

MODULE 2 DYNAMICS OF CONFLICT

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Unit 2	Language Barriers in Conflict and Resolution
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UNIT 1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEPTION AND CONFLICT

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, you will learn about the basic relationship between perception and conflict and how individual or group views and understand certain issues or how situations can promote cordial and proper relationship, harmony, love and peace or lead to discord, confrontation, mistrust, and even crisis that can lead to loss of lives and properties in the society.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- distinguish between perception and conflict
- discuss the perception characteristics framework
- describe the causes of conflict framework
- identify barriers to social perception and why managers study perception.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Relationship between Perception and Conflict

Basically, conflicts arise when individuals and people in communal and organisational settings perceive that others represent threats to the accomplishment of their goals regardless of whether these threats are real or imagined. In order to strategically approach this subject, we shall guide our discourses with two frameworks, namely 1) the perception characteristics framework, and 2) the causes of conflict framework.

3.1.1 Perception Characteristics Framework

Under this framework, we shall examine the relationship between the five characteristics of perception and conflict.

- i. **Perception and the Environment (People's actions, emotions, feelings and thought processes):** The way in which a person perceives the environment largely determines the way he/she will react to it. If an individual perceives that the environment is friendly, accommodating and appreciative of his/her personality he/she is less likely to be aggressive to the environmental actors. Conversely, where the perceiver concludes that the environment represent significant threats to him/her then he/she may resort to defence mechanisms that gain expression as aggressive behaviours, which are simply conflict-oriented behaviours.
- ii. **The perceptual process and meanings:** The relationship between perception and conflict also draw significantly from the degree of accuracy of the meanings obtained from an individual perceptual process. The framework of this process consists of receiving information (inputs) which is then selected/interpreted (organised) before the perceiver embarks on his actions/reactions (outputs). From this framework, it is evident that conflict can ensue if the perceiver does not receive complete inputs or is incapable of processing the received information correctly due to its huge volume. You will recall that stereotype is one factor that prevents a perceiver from acquiring detailed information about someone being perceived.
- iii. **Transition from Perception to Action:** The time lapse between perception and the perceiver's responses is another factor that links perception to conflict. When perceptions are built on stereotypes, such as the ethnic stereotypes that exist across Nigeria, the attendant actions are usually quick and not subject to deep consideration. This is one factor that is probably responsible

for the ethnic conflicts we frequently experience in Nigeria. But where there is sufficient time lapse to subject the information received by the perceiver to thorough scrutiny, it is less likely to result into an aggressive behaviour or conflict.

- iv. **Perception and Cognition:** The relationship between the information that a perceiver receives and the knowledge he acquires from processing it definitely has bearing on the manifestation of conflict. Basically, if the acquired knowledge is not thoroughly processed, the perceived group/individual will not be thoroughly understood, appreciated and treated with dignity. Under such circumstances, the perceived may react to his/her uncharitable treatment to precipitate crises. But the potentials for conflict can be drastically reduced if the perceived is carefully understudied and understood before appropriate reactions are targeted at him/her.
- v. **Perception and Needs Satisfaction:** Where the perceiver situates the perceived as a threat to the accomplishment / satisfaction of his/her needs, he is most likely to behave aggressively towards the perceived. On the other hand, where the perceiver does not envisage any iota of threats to attainment of his/her needs from the perceived, he/she will most surely behave responsibly towards the perceived.

3.1.2 Causes of Conflict Framework

Under this framework, the relationship between perception and conflict will be discussed using the following causes of conflict as guide.

- i. **Perception and Common Resources:** The relationship between perception, common resources and conflict appears to be one on the most direct to determine. This is particularly the case where the common resource is scarce or exhaustible by nature. Thus, when a certain group perceives that another group that is competing with it is likely to block its access to the resource in question the perceiver-group could become highly aggressive. In Nigeria, conflicts have occurred around such common resources as land, water, school and other infrastructural resources. In the mid-1980s the Umuleri-Aguleri conflict centred on a parcel of land bordering the two communities. There was also the Ekpan-Ubeji conflict that occurred around the ownership of the land on which the Nigeria National Petroleum Company Refinery is sited. The recurrent crises on the ownership of portions of Warri between the Urhobo and Itsekiris on the one hand, and between the Ijaws and Itsekiris on the other, were land resources-based

conflicts. You cannot also forget the Ife-Modakeke land-related conflict in a hurry. Outstanding conflicts in the middle-belt of Nigeria include the Tiv-Jukun conflict that occurred in Benue state; the indigene-settler conflict in Plateau state, not forgetting the Berom-Fulani pastoralist conflict over grazing lands. However, the armed youth resistance against the Federal Government over the exploitation of oil resources appears to be the most complicated conflict in Nigeria. A common feature of these conflicts is that they all seem to be informed by the wrong perception that one party is either obstructing the other's access to or enjoyment of the resources or deliberately having access to an unfair share of the resources in question. At the level of individuals, perceptions that another person constitutes threat to access to certain resources has also informed conflicts in Nigeria. Frequently, we read in the newspapers about how people struggle over the properties of a departed parent. Properties around which these individual conflicts occur include the immovable such as land, economic trees, buildings, and companies/business premises and movable such as cars, furniture, financial resources held as bank balances and investment in stocks/shares.

