction from 1981 to 2010 respectively. The study uses Engle-Granger cointegration test and the ARDL error correction modeling to investigate the long-run and short-run relationships respectively. Results of the poverty models were very profound and revealing. The study shows the existence of long run and short run relationships in both models. The most important and consistent variables contributing to poverty reduction are foreign direct investment (FDI) and growth rate of GDP when HDI and LEXP were applied separately. Indeed, the significant contribution of FDI to poverty reduction validates the objective of the study. Government expenditure on health and education coupled with unemployment rate prove quite promising in contributing to poverty reduction. It is imperative however to introduce policies to improve drastically government expenditure on health, education and also ameliorate unemployment rate in order to further increase the growth rate of GDP and more importantly to reduce poverty. Accelerating the attraction of foreign direct investment is a well-known strategy for creating employment and reducing poverty. Finally, by way of recommendation, it is therefore imperative for government to improve infrastructure by building and developing transportation system, boosting the availability of electricity and institutional reforms complemented by favourable and sustainable macroeconomic environment. Attraction of FDI will not only contribute to a more sustainable growth of real GDP but also enhance employment creation and promote poverty reduction. The most important finding of the study is the positive and significant contribution of FDI to poverty reduction in Nigeria in the period covered by the study.

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## **Community Mobilization in Conflict Resolution: The Role of the Public Health Nurse**

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### **Abstract**

The paper sets out to educate the public and policy maker and the roles of the Public Health Nurse (PHN) as an advocate, clinician, educator etc, especially on issues concerning conflict resolution on health matters at the community level. Operationally, the duties of the PHN has no boundary as they collaborate with international health bodies and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). The modalities for this process are tackled with a view to arriving at workable modalities that would be adopted in the goal of crisis management in the health sector.

**KEY WORDS:** Community Mobilization, Policy, Public Health Nurse, Conflict Resolution

### **INTRODUCTION**

Historically, public health nurses (also known in some countries as community health nurses) engaged in many roles. They provided care to the sick, taught positive health habits and self-care, advocated on behalf of needy populations, developed and managed health programs, provided leadership, and collaborated with other professionals to implement changes in health services and life style of whole populations (Spralley & Allender,1996). The settings, too in which these nurses practice varied, from the home, to clinics, schools, factories, and other community-based locations. Today, however, the public Health Nurse practices in wider variety of settings, with even more expanded roles (Spralley & Allender, 1996). For many decades public Health Nurses have practiced in foreign countries as well as their own; organizations such as the World Health Organization, Pan American Health Organization, Project Hope, American Refugee Committee, the Peace Corps, hunger relief groups, missionary organization, and many others have engaged public Health Nurses in their work in foreign countries, as well as at home.

Most of whom combine the clinician role with that of manager, educator, advocate, collaborator and researcher. The variety and complexity of health related needs in countries/communities experiencing famine, floods, epidemics, poverty and war or internal conflicts challenge nurses to practice multiple roles simultaneously.

The privy of the public Health Nurse (PHN) empowers her to function in almost any setting as an Advocate, Clinician, Collaborator, Controller, Educator, Evaluator, Leader, Manager, Planner and Researcher.

Skills in observation, listening, communication and counseling had always been integral to the all roles of the PHN, however it has grown to encompass an increased emphasis on not only physical care skills, but also psychological and socio-cultural factors. Environmental and community wide considerations, such as problems caused by pollution, crime and violence against humanity, drug abuse, unemployment and limited funding for health programs, have created a need for stronger skills in assessing the needs of groups and populations, and intervening at the community level (Rivera and Palmer-Willis, 1991).

The clinician role of a PHN equips her with skills of collaboration with consumers, other professionals and NGOs, the use of epidemiology and biostatistics, knowledge of research, administration, leadership, program evaluation, community organization and development to effect a change in any community she finds herself, with regards to the needs of that community.

A community according to Sutherland (2001) is a geographical area over which people are using the same language, conforming to the same feelings, more or less the same sentiments and acting upon the same tenets. This implies that a community is a social group of any size whose members resides in a specific locality, share a government and have a common cultural and/or historical heritage.

However, in the changing context of migration, urbanization and globalization, the concept of “community” has evolved significantly beyond just a group of people who live in a defined territory. Today, community also refers to groups of people who may be physically separated but who are connected by other common characteristics, such as profession, interests, age, ethnic origin, a shared health concern, crisis, or language. Thus, we may have teachers’ community, women’s community or artisans’ community; and even, community of people living with HIV/AIDs (PLWHA), displaced refugees, teenage boys, or men with STIs (Howard Grabman and Snetro 2008).

Community mobilization is a form of community work which seeks to engage people with shared interests to come together, identify shared concerns and work jointly to overcome them (Payne 2005).

A strong focus on the role of the PHN, through voluntary or non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as leaders or initiators in community mobilization (Thomas, 1992) would lead to an independence of external development efforts from centralized government control, overt political action in problem resolutions (Booth 1994, Chambers 1993). However, the Public/community Health Nurse has the great task to ensure that effective management of this participation is put in place, with a focus on ensuring consistency among cooperating organizations of values, ideology, practice approach and official or democratic mandates (Nwansa, 1995). PHNs through NGOs create a diversity of activity and theoretical approaches, an example is indigenous community cultural theories in Thailand which focus on the idea of community development and involvement in crisis resolution as oppose to the state (Natsupha, 1991). Most PHNs’ involvement in crisis communities, have focused on women, partly because

of their role and importance in local and family economies in many developing countries, and also in response to worldwide feminist social movements aiming to achieve greater justice, independence and self-control for women and publicize issues of concern to them, especially child care (Harcourt, 1994; Wilson and Whitemore, 1994). Health and disability have also been important issues of focus in resolving conflicts in crisis communities.

### **Concept of Community Mobilization**

The PHN role as a collaborator in mobilizing the community can also be seen as a capacity-building process through which communities, individuals, groups or organizations plan, carry out and evaluate activities on a participatory and sustained basis to improve on the needs of the community and initiate a peace process either on their own initiative or stimulated by others (Howard-Grabman and Snetro 2008).

Expanding on the above, the key task involved in effectively sustaining a peace process in crisis torn communities, include:

1. Developing an ongoing dialogue between community(ies) members regarding problem/challenging issues in the community(ies)
2. Creating or strengthening community organizations aimed at improving on the needs of the community
3. Assisting in creating an environment in which individuals can empower themselves to address their own and their community's needs (e.g health needs, need for portable water, plyable road, etc).
4. Promoting community members' participation in ways that recognize diversity and equity, particularly of those who are most affected by the challenges.
5. Working in partnership with community members, government and/or NGOs in all phases of the crisis resolution project, to create locally appropriated responses to community needs.
6. As a researcher the PHN helps to identify and support the creative potentials of communities to develop a variety of strategies and interventions that may not have been recommended by founders and other external factors and
7. Assisting in linking communities with external resources (e.g organizations, funding, technical assistance etc) to aid them in their efforts to improve their status.

The role of the PHN in crisis resolution also involves the facilitation, direction and fostering of processes of social change in the direction of greater well being for the individuals of the community or communities.

The concept of community mobilization is better appreciated when viewed as a mechanism to define and put into action the collective will of the community to bring about a social change in respect to a challenge or challenges faced by the community. The community mobilization process should unfold according to an internally defined rhythm where the community is left to progress, at its own pace and in its own time. The PHN emphasizes on a process that is interactive and incremental (Howard-Grabman, et al) and as earlier mentioned community mobilization could be self initiated or stimulated from the outside.

The PHN work is practiced at helping people come together to identify issues of concern and take action to resolve them. Such projects of community peace process require local participation strategies and focus on neighbourhood renewal and capacity-building among people without expertise to manage organizations and

social developments in their locality. Some of which are focused on health initiatives (Henderson et al, 2004) and provision of portable water. Increasingly, there has been government interest in invoking participation from formal voluntary sectors, organizations and faith groups in most community peace process (Gilchrist, 2004).

Current approaches of PHN in community involvement increasingly focus on issues of health and accessible health care services, poverty, employment opportunities and enterprise, particularly social enterprise, issues of diversity, sustainability, gender and urbanization (Allen and Thomas, 2000). Many of these issues indirectly or indirectly concerns poverty, gender and ethnicity and its consequences for identity, either gender or ethnic or national identity. Thus, the public health nurse in her expanded role increasingly connects to ideas from social constructs, ethnic and cultural sensitivity and feminism to effect change.

### **Phases of Community Crisis Resolution**

The process of community crisis resolution as in community development could take a long period, requiring commitment, perseverance and systematic approach; to achieve this effectively, it has been divided into phases; discussed below:

#### **Phase I**

The first phase is to prepare to mobilize the community. In this phase the PHN selects the issues to be addressed and defines the community; then put a community mobilization team together. The next step is to gather information about the issue/challenge to be addressed, and the community, while doing so she also identifies resources and constraints that will have effect/impact on the peace process. Then develop a community mobilization plan and a community mobilization team.

#### **Phase II**

Organize the community for action. This involves orienting the community, building relationships, trust, credibility and a sense of ownership with the community. It is also important at this phase to invite community participation, and develop a 'core group' from the community.

#### **Phase III**

Involves exploring the challenging issue and setting priorities. In this phase objectives are decided, the challenging issues are explored with the core group and in the broader community. Information is analyzed and priorities set for action.

#### **Phase IV**

Here members of the community and outsiders plan together, and it involves deciding on the objectives of the planning process, determining who will be involved in the planning and their roles and responsibilities, the designing of the planning sessions, and constructing/facilitating the planning session to create a community action plan.

#### **Phase V**

In this phase all parties involve in the community intervention process act together. It involves the stimulating agent defining its term's role in accompanying community action, strengthening the community's capacity to carry out its action plan and monitoring community progress. It also gives the NGOs involved by the

PHN opportunity/avenue to problem-solve, troubleshoot, advise and mediate conflicts.

### **Phase VI**

Has to do with evaluating the whole process of community intervention, and some important key points to note during evaluation include:

- a. Determine who wants to learn from the evaluation
- b. Form a representative evaluation team with community members and other interested parties
- c. Determine what participants want to learn from the evaluation
- d. Develop an evaluation plan and evaluation instruments
- e. Conduct the participatory evaluation
- f. Analyze the results with the evaluation team members
- g. Provide feedback to the community
- h. Document and share lessons learned and recommendations for the future
- i. Prepare to reorganize

The last phase which is VII is the scaling-up of the community peace process project. This means expanding the impact of a successful community-based project beyond a single or limited number of communities.

Through the initiative and collaborative effort of the PHN, community members enter into dialogue within their community and with external actors to explore ways to improve on challenging issues in the community; such challenges could range from deviant behaviour amongst the youth, education, nutrition, health issues to communal clashes etc.

Initiated by the PHN, the community and external actors can effectively collaborate to tackle the challenge to get a resulting sense of ownership and prospects for sustainability. Through the dialogue initiated by community members and effective community mobilization strategies (by the PHN) acknowledgement and respect for indigenous paradigms, while at the same time introducing other paradigms, can lead to improved community status. The Public Health Nurse is well aware that simply prescribing methods is not likely to lead to adoption or sustained practice if they conflict with existing indigenous practices and values (Howad-Grabman and Snetro, 2008) and so in some cases, prescribed methods of peace process may not be possible or practicable in a given physical, social, cultural, psychological or economic context. In other words, traditional practices may be as or more effective in crisis resolution. Through respectful dialogue between all parties, both existing and new paradigms can contribute to new improved practices and initiate a peace process at the individual level and supportive policies at the institutional, community, regional and national levels.

In order to achieve a sustainable resolution/peace, the PHN's mobilization of the community is geared toward collective action; The various degrees of community participation and the resulting sense of ownership and prospects for sustainability are as follows:

1. **Co-option:** Token involvement of community members representatives are chosen but have no real input or power.
2. **Compliance:** Tasks are assigned, with incentives; outsiders decide agenda and direct the process.
3. **Consultation:** Local opinions are asked, outsiders analyze and decide on a course of action.

4. **Co-operation:** Community members work together with outsiders to determine priorities; responsibility remains with outsiders for directing the process.
5. **Co-learning:** Community members and outsiders share their knowledge to create new understanding and work together to form action plans with outsiders facilitating.
6. **Collective Action:** Community members set their own agenda and mobilize to carry it out in the absence of outside initiators and facilitation.

It is therefore imperative that at all seven stages of community development effort-namely; initial preparation, organizing the community to action, exploring the challenging issues and setting priorities, planning, acting, and evaluating together and scaling up; external players need to keep in mind a simple rule of thumb: community intervention is not just something done for the community but something done by the community (Howard-Grabman and Snetro, 2008).

Because of its emphasis on participation and self-construction of problems and issues, this approach may also be helpful where countries seek to deal with the needs of isolated or marginalized communities, for example where native population have been oppressed by incomers (O'Brien and Pace 1988).

### **Conclusion and Recommendation**

The community has been viewed by various scholars in three ways, namely: as a place (i.e related to a geographical location), as a social system and as a collection of people. It is a social system because in reality the community is a combination of all the social units and systems which have been developed to carry out its major functions with its pattern of interactions. It is indeed a social system with its own pattern of interaction, and results from the interrelationship of many systems within the community. This pattern of interaction and interrelationship within and between communities become very important in the consideration of community mobilization and crisis resolution, which is a form of community work that seeks to engage people with shared interests to come together, identify shared concerns and work jointly to overcome these concerns/challenges. The PHN is fully aware of this and operates within their expanded role as advocate, case manager, clinician, collaborator, controller, educator, evaluator, leader, organizer, planner, researcher and conceptual, human and technician skills, harmonizer to achieve the necessary community mobilization for conflict resolution.

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**11**

**Media, Environmental Sustainability and National Development In  
Nigeria**

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**Abstract**

This paper takes a look at Media, Environmental sustainability and Nigeria National development against the backdrop of a rapidly changing climate, with dire consequences for human comfort and survival. The theoretical framework for the qualitative study is the development media theory which attempts to explain the normative behaviour of the mass media in the developing countries. Relying on existing published works as well as observations, certain conclusions were inevitable. The paper found that the state of the environment is pitiable. Ironically, human beings, the greatest beneficiaries of the earth's resources, are the most guilty in destroying it through such actions as water/air pollution, over grazing, illegal felling of trees, excessive and unapproved hunting, etc. All these activities put the flora and fauna at risk, deplete the ozone layer. The realisation that the earth is endangered has prompted several human reactions including the convening of summits to address the problem and proffer appropriate solutions. It is suggested that persons in authority must think through the problem of environmental sustainability and come up with incisive and workable solutions in addition to other approaches.

**Introduction**

TIME, the authoritative international news magazine based in New York, devoted its entire November 1997 edition to the earth and its sustainability. The special issue, entitled "Our Precious Planet: why saving the Environment will be the next century's biggest challenge", drew attention to the threat faced by Planet Earth as a result of human activities. Published just a little over two years into the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the

story was obviously the most comprehensive on issues of the environment. Its editor, Charles Alexander, had noted, “this special issue is our most comprehensive look yet at what could be the biggest story of the 21<sup>st</sup> century: the fight to save our endangered planet”.

Indeed, Alexander could not have been more correct. Sixteen years since the story was printed and with the 21<sup>st</sup> century already in its second decade, issues of environmental sustainability remain in the front burner of national and global agendas. Governments, non-governmental and other interested persons have often made verbal commitments to protecting the earth – our fragile inheritance from nature. The challenge has been how the present generation may use the environment and hand it over to future generations without compromising it in any way.

But the reality on ground tends to portray the contrary. For instance, a lot of environmental degradation is going on. The tropical forests are fast disappearing, soil erosion is becoming more devastating; the rivers and oceans are bursting in their seams with terrible consequences on those living several kilometres from rivers, dams and oceans. Out of ignorance, carelessness, idleness or sheer mischief, many persons have contributed in no small measure, to the environmental degradation that hurts humanity today. Through different human activities, the ozone layer which protects the earth from the harshness of the sun, has been brutally depleted, air and water sources have been polluted, floods have washed off topsoil leaving unfertile soil unable to sustain crops as well as degrade land and destroy human habitations.