- ii. **Perception and Values:** Wrong perception of the values of other groups has also been a source of conflict in society and organisations in general. Conflicts at this level, are usually the most difficult to appreciate and settle. This is because the basis of any social group is the value to which they subscribe. These values are usually our system of beliefs that we are usually not ready to compromise no matter how "backward" they portray us to the outside world. When groups in negotiation talk about fairness, transparency, equality, honesty and commitment they are basically calling issues of values into existence. Conflicting parties usually stand up to defend their position with all their might when it concerns their values. Actions that are based on wrong perception of the values of any social group causes resistance by the wrongly perceived group. Similarly, individuals whose values are mis-perceived expectedly react aggressively. For example, if you perceive some as having an abrasive personality which he really does not have, any relationship with such a person based on this wrong diagnosis will be met with aggression.
- iii. **Perception and Psychological Needs:** To wrongly perceive the social psychological requirement of a group is a sure invitation to conflict. Many Nigerian societies still attach a lot of importance to large families that derive from one man having several wives and children. Individuals in certain societies still feel great about

the exploits about their past war heroes and ability to prepare potent charms. In some parts of Nigeria, a woman dare not open her mouth because where men are quarrelling; otherwise, she will be ridiculed. Also, women are celebrated for giving birth to a certain number of male children in parts of Nigeria. These are most psychological values that a perceiver may be criticising at the right of attracting aggressive behaviour to him/her. Perception is therefore a major determinant of conflict as we have clearly demonstrated.

3.3 Barriers To Perception

Barriers to Social Perception: In the course of studying this unit, you may have come across most of the barriers to social perception. These barriers will be treated in this sub-section. The barriers are as follows:.

- i. **Selective Perception:** This barrier derives from the perceiver's attempt to filter the huge amount of information that he/she receives to support his/her viewpoint. In doing this, the perceiver tend to leave out those pieces of information that are capable of threatening or bringing discomfort to them in one way or the other. Nelson and Quick (*ibid*: 87-88) illustrates this factor using the analogy of an employee who does not complete his monthly sales report promptly. But because this employee consistently brings in the highest number of new sales contracts his manager always gives him/her positive performance evaluation reports. Indicatively, the manager is applying selective perception leading him to overlook the negative information being generated from the employee's constant failure to complete his/her sales report promptly.
- ii. **Stereotyping:** This "is a generalisation about a group of people" (Nelson and Quick, *op cit*). Furthermore, these authors explain that working with stereotypes helps perceivers to decrease the "information about a people to a workable level, and they are efficient for compiling and using information." Sometimes stereotypes could become genuine perceptual frameworks when they turn out to be accurate. But, when stereotypes do not portray the correct picture, which is mostly the case, they harm the perceived. Attractiveness is also a stereotype to the extent that it projects the perceived as sensitive, warm, sociable and outgoing
- iii. **First Impression Error:** Forming long-lasting impression about the perceived "based on initial perception" is what this concept describes. One of the reasons for which we tend to maintain first impressions is because they tend to be easily kept in mind. The

fundamental error in first impression arises from observation of a little part of the perceived and generalising as a true characterisation of the perceived.

- iv. **Implicit Personality Theories:** This explains the usually inaccurate “mini-theories” that we harbour in our minds for determining the appearances and behaviours of the perceived. These theories basically help us structure our thoughts and map out short cuts to our perceptions. In other words, perceivers tend to “group traits and appearances into clusters that seem to go together” (Nelson and Quick, *op cit*). You should note that personality theories constitute barriers to admitting new information even when available.
- v. **Self-fulfilling Prophecies:** This category of barriers addresses how our expectations affect our interaction with people and the accomplishment of that which we desire. Nelson and Quick (*op cit*) illustrate that “self-fulfilling prophecy is also known as the pygmalion effect, named for the sculptor in Greek mythology who carved a statue of a woman that came to life when he prayed for his wish and it was granted.”

3.4 Managers And Perception

The management process is indeed complex. What makes it complex derives from the fact that it requires that judgement be made about the actions of people at work. Thus, whether managers are aware or not they are involve in the perceptual process on a daily basis. This is because whether as a manager you are undertaking a performance appraisal, conducting an employment or promotion interview, settling disputes between two employees that are equals or having a senior-junior relationship, handling an employees’ case of dwindling performance, an inter-departmental conflict, cases of perpetual lateness to work, rudeness or that of an excellent employee who feels too superior to relate appropriately with other staff members you inadvertently need to deal with the perception of people. In other words, the management process places you in a situation whereby you need to make decisions about the motives, values and actions of people within your organisation.

Therefore the manager ought to be able to distinguish between the ideal and the real world. The manager needs to be aware of the fact that just as he reacts to his perception of his employees, the employees in turn react to him perceptively. Thus, it is irrelevant whether the employees find their roles in the organisation sufficiently motivating or whether the manager’s roles is truly supportive to the process of employee’s task management. What are most important are the inter-personal perceptions

that occur between the manager and employees. But more importantly, the perception of the manager's actions by employees should interest the manager the most. According to Rao and Narayana (1998: 331) "a manager can improve his perceptual accuracy if he becomes aware of how perceptions are formed and distorted." But majority of managers appear to have been arriving at employee-related decisions through observations and trials and error approaches. These authors listed the following examples of some of the assumptions that guide manager's dealings with their employees:

- the notion that people are basically lazy and should be controlled
- the notion that organisations are basically successful because they are large
- the notion that leaders that have mastered the art of speaking are logically good leaders
- the notion that organisations that are insensitive to their employees are usually the large ones.
- the notion that people tend to be generally emotional
- the notion that a productive employee always turns out to be a satisfied worker.

However, a critical assessment of those statements reveal they are not axiomatic or always correct. In as much as managers may work with these kinds of perceptions, they are, nevertheless, encouraged to strive for perpetual precision or accuracy. Lawler and Rhode (in Rao and Narayana, *op cit*: 331) posit that:

Experiencing the environment is an active process in which people try to make sense out of their environment. In this active process, individuals selectively notice different aspects of the environment, appraise what they see in terms of their own experience, and evaluate what they experience in terms of their needs and values. Since people's needs and past experience often suffer markedly, so do their perceptions of the environment.