The mass media across different geographical regions, in their social responsibility obligations, have frequently drawn attention to the need to be more environment-friendly in all activities. This is not only necessary but imperative if human survival will not be impaired in the nearest future.

### **Definition of Terms**

At this juncture, there is need to define some of the concepts that are key to this presentation. These are mass media, environment and development.

**Mass Media:** According to Raufu (2003:8) “mass media are the modern means of giving information to a large number of people”. Essentially this suggests that the mass media are all the channels, through which public information is disseminated often to a ‘mass’ audience. Of course, such is possible through advanced technology that has been developed for that purpose. Indeed, the mass media are usually classified into print and electronic media. Print media include newspapers, magazines, circulars, pamphlets, direct mail, billboards, sky-writing and any technical device that carries a message to the masses by appealing to their sense of sight. Electronic media refer to radio – audio recordings that appeal to the sense of sound – and television i.e. motion pictures and video recordings that appeal to both the sense of sound and the sense of sight (Alabi, 2006:96)

**Environment:** Former American Vice President Al Gore (1997) describes environment thus:

when we consider a subject as sweeping as the environment, we often focus on its most tangible aspects – the air we breathe, the water we drink, the food we put

on the table. Those things are critically important. But to me the environment is about something less tangible, though not less important. It is about our sense of community – the obligation we have to each other, and to future generations, to safeguard God’s earth.

Such a thoughtful and holistic explanation of the environment is needful in appreciating our responsibility to ensure the continuation of the human race through the preservation of the environment.

According to Adaikpoh, (2012:4) environment is our surroundings which include all forms of life (plants, animals and human beings) air, water, land, buildings, parks, vehicles, etc. Adegoroye (1997:12) sees it as the aggregate of the physical and biological entities of the outside of man and supporting the existence of man whether on land, in water or air”. Taken together, environment would suggest all the natural endowments and those provided by men in his efforts to make life more meaningful and comfortable. It means everything that affects man in anyway – land, water, air, trees, forests, grasses, houses, cars and others.

**Development:** The quest for development is a perpetual concern of humanity. From the pre-historic times to the industrial age and now the era of advanced information communication and technology, man has always sought to improve human conditions. Amucheazi (1980:4) sees development as a multi-dimensional process, involving the totality of man in his political, economic, psychological, social relations, among others”.

In the same vein, the United Nations defines development as “multidimensional undertaking to achieve a higher quality of life for all people”. Economic developmental, social development and environmental protection are interdependent and mutually reinforcing components of sustainable development. Such growth should be broadly based so as to benefit all people through the eradication of poverty, hunger, disease and illiteracy, the provision of adequate shelter and secure employment for all and the preservation of the integrity of the environment (Ajana, 2001). Appropriately, the foregoing definition emphasizes environmental integrity as an essential component of development. Besides, development has to be sustainable in such a way that it “meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Ajana, 2001). Similarly the environment must be used and managed in a sustainable manner. This is not only necessary but imperative.

**Theoretical Framework:** There is a healthy relationship between theory and practice because both should be mutually reinforcing. Given the topic of interest which focuses on media and environmental sustainability in national development efforts, the theoretical underpinnings revolve around the development media theory which is generally in operation in developing countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America.

The development media theory, according to Folarin (2002:35), seeks to explain the normative behaviour of the mass media in countries that are conventionally classified as ‘developing’ or ‘third world’ countries. The theory takes into consideration the special or difficult circumstances under which media

organisations operate in the emerging countries. Relying on McQuail (1987), Folarin (2002:35) outlines the major tenets of development media theory to include:

- i. Media must accept and carry out positive development tasks in line with nationally established policies.
- ii. Freedom of the media should be open to economic priorities and development needs of the society.
- iii. Media should give priority in their content to the national culture and language(s).
- iv. Media should give priority in news and information to links with other developing countries, which are close geographically, culturally or politically.
- v. Journalists and other media workers have responsibilities as well as freedom in their information gathering and dissemination tasks.
- vi. In the interest of development ends, the state has a right to intervene in, or restrict media operation; and devices of censorship, subsidy and direct control can be justified.

Nwanne (2012) noted that the idea of development media takes into account the peculiar, often restricting, circumstances under which media organisations in developing countries operate. Apart from the different circumstances under which media operate in different socio-political environments, the media, irrespective of location, have an undying desire to protect the polity, enhance and ensure environmental sustainability.

### **State of the Environment**

A cursory observation would reveal that maintaining environmental integrity does not seem to be one of the strongest points of policy makers especially in Nigeria, There seems to be a disequilibrium between man's activities and consumption and the level of replenishment of the earth resources. Indeed, there seems also to be a clear threat to the biodiversity. According to Adaikpoh (2012:34);

Biodiversity describes the three essential groups necessary to preserve the ecologic system. These are (i) generic diversity which is a measure of the variety of different versions on the same genes within individual species (ii) species diversity which is the number of different kinds of organisms within individual communities or ecosystems; and (iii) ecological diversity which is the amount of richness and complexity of a biological community; including the number of niches, tropic levels, and ecological processes that capture energy, sustain food webs and recycle materials within this system.

The need to protect the biodiversity is crucial for human survival and as such all must be involved in this process. From the spiritual and physical dimensions, the human species is the most important on earth. Everything was created just for the comfort of man but this may be compromised if the carelessness about nature and its most important resource – earth – is not reversed. Even though the earth is meant for

human comfort, ironically, humans have been ‘implicated’ in running down the earth’s resources. A research carried out by Benjamin Santer (1995) and his team of scientists under the aegis of the United Nations (1995) reviewed one of the most controversial theories ever to emerge from the halls of science: the bold contention that carbon dioxide and other so called green-house gases produced in huge quantities by industrial societies are inexorably warming the planet” (Thompson, 1997:38). If there was any doubt about the influence of human activities such misgivings should have dissipated after the confident and unequivocal conclusion of Santer’s multi-national panel of scientists to the effect that “ the balance of evidence suggests that there is a discernable human influence on global climate”

In the past few decades, scientists and other lovers of the earth, have warned about climate change which may portend some levels of discomfiture or outright harm to the human race. According to the special issue of *Time Magazine* “The US State department warns that unless significant steps are taken soon, greenhouse gas concentrations will very likely triple in a hundred years, reaching levels higher than at any time in the last 50 million years”.

The impact is just beginning to be felt: a 5°C warming over the last century. That increase may seem modest, but a 3°C cooling brought on the most recent Ice Age. Not only has the temperature risen on average, but the warming is becoming more intense. The sultriest three years in the century have occurred in the last decade (1987-1997), and the hottest year ever recorded was 1995. Since the special report was published in 1997, ecological issues have continued to command more print space and air time in the media of mass communication. With the buzzword of climate change, the ecosystem is being tempered with or altered in important ways in the globe. Even as far back as 1997, *Time Magazine* had stated that:

There are the unusual frequent bouts of unusually nasty weather: flooding in Central Europe, vicious cyclones in South East Asia, freak sprink snowstorms in the American plains. It’s not all certain that the severity of these storms has anything to do with long term climate change, but scientists have a possible explanation. If the earth is indeed warming, some of the heat raises the air temperature a bit, but more of it causes increased evaporation of water. In fact, scientists have found that the amount of moisture in the air has gone up 10% in the last 20 years (1977-1997). The extra moisture could disrupt weather patterns, producing stronger, more frequent storms in some areas and drought in other places.

Given the above scenario, in the second decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, it would seem that climate change has become a reality, with its unexpected and usually unpleasant consequences. As a result of its pervasiveness, climate change is a subject in which practically everyone seems to be a practitioner, ranging from the politician seeking votes to the house wife who does not wish to be left behind in the modern knowledge economy.

In Nigeria, climate change was initially discussed as one of those idle talks of arm chair analysts and scholars. Not much was heard about the subject even among the political and economic elites. But in the past few years its reality has become so obvious that it can only be ignored at the peril of those concerned. Somehow, the rainy and dry seasons in Nigeria have been altered to some extent. At times, the rainy season begins a little earlier while the dry spell drags on for a little longer

**State of Environment:** The state of the environment in Nigeria today is saddening. Human activities have had negative effects. The rain forest belt with its hitherto rich biodiversity is fast disappearing. The implications for the continued survival and sustenance of the human race is grim. Indeed if the earth is not used in a sustainable manner, human survival would be at great risk as air is polluted, water is contaminated, the oxygen-producing plants disappear as well as the depletion and ultimately the disappearance of fishes and animal life. The implication of this for food security is frightening, especially in sub-sahara Africa where food security appears to be a luxury, due largely to poor agricultural practices and a debilitating level of poverty. The poor state of the environment is sharply reflected in the level of flooding, de-afforestation, soil erosion, pollution and other evidence of assaults on the planet.

**Flooding and Erosion:** Many coastal states in Nigeria were flooded beyond imagination in 2012 rainy season. The problem affected states such as Delta, Benue, Kogi, Adamawa and even some Northern States such as Sokoto, Kaduna where the usual problems are desertification and aridity, were not spared.

**Ozone Layer Depletion:** According to Adaikpoh (2012:17), the ozone layer is basically found at a height of about 20-30 km above sea level. The ozone layer provides a protective layer, which prevents the penetration of the sun's harmful ultraviolet rays". The understanding here is that the ozone layer is nature's protection against the direct effects of the harsh rays of the sun. By so doing, the rays that hit the earth will have been 'moderated' before reaching the human beings. But as a result of harmful practices such as pollution, there is a gradual destruction of the protective layer. Adaikpoh's (2012) explanation is that the pollution of the atmosphere from the release of the chloroform carbons (CFCS) gases causes the depletion of the ozone layers and this results in environmental degradation. Ukpong (1994) strengthens the above point with his observation that the low productivity in agriculture are caused by ultraviolet rays. Also, an increase in ultraviolet radiation affects water bodies, disturbs aquatic life, which supports the food chain, and causes the death of fishes that feed us Over exposure to ultraviolet rays can cause skin cancer and eye problems like cataract and blindness. It also results in stunted growth of plants.

**Reclaiming the Environment:** The realisation that the earth is endangered has prompted several human reactions. According to Osuntokun (1999:153) as cited in Ajibade (2003:21), concerns over environmental degradation reached a crescendo in 1972 when the United Nations sponsored a conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm Sweden. A major outcome of the conference was the setting up of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) which has its headquarters in Nairobi, Kenya. Other efforts include the Earth Day of 1990 and of course the widely reported Earth Summit of 1992.

Ajibade (2003:21) captured the event thus:

...a world-wide environment summit tagged Earth Summit, or formally, United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), was convened in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil to address Global concerns on environmental pollution. A major achievement of the summit is the preparation of a document known as Agenda 21, which contains provisions on how to address environmental degradation by all nations of the world

Despite the well thought out ideas contained in the document, it does not seem that many countries, especially the developing countries, are doing much to uphold the integrity of the document. The heaps of refuse, thoughtless deforestation and other acts inimical to the environment do not suggest that great lessons have been learnt in managing the environment.

### **The Role of the Mass Media in Promoting Environmental Sustainability**

The media in Nigeria and internationally have made concerted efforts in bringing ecological issues to the front burner of national discourse. The recent flooding of towns along coastal area has attracted media attention. Many of such stories commanded front page attention in the newspapers and magazines while a lot of air time had been devoted to the problem. Besides news programmes, many radio and television stations have used their media to rally support for the victims of ecological infractions, urging citizens to donate whatever they could to the unfortunate victims. Bronze FM, a radio station based in Benin City in Midwest Nigeria, frequently airs public service announcement urging residents to “stop dumping refuse into the drains” so as not to worsen the problem of flooding. Different media organisations made airtime and space available to draw attention.

Expectedly, newspapers, magazines, radio and television stations, in Nigeria gave adequate coverage to the devastating floods in many states.

As the *Sunday Sun* (September 30, 2012), Nigeria’s paper tabloid reported:

Nothing can better describe the condition of Anambra riverine communities than anguish, pain and poverty. These resulted from flooding when the River Niger overflowed its banks. Many communities in some local government areas of the state have been at the mercy of flooding and erosion and other ecological disasters since the beginning of the rainy season.

Indeed, the same incident has occurred in many other coastal states of Nigeria, causing a huge humanitarian crisis. The floods swept away villages and communities. The respective governments at different levels have responded by setting up rehabilitation camps on higher grounds to assuage or mitigate the sufferings of the victims. The floods were so serious that lives were lost in many instances. Apart from the immediate impact of the angry floods, a middle term problem is the inevitable outcome of the floods on the farmlands of the communities who are naturally farmers. Given the country’s inconsistent agricultural policies that

do not seem to worry about food security issues, the loss of those farmlands has clearly unpalatable effects on the food security situation of the country. At the moment, prices of foodstuffs are sky-high as a result of short fall in supply. The prices of food items will be better imagined in the next season. There is nothing to suggest the government of the day is taking any strategic measure to avoid a looming famine.

The problem has been quite serious in the past few years. Apart from the occasional ‘anger’ of the lagoon in Lagos, Nigeria’s former capital, increase in the level of rainfall especially in the south west in the last quarter of 2011 has brought unprecedented misery for residents of Ogun and Lagos States. According to a *Sunday Tribune* report on September 30, 2011:

while Lagos being a coastal city, has been under the mercy of the rains that came in the year, the sleepy city of Ibadan, the Oye State Capital, was rudely woken up to its detriment when on August 26, the city witnessed increased rainfall, leading to the death of hundreds and the destruction of possessions. The once sleepy city is yet to recover from the wreckage

However, despite the innocuous reportage of the flooding and other problems and occurrences, some victims do not even want their problems to be brought to public attention. According to a *Sunday Tribune* report:

Angered by the media reports of their predicament, one of the residents – a carpenter –warned this reporter not to ask questions or take snapshots because, according to him, “we don’t want any media coverage anymore. This has made things worse for us. Instead of getting government support, all we get are intimidations.

This scenario suggests the low level of government’s responsiveness to the problems of the people in Nigeria. In a more organized environment, government officials would treat victims of flood, which was not caused by them, with a measure of care and consideration, rather than intimidation.

*Time Magazine* has drawn attention to the fact that lofty ideas proposed at summits and other gatherings are often not executed effectively when they are executed at all. The special edition of the international magazine on its 13<sup>th</sup> page draws attention to five salient issues raised at the Rio de Janeiro summit and how those issues have generally been handled.

### **On Biodiversity**

**“Rhetoric:** The current decline in biodiversity is largely the result of human activity and represents a severe threat to human development.

**Reality:** The loss of species is accelerating as humans encroach in habitats and carve up ecosystems into fragments. A weak convention on Biological Diversity has been ratified by 161 countries (but not by the US)”

### **Climate**

**“Rhetoric:** Recognizing global warming as a potential problem, delegates approved a toothless resolution on climate change calling on nations to voluntarily reduce emissions of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases to 1990 levels.

**Reality:** Nations have roundly ignored the goals and released greenhouse gases as if Rio never happened. Governments promised to decide on a tougher plan in Kyoto, Japan December (1997)”.

### **Deforestation**

**“Rhetoric:** Noting the destruction of woodlands, delegates called for ‘urgent’ action and laid the initial plan for negotiating a forest convention.

**Reality:** The world continues to destroy an area of forest the size of Nepal every year. Asia has lost almost 95% of its frontier woodlands, according to the World Resources Institution. Efforts to draft a forest agreement have run out of steam”.

### **Financing**

**“Rhetoric:** Getting unusually specific, delegates called on rich nations to increase development aid to 7% of their gross national product.

**Reality:** Such aid, now covering 3% of GNP, has been dropping steadily. US official assistance to other countries declined 37% between 1992-1995”.

### **Populations**

**“Rhetoric:** Because of the sensitivities of the Vatican and some developing nations, recommendations for population control were muted by fuzzy bureaucratic language calling for “appropriate demographic policies”.

**Reality:** This is a potential bright spot. Although the ranks of humanity still grow by about 80 million a year, an unexpected and rapid drop in birth rate continues around the world.”

The above presentation suggests clearly that governmental efforts at enforcing mutually agreed strategies and actions to enhance the environment have not been encouraging. But that should not mean that the struggle to protect the environment should be halted. If anything, current happenings have even made environmental sustainability not only necessary but imperative.