From the foregoing, it is apparent that a manager's knowledge of the perceptual process is the most profound step towards achieving effectiveness as head of his department or unit or organisation.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

With your understanding of concept in this unit, describe the relationship between perception and conflict.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Having discussed extensively in this unit the relationships between perception and conflict, you can now see or observe that perceptions can metamorphosis into the processes of conflict or vice-versa, that is, conflict can also influence perception in society.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have been led to make further distinctions between perception and conflict. To achieve this aim, your attention was drawn to two frameworks: the perception characteristics and the causes of conflict. Furthermore, we concluded with a consideration of the reasons for which the study of perception is important to managers.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. What are the similarities and differences between the concepts of perception and conflict?
- ii. Describe the essential features of the perception and the causes of conflict characteristics frameworks for distinguishing between perception and conflict.
- iii. Distinguish between perception and conflict using the barriers to perception as a guide.
- iv. What are the benefits of the study of perception to managers in organisations?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 LANGUAGE BARRIERS IN CONFLICT AND RESOLUTION

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Although it takes little physical effort to say something to someone, it also takes mental effort to ensure that what is said conveys ones intended meaning. Even if you create what you think is the perfect message, the possibility always exists that the receiver of that message will misinterpret the message or find it ambiguous. Therefore, the receiver must also make an effort to receive the intended message.

Misunderstanding and barrier occur for numerous physical, mental and cultural reasons. Ineffective use of language and communication are chiefly some of this reasons.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain language based barriers to communication
- discuss effective use of language in communication.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Language–Based Barriers to Communication

There are over 450 different languages in use everyday in Nigeria. The number includes dialects spoken in various regions of the country. We must recognise that communication is a symbolic interaction rich in subtlety. It will never be strictly concrete or objective and always carry the potential for misunderstanding and conflict. Misunderstandings occur for numerous physical, mental and cultural reasons. Ineffective use of language is one reason. Among the most common language based barriers to communication are bypassing, indiscrimination and polarisation.

3.1.1 Meaning Can Be Misunderstood

What is said and what is heard and understood by the listener often differ. Such misunderstanding between a sender and a receiver is called bypassing. How many times have you said to someone “But that is not what I meant?”

Bypassing usually results from the false belief that each word has only one meaning and that words have meaning in themselves; but a glimpse at our everyday language quickly illustrates that most words have multiple uses and meanings. Words acquire many meanings because they change over time and are used and understood differently in various cultures and regions and often they reflect the knowledge and situation of the user. Therefore, it is crucial as communicator and peace professionals to stay alert to the fact that words can be interpreted differently by different people.

Some speakers deliberately introduce bypassing by using euphemisms or double speak to soften or distort meanings. It is important to be aware of this while you interact with people. Politicians and advertisers for instance sometimes will say one thing in order to get people to believe or accept something else. As a listener, you should critically examine what is being said. Both speaking and listening and conflict situation involve ethical considerations. Issues of conscience, that is what is right or wrong and what is beneficial or harmful are everyone’s responsibility.

How to Reduce Bypassing

- a. **Be Approachable.** Encourage open and free communication. The most frequent barrier to effective communication; and consequently dispute and conflict is the unwillingness to listen to others. Allow others to question and paraphrase your messages

and show respect for their enquiries; Being patient and receptive is not always easy but the effort will ensure a clear exchange of information

- b. **Be Person-Minded, not Word-Minded.** Think about words and their meanings, but you should also consider the persons using the words and the meanings they might give to them. Constantly question your own interpretation by asking such question as: “This is what the word mean to me, but what does it mean to others?”
- c. **Query and Paraphrase.** Ask questions and paraphrase your message or the meaning you have derived from others message whenever there is a possibility for misunderstanding. Differences in background, age, gender, perception may affect communication. If you are uncertain, ask others to explain and if it is in a peace workshop you may ask the mediator to paraphrase. Restating a message in your own words gives you and the other party or the sender a chance to check that you receive a similar message to what was sent. As the importance and complexity of a message in conflict resolution situation is, so is the need to ask questions and paraphrase.
- d. **Be Sensitive to Contexts.** Consider the verbal and situational contexts in which communication occurs. The meaning of a word can be more precisely interpreted by considering the words, sentences and paragraphs that precede and follow it and the setting in which communication takes place.

3.1.2 Language Can Shape Our Attitudes

Indiscrimination is the neglect of individual differences and the overemphasis of similarities. It is also a form of perceptual set in which a person chooses to ignore differences and changes in events, things and people. Language plays a significant role in our tendency to see similarities between things even when they do not exist. Nouns that categorise that is teenager, divorce, student, professor, facilitator, northerner, Niger Delta, government official, politician and so on, encourage us to focus on similarities. Statements such as “politicians are crooks and students cheat in exam” may be interpreted to include all politicians and all students, instead of some politicians and some students. They fail to distinguish between individuals. Such generalisation often results in stereotyping.

Stereotype is categorising events objects and people without regard to unique individual characteristics. Stereotypes are often negative but

they may be positive, for example, all teachers are dedicated professionals or all mediators are dedicated peace professionals or all environmentalists are concerned citizens. Whether the stereotyping is negative or positive, the problem is the same. Individual qualities are ignored. Stereotyping is quick and easy to do because it does not require analysis, investigation, or thought. By precluding distinctions, stereotypes give us neat, oversimplified categories that facilitate our evaluation of people, situations and events.