### **Summary and Conclusion**

The need to protect the environment is becoming more crucial by the day. This is based on the well reasoned assumption that human survival is intricately tied to the integrity of the environment. How? If water and air are polluted, biodiversity disorganized, deforestation encouraged human survival would be in jeopardy, hence the need to protect this great resource.

In keeping with its social responsibility to its environment, the mass media have drawn global attention to the need to maintain and protect the environment for the good of all. The essence is to ensure sustainability, to use the earth’s resources by current generation in such a way and manner that does not imperil the environment for future generations.

In order to achieve a measure of conceptual clarity, an attempt has been made to define mass media, environment and development. Also, in providing a theoretical framework for this work, the development media theory which seeks to explain the normative behaviour of the mass media in countries generally classified as ‘developing’ was explored. It must be noted here, however, that irrespective of locations, the mass media generally worry about issues that affect their environment.

At the moment, the state of the environment is not encouraging because of the several assaults unleashed, knowingly or unknowingly, on the environment. Over the years, human activities such as tree felling, unrestrained hunting, overgrazing, bush burning etc have caused a huge distortion of the ecosystem. In specific terms, it has caused among others, climate change which has led to unusual flooding, global warming and other undesirable situations to humans. With high population, especially in Africa, Asia and Latin America, food shortages are no longer entirely strange.

Indeed, for the next decade or thereabout, climate change and other related issues will receive increased attention in the developing countries of Asia, Latin America and Africa. This is more so in Nigeria, the most populous country in Africa, which grapples with such daunting challenges as endemic corruption, poor leadership and a largely frustrated populace. Indeed, climate change is intricately tied to issues of politics, economy, social and even existential questions. By September/October of 2012, many states in Nigeria, hitherto thought to be ‘safe’ from flooding and erosion, became ‘victims’ of flooding, estimated to be the worst in the country for over 50 years. This has, expectedly, created a refugee crisis of monumental proportion.

Given man’s quest for material development, the need to protect the earth’s biosphere must always be considered. The massive, and often thoughtless, destruction of the flora and fauna, the selfish art of pollution and other dangerous activities of man must be put under check. As *Time Magazine* puts it “man’s only choice is to live in harmony with nature, not to conquer it”.

### **Recommendations**

Arising from the above presentation, and in order that our greatest resource – the Earth – is preserved for future generations, it is germane to put forward the following recommendations.

1. Given the controlling role of politics and government in any environment, it is hereby suggested that those policy makers must leave their ‘comfort zones’ and think through issues and come up with fresh, incisive and workable policies, matched with appropriate actions, in response to the clear and present danger posed by issues of environmental sustainability.
2. Apart from coming up with implementable policies on the environment, the government must embark on a sustained media campaign to protect the environment. Some years ago, the Nigerian government embarked on a tree planting campaign but this was soon abandoned the fate that usually befalls good programmes in Nigeria. This is perhaps time to revive the campaign and others such as ‘stop burning’, ‘stop indiscriminate hunting’, ‘green environment campaigns’ etc. If such

campaigns are stepped up on a sustainable basis, there is a chance that the people's understanding, and attitudes, towards the issues of the environment, might be better.

3. There is need to catch the children young through the introduction of environment studies in school curriculum in Nigeria. If children are taught environmental issues in the school, they will grow with it and hopefully, behave correctly in managing the environment.
4. Nigerians should be less gluttonous in their consumption pattern especially among the privileged few. This group of people often over eat and even have much for the dustbin while there are many who are embarking on 'compulsory fasting' as a result of poverty. If all the available resources are consumed today this may jeopardise food security tomorrow.
5. It seems reasonable to add that our attitude towards nature and the environment should be that of 'complementarity' rather than the present condescending position which makes us take more than our fair share. As Harvard Biologist, Stephen Jay Gould (1997) puts it, "we cannot win this battle to save species and environments without forging an emotional bond between ourselves and nature".

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**Violent Conflict, Internally Displaced Persons and the Contending Issue of Afro-pessimism: A Critical Analysis of Darfur Crisis**

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**Abstract**

This paper examines the prevalence of violent conflict and displacement/refugee crisis as causes of African underdevelopment with particular focus on the Arab Janjaweed militias' brutality against the defenceless people mostly women and children in Darfur region of Sudan. It is unarguable that violent conflict and perhaps, the contending issues of internally displaced persons (IDPs) and/or refugees and development crisis are global challenges that are not peculiar to Africa. However, the degree and intensity with which they occur and their accompanying humanitarian tragedies are common place on the continent. Contrary to a wave of optimism that swept Africa in the 1960s up to early 80s that independence will engender peace and promote development, large-scale poverty and violent conflict engulfed the continent especially among the sub-Saharan Africans. Undoubtedly, this makes afro-pessimism, a view held by western liberal thinkers that nothing good will come out of Africa. Although, the paper acknowledges impacts of widespread corruption necessitated by bad governance among African leaders, it however establishes interconnectedness among conflicts, IDPs and underdevelopment in Darfur.

**Keywords:** Afro-pessimism, Violence/ Conflict, Poverty, Refugees, Underdevelopment.

**Introduction**

The independence period of 1960s up to early 90s heralded great optimism for the people of African continent who have experienced despicable suffering under worst human conditions during European colonialism. This optimism was further reinforced with the end of the Cold War era towards the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century particularly in 1989 following the collapse of the Soviet Union and liberation of the continent from imperialism and apartheid regimes in South Africa. To many

observers of the events on the continent then, this period signified what Francis Fukuyama would refer to in his classic as ‘The End of History’ of hopelessness for the continent and its population. But realities since the inception of the 21<sup>st</sup> century are with all intents and purposes, in contrast to these expectations. Today, vicious circle of poverty, war and inter and intra-state violent conflicts, unprecedented scale of terror attacks and their attendant challenge of IDPs that encourage unprecedented humanitarian tragedies, replaced peace, security and development of the continent. These occurrences make Afro-pessimism, described by Schorr (2011: 23) as “the perception that ‘Africa’ has always been and will continue to be a scary, backward, and poverty-ridden place” a fad particularly among many scholars in the West including others of Africa descents. In her own view, Fair (1993: 5) succinctly summed up what afro-pessimism mean to many western writers when she declared:

I get the usual litany of stereotypical negative and often condescending descriptions. To my students, Africa is: basket case, jungle covered, big game, safari, impoverished, falling apart, famine plagued, full of war, AIDS-ridden, torn by apartheid, weird and black. Moreover, my students describe Africans as tribal, underdeveloped, fight[ing] all the time, brutal, savage, exotic, sexually active and backward (people).

Citing all the terrible things that pervade the continent such as violent conflicts, extreme poverty and hunger, high infant and maternal mortality rates, diseases and official corruption and so on, have created the bad image and perception of a ‘primitive’ and dark continent where sun never set. This is in addition to the view that the continent is populated with ‘savages’ who are known to be ‘brutal’, ‘fighting all the time’, and probably rapists since they are ‘sexually active’, and as such, painted a gloomy image that presented the continent a risky location to live and invest (see Onwudiwe and Ibelema, 2003: 5). No doubt, the avalanche manifestation of all these as pointed out by the Afro-pessimists make it difficult for afro-optimists to put up any acceptable defence to the contrary. This is so because, while the tragedies of genocide and pillage occasioned by civil wars in Liberia, Sierra Leone, Rwanda as well as the on-going persistent terrorist attacks with senseless killings of innocent people by the Boko Haram in northern Nigeria to mention these few are not lost on us, the maiming of non-Arab Sudanese in Darfur by the Janjaweed militias in pursuit of what Fawole (2008: 127) describes as *Arabization policy* or drive clearly juxtaposes the afro-pessimists’ viewpoints.

Quoting the United Nations Under-Secretary-General for Humanitarian Affairs, John Holmes, in his testimony before the Security Council on April 22, 2008, Traub (2010) gives a mind-boggling estimate of casualty figures of victims of senseless killings arising from Darfur crisis since 2003. While the actual figure of those killed remains contentious, James Traub say that the overall figure for civilian deaths in Darfur ranges from 100,000 to 400,000 even though 300,000 estimates has been the official figure. Considering the semblance it bores with the Rwandan genocide of 1994, Straus (2006: 41) argues that “since the Darfur crisis began in 2003, the Rwandan genocide of 1994 has been a frequent comparative point of reference”. This to him has made some commentators to call on-going violence in western region of Sudan “another Rwanda” while others describe it a “slow-motion” Rwanda.