There are ways to reduce discrimination in our interaction. Indexing points out differences that distinguish various members of a group and thus reduces indiscrimination. Indexing identifies the specific person, idea, event or object to which a statement refers for instance, politicians are corrupt, athletes are dumb or any statement that lumps people ideas, events, or objects into a single category immediately ask, “which ones are you talking about?” No matter what people may think, not all politicians are corrupt. Politician A is different from politician B, and politician B is different from politician C. The same is true of athletes. They might belong to a class or group that has an identity and whose members have similarities, but the group is composed of individuals, each different from the other.

3.1.3 Language Can Cause Polarisation

Polarisation is the tendency to view things in terms of extremes – rich or poor, beautiful or ugly, large or small, high or low, good or bad, intelligent or stupid; though some things exist somewhere in between. This definitive way of thinking is aggravated by aspects of language.

Polarisation can be destructive, escalating conflict to the point at which two parties simply cannot communicate. This escalation is referred to as the pendulum effect in peace studies. The pendulum represents a person’s perception of reality, which includes feelings attitude, opinions and value judgements about the world. When the pendulum is hanging in the centre, a person’s perception is considered to be realistic, virtuous, intelligent, sane, honest and honourable. Of course, most of us believe that our pendulums are at or near the centre most of the time. When two individuals disagree in their perception of reality, their pendulum begins to move in opposite directions. The distance the pendulum swings represents their differences in opinion or conviction. As the conversation intensifies, each remark provokes a stronger reaction from the party to whom it is directed until both parties are driven to positions at opposite extremes. For instance, when two roommates argue over whose turn it is to clean, one might begin by saying “it is your turn. I did it the last time.” The other is likely to respond: “No I did it the last time. Now its your turn.” If the disagreement continues and no solution is found, both will become more entrenched in their positions and their comments may

turn into personal attacks. The situation can degenerate to the point at which one of the other threatens to move out. Such an extreme outcome is typical of discussion driven by the pendulum effect. Emotions can eventually run so high that the differences between the parties seem insurmountable and a mutually agreeable settlement seems unattainable.

Speaker can avoid the danger of polarisation by recognising the potential for misunderstanding and by making statement that do not represent nuanced extreme

3.1.4 Language can be Sexist

There is a difference in how men and women may use language and converse with one another. Some communication and language theorists believe that men tend to use language to assert status whereas women use language to establish and maintain social relationships. They also believe that men use language to dominate or compete. The result, according to them is that the game of communication for men and women is the same but the rules are different. When men and women communicate with each other, there is the potential for class and conflict because of different language use. The problem is magnified when sexist language is used either consciously or unconsciously. Our goal should be to use gender- inclusive language. Language that does not discriminate against male or female.

Unfortunately, English language is structured with an inherent bias in favour of men. There are, for example, no singular gender – neutral pronouns in the English language. Therefore, traditionally, the masculine pronouns (he, him, and his) have been used to refer to people in general, even if the referent could be a male or female. User of the masculine pronoun is not incorrect grammatically, but its use in generic situations is a social issue. Language sets expectations that at times discriminate against the stereotype use of he and him and the general absence of she or her subtly, but powerfully give the impression that men hold important roles but women do not. Thus, our language creates the expectation that the female gender is inactive and does not hold important roles. Furthermore, sexist language can be misleading, we use only he or she when describing the symptoms, the effect ,the reasons, and the treatment; thus, the group that was not included in the discussion might believe that it is a “male disease” or a “female disease” and does not pertain to them. If that happens, half or more of the audience will not pay attention to the speech and this might not heed the precautions and expose them to greater danger.

Sexual stereotypes and the assumption that the male gender is superior to the female gender characterise sexist language. In most society, sexist language involves attitude as much as the use of specific words. Words with a positive connotation are used to describe males for example, independent, logical, strong, confident, aggressive. Females on the other hand, are associated with words having negative connotations for example dependent, illogical, weak. For instance, a sentence like this could be termed a sexist communication. “She is the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the company and she is a woman.” or “Chizoba got that position because she is a woman.” These sentences describe women who have risen to high authority positions or that the only reason Chizoba got the position was because she is a woman. In other words, they imply that women are less qualified or inferior to men.

Stereotypes do not occur in a social vacuum. On the contrary, they often exert powerful influence on the lives of those who are stereotyped. Gender stereotypes influence perceptions and behaviour of both men and women. Stereotypes of women affect both how they are treated in society and how they see themselves. Language and substituting gender – inclusive terms represent a positive step toward doing away with them.

Other stereotypes are reinforced in the use of homophobic language. When someone asks another to “tell me what to look for so I can recognise gays and lesbians and then avoid them.” The speaker is demonstrating both insensitivity to individuals and a general negative categorisation of a group of people, each of whom is unique.

Metaphors used in our culture to describe men and women are often sexist. A metaphor is a figure of speech that associated two things or ideas, not commonly linked, as a means of description. These stereotypical animal metaphors illustrate the use of sexist language. Men are likely to be described as aggressive wolf, and women as harmless pets that is, kitten or chick or as unattractive animals that is, cow, pig, dog. The effective communicator must avoid such negative metaphorical stereotyping. Find more positive metaphors related to men, and use inclusive language in general.

It is important that the language we use as peace students be inclusive and not demeaning to any group of individuals. Language influences how we see others around us. Inappropriate language causes perceptual and social problems that should not be tolerated in any society.

3.2 How to Use Language Effectively

The ability to use language efficiently and effectively as peace students will require not good education alone but, years of consistent practice.

Although many variables will influence the effectiveness of language use, five aspects of language according to Seiler (2005) merit special attention. They are accuracy, vividness, immediacy, appropriateness and metaphor.