Etymologically, Darfur which in Arabic means “Land of the Fur” is the western region of the Republic of the Sudan, a country made up of Arabs in the north and black peoples of African descent in the west and south, but whose Arab rulers have for decades sought to make it exclusively Arab indirectly through war and directly through outright genocide (see Fawole, 2008).

Although the on-going conflict that led to the killing of over 300, 000 people, pillage and wanton destruction of property in the Darfur region of Sudan escalated in 2003, the violence actually started in the 1970s to 80s. Historically, the region is home to about 36 ethnic groups that are divided into two main blocks of Arabs and non-Arabs. The non-Arabs are known as “blacks” because they are of African descents. Among them, the Fur and the Masaleet tribes are more dominant and have had history of conflicts over land with their Arab neighbours who are mostly nomads, rearing camels and cattle. While traditional African methods of conflict resolution were initially adopted to resolve reported clashes between the two contending groups, they later proved ineffective to prevent future conflicts.

From 1987 to 1989, the first major Fur-Arab conflict broke out over the right to grazing lands and water resources. During this period, some Arab tribesmen numbering about 27 formed the Arab Gathering that later metamorphosed into nomad militia called Janjaweed and made Fur and other non-Arabs targets of attacks. In that conflict, an estimated 2,500 Fur lost their lives and over 400 villages were set on fire with many fleeing their homes for safety. Since then, violent conflict between the two blocks become a re-occurring phenomenon. Again, the civil war in neighbouring Chad which spilled over into Darfur in the 1980s when Chadian warlord militia sponsored by Libya fled to Darfur during which the Chadians drove Libyan forces out of Chad, heightened the crisis. This Chadian militia formed an alliance with Arabs in Darfur who were impoverished by a severe drought (Encarta, 2008).

According to Benedicta (2010: 236), two reasons were identified as the major justifications for the rebellion that broke out in Darfur in February 2003. These two identifiable reasons premised on the dispute over shortage of water and arable land had led to increasing conflict between the nomadic Arabs, who used the land for grazing livestock, and the settled non-Arabs, who used it primarily for farming and other agricultural purposes. The second reason is hinged on age-long hatred and suspicion between the two Arabs and non-Arab settlers in the region. Succinctly put therefore, Benedicta argues that:

The violence in Darfur was centred on two issues: the land question and the rebellion that brought the State into an on-going civil war. Darfur is inhabited by a variety of Moslem peoples that may be distinguished in two distinct groups namely: the Fur, Massaleet and Zaggawa and Arab tribes collectively termed Baggara who settled in the region from about the 13th century.

To Wendy (1971: 198) and Tubaina (2007: 70), the relationship between the Fur and Arabs has always been tense. This tension dates back to the era of slave trade at the beginning of the 20th century when the Fur and Arab slave merchants competed for slaves by raiding nearby villages for slaves. While the Fur and Massaleet were farmers, the Arabs and Zaggawa were nomadic herdsman and which made access to land and water contentious issue to both sides. This feud was further stoked by the divide and rule tactics of the British colonial government in Sudan. In summing up

the origin and causes of the Darfur violence, Quach (2004: 3) aptly puts it in the following way:

The origins of the conflict in Darfur are accounted for by numerous factors that include historical violence in the region, ethnic divisions, social, political and economic marginalization. They are similar to those of conflicts in southern and eastern Sudan which are rooted in the constant struggle over power-sharing that weak central governance, under-development and the lack of diverse political involvement structure produced. The Darfur crisis is an outcome of the struggle for power between Sudan's central government and peripherals. Simmering structural violence finally exploded into physical conflicts and genocidal campaigns when Khartoum imperialists' goal was threatened.

The above assertion was corroborated Traub (2010: 3) who admits that

Since 1989, when the National Islamic Front of Brigadier General Omar al-Bashir overthrew a largely technocratic and secular government, the regime has also sought to impose its religious principles on a population whose own traditions are both diverse and essentially moderate. It should come as no surprise that this brand of authoritarian rule has provoked unrest and rebellion throughout Sudan's vast periphery... Therefore, the dramatic increase in tension of the on-going violence against the Darfuris can be link to the politics of racial and cultural identity that started in the 1980s and thereafter consciously manipulated by the Bashir regime (paraphrased by me).

Similarly, according to BBC News (2006), it was reported that "the specific conflict in Darfur is rooted deeply in historical and economic tensions between the Darfurians and the elites in Khartoum, the capital of Sudan".

Precisely in February 2003, the war in Darfur began when the [Sudan Liberation Movement/Army](#) (SLM/A) and [Justice and Equality Movement](#) (JEM) groups in Darfur took up arms against President Omar el-Bashir government, accusing authorities in Khartoum of oppressing non-[Arab](#) Sudanese in favour of [Sudanese Arabs](#). In its response, the Sudanese government and its proxy force, the *Janjaweed*, Arabic derivative words for "man", "gun" and "[horse](#)" literarily interpreted to mean "a man with gun (cutlass, spear, bow and arrow) on a horse" or simply "evil men on the horse", swiftly responded with a series of attacks that have caused the deaths of some 300,000 civilians.

According to the United Nations (UN), the African Union (AU), and numerous independent observers, both Western and African, Khartoum's tactics have included the bombing and burning of villages, murder and rape, the systematic destruction of livelihoods, and the denial of humanitarian assistance. The United States government described the violence as "genocide" in the summer of 2004 while a UN inquiry concluded six months later that the Sudanese government and its allies, the Janjaweed rebels had committed "crimes under international law" in

Darfur region (Traub, 2010). Although, the UN has not deemed it fit to call the humanitarian tragedies in Darfur as genocide but with all intents and purposes, the unjustifiable maiming, rape, plunder, enslavement and general wanton destruction taking place against the defenceless civilians mostly women and children in Darfur, are no less serious and heinous than genocide. Regrettably, despite the wide coverage and international acknowledgement that the inhuman acts of government and its death merchant partners, the Janjaweed rebels have inflicted on the innocent people of Darfur, the Sudanese government has unrepentantly rejected all claims of responsibility and indeed has even denied accounts of large-scale death. While commendation is given to the international community for condemnation of the war crimes against humanity taking place in Darfur region of Sudan, mere threats and blandishments which proved unable to mount an effective response to the on-going violence but rather, emboldened Khartoum to defiantly continue to ignore and act with impunity, left the Darfuris to their fates.

Looking at it from a humanitarian perspective, Menkhaus (2008: 73 – 74) wrote that “the magnitude of human suffering caused by Africa’s wars defies comprehension”. He further asserted that since 1991, about eight million Africans have died of war-related causes while another 3.3 million are now refugees and 13.5 million are internally displaced. This is out of the total 16 million IDPs globally (IDMC/Brookings 2011).

Although, the estimates of war casualties whether in terms of those killed, raped, tortured and displaced in Darfur are very hard to secure with precision, it has nonetheless be widely reported that more than 300,000 people have been killed and another 2.7 million have been displaced from the ancestral homes. Out of this disheartening figure of the IDPs in Darfur region of Sudan, the overwhelming majority are women and children who constitute approximately 80% of the displaced populations and are widely recognised as the most vulnerable. Today, much of Darfur’s population remains in vast camps for IDPs, who are afraid to return to their homes. This makes the region one of the most widespread and protracted internal displacement contexts in the world. Particularly in 2006, the situation in Darfur became so bad that it was characterized as the worst human right abuses in recent history(see *The Economist*, January 17, 2004, p. 10; Mooney, 2005; Seferis, 2010 and the BBC News).

In his own submission, Chang (2007: 4) averred that:

The East African state of Sudan hosts more than a quarter of the IDPs population in the world. The protracted conflicts that have engulfed the state since its independence in 1956 are a major cause of the increase in the IDP population in Sudan. There are about 6 million IDPs in the country and this is incomparable with situations in other countries. Importantly, a sizeable number of these IDPs are located in the province of Darfur.

Drawing from the above assertion, Weiss and Korn (2006: 13) aptly believe that “Darfur currently constitutes one of the greatest challenges to peacekeeping operations today, as it has been ravaged by violence since 2003”.

Writing on the challenges that the IDPs posed to development and human rights in this century, Bagshaw and Diane (2004: vi) contend that

One of the more daunting challenges of the 21st century is to provide protection to people uprooted within their own countries and at risk of starvation, physical violence, genocidal acts or other serious abuse of their human rights... [I]n Darfur in the Sudan, ... reports from humanitarian organizations highlight the vulnerability of (innocent and defenceless) men, women and children uprooted from their homes and communities, deprived of food, medicine and shelter and subjected to armed attack, arbitrary detention, forced conscription or sexual violence.

To Mooney (2005) and Benedicta (2010: 231),

In Africa, the overwhelming majority of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) are women and children who constitute about 80% of the displaced populations and are widely recognised as the most vulnerable. Stripped of the protection of their homes, family structures, and often their government, women and children are made particularly vulnerable. They face the rigors of long journeys seeking safety, official harassment and frequent sexual abuse even after reaching an apparent place of safety. In camp and non-camp situations, they are victims of rape, sexual assault, forced recruitment and other forms of sexual violence and forced labour.

Therefore, the thrust of this paper is to among others, examine who the IDPs are, what factors precipitate them, what implications they carry for Africa's aspiration for sustainable growth and development as espoused in the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) framework, the nexus between violence, IDPs and continued underdevelopment of the African people and society using the prism of the Darfur crisis. Hence, it becomes pertinent to take a cursory look at the conceptual clarifications of the IDPs so as to appreciate why and how it constitute a huge challenge to African development and make afro-pessimism popular.

### **The Internally Displaced Persons: Conceptual Clarification**

The term internally displaced persons (IDPs or simply displaced person, DPs) is a term used during the World War II era to designate an individual forced to live outside the borders of his or her home country (Encarta, 2008). According to United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs on *The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement* (cited in Seferis, 2010: 61 and Chang, 2007), the IDPs are "persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or national or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border".

Responding to the question 'who are IDPs?' Chang said 'there is no universally agreed definition of IDPs'. However, he notes that the IDPs "refer to persons who are forced to abandon their homes, livelihoods, out of fear for their personal security and well-being. What therefore is the difference between the IDPs

and refugees? The main difference between IDPs and refugees is that the former remain in their country and so are the responsibilities of their own states. The IDPs are more vulnerable to further violence and form of inhuman treatment largely because of sovereign right of state that preclude meddlesomeness of outside forces in its internal affairs which makes it difficult for humanitarian assistance to reach the IDPs especially if the government is unreceptive of such gesture. Hence, often times, the destiny of IDPs lies squarely with the government.

Unlike the voluntary migrants, IDPs are simply made to involuntarily and coercively vacate and abandon their homes often times very rapidly, suddenly and unexpectedly with little or no opportunity to take along with themselves some of the personal effects or belongings. Again, contrary to inducible reasons for voluntary migrants, the involuntary movement of the IDPs are often determined by outbreak or obvious signs of such outbreak that makes persons in this group particularly vulnerable to various forms of violence, destruction of lives and property and general atmosphere of insecurity on a large scale. The second distinguishing factor of the IDPs is what Chang called the notion of 'internal'. As a result of the fact that the IDPs do not leave their state borders, their fates are squarely decided or rather determined by their state. It becomes worse and sympathetic too when the state or government involves directly or indirectly in what displaced the people in the first place like it is the case in Darfur.

Apart from state choosing to terrorize its own citizens, other factor that could further subject these vulnerable persons, the IDPs, is as a result of the vulnerability of state itself result from either state collapse like the case of Somalia or the state is deeply involved in fighting insurgency that has demonstrated capacity of threatening its national security and corporate existence. In the case of the plights of the displaced in Darfur, government that ought to protect them is guilty of instigating the violence against them.

Ostensibly, stripped of the protection of their homes, family structures, and often their government, women and children in particular have been exposed to all forms of attack and general insecurity in war-torn Darfur region. For instance, they face the severities of trekking long journeys in the cause of seeking safety, hunger, illness, rape, sexual assault, forced recruitment/labour including frequent sexual abuse and molestations whether in the camps and outside camps by their slave-drivers and perhaps, sometimes even by officials that are meant to protect them. To these IDPs in Darfur, life has become what Long (2011) describes as one of protracted displacements which Crisp (2002) defined as displacements for which there are 'no solutions in sight'. To an average Darfuri, the racial epithets like 'you are slaves', 'kill the slaves', 'this is the last day for blacks' amongst others with accompanied violent victimization by the government-backed Janjaweed, have become daily bitter pills to be swallowed. It was this dehumanizing experience and horror of unimaginable magnitude that the Darfuris have been helplessly subjected to for over a decade ago that compelled the United States Department of State to indict President Omar Hassan el-Bashir of genocide. In a study conducted by Sarah Martin (Sarah, 2007), it is reported that "the United States government concluded that the government of Sudan is committing genocide in Darfur". In this regard, the International Criminal Court (ICC) led by the former Swiss Chief Prosecutor, Luis Moreno-Ocampo issued warrant of arrest for war crimes against humanity in Darfur on President Omar el-Bashir.

In contrast to the position of American government, while the UN described what is happening in Darfur as 'crimes against humanity' and not genocide, the

European Union feigningly accused Sudanese government actions (and maybe inactions) in Darfur as merely ‘tantamount to genocide’. This is for obvious reason that Darfur is in Africa and Darfuris are blacks. Notwithstanding the American government stand on Darfur, the indifferent shown by both the UN and EU has apparently demonstrated that African conflicts deserve no attention of the west as far as they remain within Africa with Africans as victims and no consequences whatsoever on western interest. Thus, as Kuna (2005) and Usman (2013) have argued, the fact remains that the international community is getting fatigued and increasingly reluctant to intervene in Africa’s conflicts, as the great powers are engrossed on the crisis elsewhere to the exclusion of the African conflicts which in their calculation do not really pose any serious threats to global peace and security. Acting on this belief, Fawole (2003) notes that a ‘cruel’ international community more often cynically abandons Africans to fend for themselves. For instance, the deliberate refusal of the world body, the UN, and the rest of the international community to intervene in Liberia, Rwanda, Burundi and Sierra Leone even with clear warnings that these countries were on the verge of collapse are indicative of this fatigue and unkindness.

In a nutshell, the implication of continued violent conflict and the IDPs by-product is such that development opportunities with all intents and purposes will continue to escape the continent and its people. Put it differently, the continent will for a long time remain on trench of what Mimiko (2010) called ‘the long-disadvantaged’ and will continue to grapple with the label of afro-pessimism. As Menkhaus (2004) correctly posit, Africa’s continued economic underdevelopment which constitutes what Collier *et al* (2013) describes as “development in reverse” are widely caused by civil wars and general strife. This is because, wars and other variants of violent conflict unarguably frighten off both local and international investment. They mostly redirect resources away from development toward emergency relief, damage or destroy critical infrastructure, and contribute to the collapse of rule of law, which is seen as vital to economic development. Undoubtedly, Menkhaus is right when he opined that the nearly two dozen wars that have erupted in Africa since the end of the Cold War and more profoundly that of the Darfur region of Sudan, have not only been disastrous on every count but has greatly impeded development opportunities available to Africa in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. When other continents of the world are busy assembling to chart new socio-economic, political and cultural development agenda for their respective societies, on the top agenda of Africa has been the issue of ravaging war in Darfur vis-à-vis the challenge of the IDPs it throws up. It is evident therefore that meaningful development will continue to remain elusive to the people of the continent so long as outburst of war and humanitarian crisis like the one prevailing in Darfur continues to dominate discourse.

Furthermore, war-torn Africa will continue to provide safe haven for global terror networks to flourish and this obviously is a snag or threat to global peace and security. This is because anarchy and lawlessness that are usually generated by these conflicts always provide attractive sites for transnational criminals and terrorist networks. The case of Somalia is very instructive here. Therefore, realizing this to be self-evident truth, the Bush administration explicitly voiced out security concern in the 2002 National Security Strategy when he said that “America (and indeed the rest of the world) is now threatened less by conquering states than we are by failing ones”.