3.2.1 Use Accurate Language

Using accurate language is critical to speaking. Choosing a wrong word can distant your intended message, misguide your receiver, and undermine your credibility. When you speak you need to ensure that your goal should be precision. Do not leave room for misinterpretation. You should constantly ask yourself “what do I want to say” and “what do I mean? And when necessary, consult a dictionary to be sure you have chosen the correct word to express your message.

The more words you can use accurately, the more likely it is that you will find the one you need to make your meaning clear. You must expand your vocabulary. Two of the best ways to do this are through listening to others and reading. Pay attention to words that you do not understand. Whenever, you come across an unfamiliar word, determine the context in which it is used, and consult a dictionary to find its meaning. Once you have acquired a new word, try to put it to use. Words that are not used are typically forgotten. Expanding your vocabulary takes effort and time, but with practice, it can become part of your daily routine.

A word of warning: As you develop your vocabulary, avoid the temptation to use long or little-known words when short or common words would serve the purpose. Also be sure you know the shades of meanings and connotations of new words.

Before you use them, remember that words may have different meanings for different people.

Sometimes a message is unclear because it is not structured effectively. Poor sentence and word usage can wreak havoc on a statement’s clarity.

3.2.2 Use Vivid Language

To communicate effectively, make your message animated and interesting. Direct fresh language given in the active voice can bring a sense of excitement, urgency and forcefulness to what you say. Such vividness tells your audience that they had better listen because what you have to say is important.

For example, suppose an NGO is trying to raise money for homeless Bakassi people, it could take one of two approaches in seeking a donation from you: (i) present statistics to illustrate the number of people who are believed to be homeless; and (2) present cases of actual individuals who are homeless, including children and their families.

The first approach is rational, informative, abstract, and emotionally distance. The second approach is emotional, urgent, concrete and forceful. The vividness of the second approach is likely at least to get your attention and perhaps influence you to contribute.

According to social psychologists, vivid language affects us in several ways. It is more persuasive than a flat, pallid presentation of information, because it is more memorable and has an emotional impact. Vivid messages are more likely to create readily retained and recalled mental images. People tend to listen more attentively to vivid messages than to mainspring or uninteresting messages.

3.2.3 Use of Immediate Language

Verbal immediacy identifies and projects the speakers feelings and makes the message more relevant to the listener. Verbal immediacy draws listeners in and involves them in the subject at hand. The following statements illustrate different levels of verbal immediacy. The first sentence displays a high immediacy level and the last displays a low immediacy level:

- We certainly will enjoy the football game.
- You and I will enjoy the football game.
- I think you and I may enjoy football.
- People often enjoy football games.

The first statement is directly related to the speaker, the listener, and the situation. It is assertive, and the speaker makes a connection with the listener by using the word 'we'. In each successive statement, the speaker decreases the intensity of this association with the listener and the event. The language becomes less immediate, more distant in tone.

Verbal immediacy also makes the speaker appear relaxed, confidence, competent and effective. Also receivers tend to view messages characterised by immediacy as similar to their own beliefs more readily than those cast in language related to the speaker, topic, or receiver.

3.2.4 Use Appropriate Language

Each time you speak, your listeners have specific expectations about the kind of language you will use. Different kinds of language are appropriate to different situations. For instance, the language you would use in addressing the student union president or leader in your school would be much more formal than the language you would use when chatting with friends. You are not likely to call the president by a nickname and would be equally unlikely to call a friend Dr or Mr. or Mrs. or Ms, except in jest.

Using language that is inappropriate for a given situation damages your credibility and your message might be misunderstood or misinterpreted or disregarded. It is therefore crucial to assess each speaking situation and adjust your language accordingly.

3.2.5 Use Metaphorical Language

According to some language scholars, our way of looking at the world around us is fundamentally metaphorical. Metaphors help us to structure what we think, how we perceived things, and what we do. Metaphorical language pervades our everyday language and our thoughts. A metaphor is a figure of speech in which a word or phrase relates one object or idea to another that is not commonly linked to it. A successful use of this figurative expression makes an object or idea more clear and vivid.

Metaphorically language is culture bound, and most metaphors have meanings only within a specific language community. If your receivers cannot identify with a particular metaphor you use, it will be meaningless to them.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Learning to use language is important for effective communication in any situation. The ability to use language determines our success, makes communication personal, and allows us to translate our thoughts, feelings, and experiences into meaningful message to our listener.

The misuse of language is more than simply a matter of misusing words. It also affects our ability to think. Since thoughts and language are inseparable when we cannot find the words to express a thought, perhaps our thinking is not clear. If our thoughts are not expressed clearly and accurately, misunderstanding is inevitable.

5.0 SUMMARY

The goal of communication is to exchange meaning and understanding in any conflict resolution situation. If language did not convey meaning, it would serve little or no purpose. We tend to associate specific words with specific meanings and to take that relationship for granted, but in reality, words have been arbitrarily paired with meaning. Words are not actual objects or ideas but symbols that represent objects or ideas. Meanings therefore are not in words but in people. As such, language can obscure, distance, or hide meaning and create barriers. The competent communicator must therefore ensure that he finds ways to understand and be understood.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Which of the language barriers discussed in this unit is most likely to occur in your interactions?
- ii. How can language be used or misused.