In contrast to the dream of peaceful and developed Africa at the dawn of this century following the continent receptivity to greater democratization, a decade ago turned out to be Africa's *annus horribilis*. Apart from Darfur conflict which remains the focus of this paper, several theatres of war and more recently terrorism including violent protests and revolution sweeping across the North Africa since the beginning of what is today called the 'Arab Spring' have put African quest for development on a reverse. Currently, while inter-state conflicts appears to be on the decline with exemption of few instances like Ethiopia-Eritrea and Sudan-South Sudan border clashes, there is ascendancy in intra-state strife in form of civil war, terrorism, violent protest and wide-ranging discontent playing out in several parts of Africa. Today, countries like Somalia (which by all indices is a failed state), the Democratic Republic of Congo, Mali, Libya, Niger, Tunisia, Central Africa Republic, Egypt and Nigeria to mention these few are facing one critical security challenge or the other. While the DRC has been engulfed with crisis for long, reported cases of rape against women and children amidst other human right violations is a concern to all sundry. According to Encyclopaedia Britannica (2012), it is reported that "of particular concern was the need to address endemic violence against women and children. In 2010 the UN reported 8,000 known cases of rapes of women in 2009 in the DRC, which had earned the unenviable title of the 'rape capital of the world'. In April the Harvard Humanitarian Initiative revealed that 60% of rape victims in South Kivu province had been gang raped by armed men".

In the case of Nigeria, many armed opposition groups like the dreaded Boko Haram Islamic sect in the north and the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) in the oil-rich Niger Delta region have vowed to create unstable society. Particularly Boko Haram, its motivation has been to put an end to the Nigerian state or create another 'Afghanistan' on African soil with Nigeria through senseless bombing campaign with unimaginable casualties.

The fallout of Arab Spring which started in Algeria in 2010 when Mohamed Bouazizi set himself on fire due to endemic poverty, unemployment and official harassment, has instigated bloody revolution that led to the fall of several hitherto strong regimes like President Zine Al-bidine Ben Ali of Tunisia, Hosni Mubarak in Egypt and Libyan strongman, Muammar Gadhafi, who was killed in the rage of the revolution. Since then, attention has been shifted from developmental agenda to how instability could be restored in the affected places. Expectedly but sadly too, scores of people have died while several others have been rendered homeless.

Particularly in to the Darfur, case, despite the signing of the Darfur Peace Agreement in May 2006, the government of Sudan, Janjaweed militia, and rebel groups continue to attack civilians with impunity. This has listed Darfur to be one of the largest human rights and humanitarian crises in the world. One of the dominant characteristics of this conflict has been the extensive use of rape of women and girls and other gender-based violence to intimidate and threaten the people and the international humanitarian community that is trying to assist them. Of course, the burdens as well as the scar of low self-esteem, psychological trauma, discrimination and stigmatization that these living rape victims in Darfur live with are too obvious to all of us to ignore or pretend to be ignorant of. Although the use of rape as an instrument and strategy of war is not new, but the Janjaweed raping spree on the Darfur women is a deliberate attempt not only to make them live with the associated psychological traumas but to contaminate their population.

There however have been several peace talks aimed at ending the crisis in Darfur since 2003. For instance, on May 5, 2006, at the behest of the African Union

(AU) and Nigerian government, the Abuja Agreements between the SLM and the Sudanese Government were signed in Nigeria. The JEM failure to sign the Abuja peace accord was on the excuse that the said agreement according to JEM did not meet its demands for a higher share of power in the Sudanese government. Nonetheless, the agreement called for the disarmament of the Janjaweed and the incorporation of the rebels in the army, an annual \$200-million investment in the region, compensation to IDPs and strong affirmative action in favour of the Darfuris to enhance inclusivity in public services (see Darfur Peace Agreement, signed on May 5, 2006, in Abuja, Nigeria, cited in Pamela, n.d: 6).

However, as rightly noted by Pamela,

Despite the agreement, attacks by the Janjaweed have not subsided and the local population continues to suffer from the brutal actions by both the Khartoum authorities and their Janjaweed militia. An AU peacekeeping force (AMIS- African Mission in Sudan) is in Darfur since 2004. Its main task is to protect IDPs from the Janjaweed. However, due to weaknesses “in command and control, logistical support and operational practice”, the peacekeeping force has been unable to eradicate violence in Darfur. The International Press denounced the continuation of bombing campaigns by the government. On September 2006, the BBC reported, “Khartoum has denied any bombing, calling it ‘lies designed to further the agenda of those who want to impose United Nations peacekeepers’”. Only on 12 June 2007, President al-Bashir finally agreed to the deployment of a 20,000-men hybrid UN-AU force in Darfur...

It is crystal clear the horrors that the Darfur people especially the IDPs have been exposed to notwithstanding the presence of AU/UN Hybrid force (UNAMIS).

Be that as it may, the question is what then can be done to end the carnage going on in the Darfur region of Sudan or must we leave them to their fates?

### **Recommendation and Concluding Remarks**

While it is the contention of this paper that all previous efforts of peace process to end Darfur crisis are commendable, it further argue that much needs to be done to halt the ruthless massacre taking place against the civilians especially the vulnerable groups, women and children. Therefore, three recommendations are discernible within the purview of this paper. First, the international community and all persons of conscience must firmly speak out against the killing, torture, rape and enslavement taking place in Darfur rather than the usual thunder of blandishments that have not resulted to any visible rains of action. In this respect, the UN, the EU and more profoundly, the AU should openly follow example of the U.S. on this matter by calling the carnage in Darfur genocide (if not holocaust) instead of the ‘crimes against humanity’ rhetoric. In fact if there is any issue in Africa that is putting moral burden on the UN especially the Security Council, it is Darfur crisis. China as a key player in Africa and particularly Sudan must courageously put aside its interest in Sudanese resources and work with other members of the Security Council to adopt a working strategy like stiff economic sanction against Bashir’s

regime to end the conflict in Darfur. This way, perhaps, government will reconsider its position on funding and arming the Janjaweed rebels

Secondly, if the rest of the world is living with moral burden, the AU and African leaders in particular are legally culpable for failing to end the crisis in Darfur. It is clear that the continental body has failed the African people in this regard because, the three fundamental reasons that the AU Constitutive Act impose responsibility on the AU or any member-state to intervene in 'internal affairs' of any member state are present in Darfur, Sudan. According to the AU legal framework, the body or any of its members can intervene with the approval of the Assembly in another member state when there is gross violation of the fundamental rights of citizens, established case of war crimes against humanity and genocide. Except we don't want to admit that what is happening in that region has not met any of the three stipulated conditions of intervention by the AU, the body and the leaders would be accused of conspiracy with the Sudanese government in fuelling the on-going humanitarian tragedies.

Thirdly, it is also the recommendation of this paper that all signatory states to the Rome Statute must in fulfilment of their statutory obligation fully comply and affect the ICC order of arrest placed on President Bashir of Sudan whenever he steps into their territory. This will yield desired result of further isolating the regime from among the rest of the civilized world and people. The recent failure of the Nigerian government to arrest President Bashir who attended HIV/AIDS conference in Abuja on the excuse that there is pendency of AU suit before the UN is regrettable especially with a country whose foreign policy right from inception has been afro-centric and always lay claim to having 'manifest destiny and leadership role' on the continent. Therefore, the paper argues that the action of the Federal Government of Nigeria is in contrast with the Latin maxims of *pacta sunt servanda* which means 'a party is a servant and must obey a treaty it voluntarily signed (and ratified)' as well as *clausula rebus sic stantibus* which implies that treaties are binding on signatory state 'so long as things stand as they are'. Signing the Rome Statute that established the ICC therefore imposed obligation on Nigerian state to comply with the ICC directive. Therefore, whatever excuse offered, it is the contention of this paper that there is a deliberate violation of international duties and obligations on the part of Nigerian government and other African Rome Statute signatory-states for failing to arrest President Omar al-Bashir and hand him over to face charges in The Hague.

Conclusively, the paper identifies that endemic wars and conflicts like that of Darfur in Sudan with which the continent is notorious of and the accompanied violation of human right and dignity further attenuate the developmental drive of the continent and responsible for the collective backwardness of its people in the 21<sup>st</sup> century globalized world.

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