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UNIT 3 EARLY WARNING AND EARLY RESPONSE MECHANISM

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Meaning of Early Warning (EW)
 - 3.2 The Meaning of Early Response (ER)
 - 3.3 Types of Early Warning
 - 3.4 Early Warning Indicators
 - 3.5 Types of Indicators
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The concept early warning has multiple definitions which have created confusion around it such that it means different things to different people in various disciplines. It is so because the concept is applicable in different fields of human endeavours such as: peace and conflict studies, medicine, engineering , education, natural and man-made disasters, environmental management, as well as economics, religious, political, family and social institutions and organisations. It basically tries to get persons, citizens, vulnerable groups or victims, states, national, regional and international organisations prepared for emergencies, conflict or crisis, and disasters, and so on. It anticipates and designs measures that will facilitate early identification of threats to lives, properties and the environment so that preventive actions or steps could be taken on time. It is also very important not to look at warning and response as separate actions but as two sides of a coin. Early response should be seen as the goal, while early warning is a tool required to achieve the desired goal. Therefore, the value of early warning lies in the response capacity.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define early warning and early response
- identify the relationships and interdependence between early warning and early response
- list types of early warning

- explain early warning indicators.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Meaning of Early Warning

The concept of early warning will be viewed from multi-dimensional perspectives as thus:

A warning at an early stage of an event or a set of circumstances that will have negative consequence (Gounden, V. 1996, pp 53 – 69).

Early warning (EW) can also be defined as the collection, analysis and communication of the relevant evidence and conclusions to the policy-makers to enable them make choices. Early warning is the systematic collection and analysis of information coming from areas of crisis for the purpose of: (a) anticipating the escalation of violent conflict; (b) the development of strategic responses to these crises; and (c) the presentation of options to critical actors for purposes of decision-making and preventive action. It involves any initiative that focuses on systematic data collection, analysis and/or formulation of recommendations, including risk assessment and information sharing.

Early warning is a complex system of indicators to predict the probability that a crisis is likely to happen so that preventive action can be taken on time. In sum, its task is (1) to collect and share information on possible or impending humanitarian disasters or conflicts in other states; and (2) to sound an alarm. Early warning is a complex set of indicators, which could be used to predict, with some degree of probability, the type, turning and extent of disaster or conflict.

Early warning is also seen as a proactive process in which networks of various institutions undertake systematic information collection and analysis together in a collective effort to generate information to help prevent likely disaster or unfavourable events from occurring or to reduce their outcomes.

In addition, early warning system helps to provide the knowledge to identify impending risks, determine their levels and potential impacts, both in terms of people and locations, and guide actions to avoid, reduce or mitigate the effects of those risks when they occur.

3.1.2 Importance or Benefits of Early Warning

- It is a crisis and disaster protection mechanism
- It promotes public-private partnership

- It introduces and supports services at the local level that directly enhance development
- It promotes increased development and application of scientific knowledge, including improved science and technology information dissemination
- It advances community participation for its own sake
- It creates the potential for increased utilisation of indigenous knowledge and values
- Effective early warning promotes improved environmental management and sustainable livelihood that are harmonious with the environment
- It reveals the causes of conflict
- It gives room or enables us to monitor the development process of potentially violent conflict continuously.

Security of vulnerable populations and endangered environments, therefore, the purpose of early warning therefore is not to confidentially inform the concerned authority that a problem is developing, but to create a national, regional and international will and momentum to do something about the deteriorating situation. This implies that early warning should not only point to the problem but also suggest action. Early warning can be concerned with military conflicts, military coups, environmental, resources, political, economic, religious, family, conflicts, impending humanitarian disasters, such as famine/starvation, drought, flow of refugees, genocide and host of others.

It thus therefore become imperative for the government, agencies, organisations, or policy makers to show a disposition of one ready to act fast whenever such privileged information and patriotic campaigns by stakeholders of an impending early warning indicators in order to avert any form of disaster or destructive conflict.

3.2 The Meaning of Early Response (ER)

Early response refers to any initiative that occurs in the latent stages of a perceived potential armed conflict, man-made or natural disaster with the aim of reduction, resolution or transformation. It refers to the process of consultation, policy making, planning, and action to reduce or avoid armed conflict, or to guide against, reduce or mitigate the effects of natural or man-made disasters on people or the environment.

According to the United Nations General Assembly definition early response is the process of using information gathered from early warning systems to design action aimed at preventing violent conflict. This action could be the development of a policy or programmes. It

involves the developing of strategies to prevent conflict at different levels using specific entry points.

It is therefore become imperative for the government or policy makers and each and every concerned citizens (direct and indirect) to show a disposition of being ready to act fast whenever such privileged information and patriotic campaigns by stakeholders of an impending early warning indicators in order to avert any form of disaster or destructive conflict.

Also, for early warnings to be effective, there must be new, short and more focused delivery of the principal conclusions to decision makers, governments, intergovernmental bodies, the media, NGOs and the general public. This cannot be an afterthought, but must be given sustained attention by the responsible organisations, assisted by communication specialists.

3.3 Types of Early Warning

There are different types or aspects of early warning as earlier mentioned in the introduction section of this unit. Only few will be briefly discussed or explained in this unit as they will be discussed extensively one after the other later. They are as follows.

- (a) **Conflict early warning:** This is the type of early warning information or system aimed at preventing an impending conflict that could take any form if not quickly prevented.
- (b) **Disaster early warning:** This is geared towards preventing or minimising an impending natural disaster that is inevitable or cannot be prevented such as earthquake, hurricane, tsunami, climate change, and so on.
- (c) **Hazards assessment:** It has to do with collection, analysis, and communication of evidence discovered at the scene of an accident or calamity with the aim of advising the necessary or concerned authority on the rapid and effective steps to be taken to alleviate the suffering or the impact on the victims.

3.4 Early Warning Indicators

The dictionary definition refers to indicators as those things which are pointers to a given condition. They may also be referred to as devices for exhibiting condition for the being time. The synonyms of indicator include among others, display, index, gauge, synopsis, symbol, and so

on. (Chambers Dictionary, 1983:640; and The Collins Dictionary and Thesaurus 1988:511).

Among the things the analyst would cite to be indicators of conflict in Africa are armed forces and their deployment; the extent of tension within and between communities and groups, the absence of framework for resolving the conflict and/or where its existence is not recognised or respected by the parties in conflict etc.

3.5 Types of Indicators

The following are the various forms of early warning indicators.

1. **Economic indicators:** It reveals the need to provide information on potential shortages, production problems, the bastardisation of a nation's currency, fiscal and revenue policies, the private sector and other economic indices, the consequences of which may affect a larger proportion of the population of a nation.
2. **Environmental indicators:** This is a sensitive issue because of the health hazards and pillage of arable land in addition to ecological and marine problems such as gully erosions, environmental pollution (oil spillage), and excavation of solid mineral, and so on. All these have brought some untold health hazards to the indigenes, while those whose primary occupations are crops production (planting), animal rearing and fish farming have been greatly affected.
3. **Social indicators:** This provides data on the alarming state of unemployment and underemployment in several African countries. "A hungry man and an idle hand, is a devil's workshop," so goes the maxim. Jobless youths in the society have posed a great threat to the country and peace in most societies. The jobless youth could be used to perpetrate some social vices by the disgruntled elements in the society.
4. **Political indicator:** A regular assessment of the domestic political arena in various African countries have revealed a lot of infringement on fundamental human rights of citizens by the ruling political class ranging from political exclusion, unlawful arrest and detention of perceived political enemies, killing of political rivals, election rigging and a host of others.
5. **Security indicators:** The capacity of gathering information on development within the armed forces, the proliferation of arms and ammunition into official and non-official sectors of the

society, the politicisation of the military and the militarisation of the civilian popular (ethnic militias), the relationship between the military and the civil society.

6. **Individual security/safety:** An assessment of the role of crime, urban and rural violence, the causes of insurrection and the militarisation of the rural areas. The incessant killing, maiming of innocent citizens by armed robbers, ritual killing, unnecessary killing of innocent citizens by policemen at road blocks/checkpoints in the course of trying to collect bribe. All these have engendered hatred, frustration, intimidation, molestation and protest from aggrieved citizens, thereby taking laws into their hands because of the inability of the state to protect and guarantee their safety and protection.
7. **Rural indicators:** Effective information gathering at the grassroots level helps to douse inter and intra communal strife. The morass of conflict at border towns, villages, and in one country and the other, demands that a constant watch must be kept on the rural areas using media channels to maintain tranquility and peace.
8. **Educational indicators:** A continuous decline in the quality of education despite increase in the standard is posing a great threat to the growth and development of our nation (Nigeria) and several other African countries. As has been established, education is the bedrock or backbone of science and technological advancement of any nation. And the higher the level of technology of a nation the greater and faster is her human (labour) and economic growth and development. Poor educational funding and low salary compared to what is obtainable in other African countries, talkless of western nations, have forced most Nigerian academics to the western nations in search of greener pastures. This ugly development still persists to the detriment of the present younger generation as well the future generations.
9. **Demographic indicators:** This involves sudden demographic changes and displacement of people and increasing territoriality of groups/peoples.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The purpose of early warning is not only to have access to information about the deteriorating situation but to do something about it. This implies that early warning should not only point to the problems but also

suggest actions to tackle the deleterious effects or to guide against any form of dangerous or disastrous consequence.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, the meaning of early warning and early response were discussed coupled with the relationships and interdependence between early warning and early response. Different types of early warnings were briefly explained while various forms of early warning indicators were also discussed for students consumption.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. What do you understand by the concepts of early warning and early response?
- ii. Is there any relationship between early warning and early response? Discuss.
- iii. State the importance of early warning and early response to the society.

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UNIT 4 ARMS CONTROL AND DEMILITARISATION

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Definition of Small Arms/ Light Weapons
 - 3.1.1 Types of Small Arms and Light Weapons
 - 3.2 Characteristics of Small Arms and Light Weapons
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The end of the Cold War and the collapse of the former Soviet Union brought about easy access to highly lethal weaponry ranging from assault rifles to rocket launchers, facilitated by the opening of borders and the rapid expansion of free trade. Such weapons are increasingly falling into wrong hands and all categories of fighters, including children who eventually turn them against those whom humanitarian law is designed to protect.

Research findings have revealed that death toll from small arms and light weapons exceed the toll of the atomic bombs that devastated Hiroshima and Nagasaki during the Second World War. Small arms can now be referred to as “weapons of mass destruction” because of carnage they cause in the “trouble spots” all over the world.

One of the major efforts to preserve international peace and security in the 21st century has been to control or limit the number of weapons and ways in which weapons can be used.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define small arms and mention types of small arms known
- define arms proliferation and state sources of arms proliferation
- discuss arms control and different types of arms control mechanisms
- highlight the importance of arms control
- explain some demilitarisation processes.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition of Small Arms/Light Weapons

There are various definitions of what constitute small arms and light weapons, but we will only give one here.

Small Arms: These are weapons or instruments that can easily be operated by an individual meant to cause harm.

Light Weapons: Are weapons (with anticipated lethal effect) that are operated with a combined support of a crew of two or three.

3.1.1 Types of Small Arms/Light Weapons

Small arms and light weapons conveniently fall into the categories below.

a. Types of Small Arms

- Revolvers and self-loading pistols
- Rifles and carbines
- Sub-machine gun
- Assault rifles
- Light machine guns

b. Categories of Light Weapons

- Heavy machine-guns
- Hand-held under-barrel and mounted grenade launchers
- Portable anti-aircraft guns
- Portable launchers of anti-tank missile and rocket systems
- Portable anti-tank guns and recoilless rifles

- Portable launchers of anti-aircraft missile system
- Mortars of calibers of less than 100mm

c. Ammunition and Explosives

- Cartridges (rounds) for small arms
- Shells and missiles for light weapons
- Anti-personnel and anti-tank grenades
- Landmines
- Mobile containers with missile of shells for single action and anti-tank systems
- Explosives

3.2 Characteristic of Small Arms and Light Weapons

- Simplicity and durability:** Compared to major weapons systems which requires regular upkeep and maintenance due to their complicated electronics, vionics and propulsion subsystems, small arms and light weapons have few movable parts, are extremely durable and require little upkeep or logistical support.
- Portability and concealebility:** Individuals or light vehicles can carry small arms and light weapons; they can easily be transported or smuggled into areas of conflict; and they can be concealed in shipments of legitimate cargo.
- Military/police and civilian uses:** Small arms and light weapons often have legitimate uses for both military and police force. They may also be held legally or otherwise by individuals who are afraid of their own personal security. However, in the case of major conventional wepons, only the military force generally procures them.
- Low cost and wide availability:** These weapons are usually supplied in large quantity or abundantly for military, police, and civilian use.
- Lethality:** The increase in sophistication of rapid-fire assault rifles, pistols and machine guns, and their widespread circulation among sub-state groups and civilians promotes or encourages availaibility of firepower that matches or exceeds that of national police or even the military of a state or country.

3.3 Arms Race

An arms race is a situation in which two countries or group of countries are continually trying to get more and better weapons than each other. It is the continuing competitive attempt by two or more nations to have available to it more and more powerful weapons than other(s).

It refers to competition between nations to have the most powerful armaments.

It is a race between hostile nations to accumulate or develop weapons; broadly: an ever escalating race or competition. Examples: Nuclear, chemical, biological weapons and several other forms of weapons.

3.4 Arms Proliferation

This refers to the easy availability or influx of illicit small arms and light weapons into wrong hands or unauthorised groups of people for use against the individuals or groups meant to be protected. It is a rapid increase or growth in number of deadly weapons.

3.4.1 Causes of Arms Proliferation

- Undemocratic governance
- Undemocratic electoral process
- Weak economic base of most countries engulfed with crisis
- Uneven distribution of basic infrastructure
- Military coups
- Ethnicity
- Weak stockpile and management of national arms and armunitions
- Post-colonial or Cold War remnants
- Movement of refugees/dominant of refugees camps by armed groups
- Failed state

3.4.2 Effects of Arms Proliferation

- Arms proliferation sustains and exacerbates arm conflicts
- It endangers peacekeepers and humanitarian workers
- It undermines respect for international humanitarian law
- It threatens legitimate but weak government
- It benefits terrorists as well as the perpetrators of organised crime
- It endangers the lives of defenceless individuals or citizens
- It threatens unity and peaceful co-existence of plural states

3.5 Arms Control

Arms control is an umbrella term for restrictions upon the development, production, stockpiling, proliferation, and usage of weapons especially weapons of mass destruction. Arms control is typically exercised through the use of diplomacy which seeks to impose such limitations upon consenting participants through international treaties and agreements, although it may also comprise efforts by a nation or group of nations to enforce limitations upon a non-consenting country.

On a national or community level, arms control can amount to programs to control the access of private citizens to weapons. This is often referred to as gun politics, as firearms are the primary focus of such efforts in most places

3.5.1 Aims of Arms Control

- i. Arms control is meant to break the security dilemma.
- ii. It aims at mutual security between partners and overall stability (be it in a crisis situation, a grand-strategy, or stability to put an end to an arms race).
- iii. Other than stability, arms control comes with cost reduction and damage limitation.

3.6 History of Arms Control

Arms control developed both in theory and in practice during the Cold War, a period between the late 1940s and 1991 when the two military superpowers, the United States and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), dealt with one another from a position of mutual mistrust. Arms control was devised consciously during the postwar period as an alternative to disarmament, which for many had fallen into discredit as a means of reducing the likelihood of war. Germany had been forced to disarm following World War I but became belligerent again during the 1930s, resulting in World War II. Although Germany's weapons had been largely eliminated, the underlying causes of conflict had not. Germany's experience thus illustrated that no simple cause-and-effect relationship existed between the possession of weapons and a tendency to create war.

Following World War II, advocates of arms control as a new approach to limiting hostility between nations emphasised that military weapons and power would continue to remain a part of modern life. It was unrealistic and even dangerous, they felt, for a country to seek complete elimination of weapons, and it would not necessarily reduce the likelihood of war. Whereas disarmament had formerly been seen as an alternative to military strength, arms control was now viewed as an

integral part of it. Arms control proponents sought to create a stable balance of power in which the forces that cause states to go to war could be controlled and regulated. The emphasis in arms control is thus upon *overall stability* rather than *elimination* of arms, and proponents recognise that an increase in weaponry is sometimes required to preserve a balance of power.

The development of arms control owes a great deal to the existence of Nuclear Weapons as well. By the 1950s, when both the United States and the Soviet Union possessed nuclear weapons, the superpowers became convinced that they could not safely disarm themselves of those weapons. In the absence of guaranteed verification—the process whereby participants in a treaty monitor each other's adherence to the agreement—neither side could disarm without making itself vulnerable to cheating by the other side. The goal of the superpowers and other nations possessing nuclear weapons therefore became not total elimination of those weapons, but control of them so that a stable nuclear deterrent might be maintained. According to the idea of nuclear deterrence, a state possessing nuclear weapons is deterred, or prevented, from using them against another nuclear power because of the threat of retaliation. No state is willing to attempt a first strike because it cannot prevent the other side from striking back. Nuclear deterrence is therefore predicated upon a mutual abhorrence of the destructive power of nuclear weapons. This idea has come to be called mutual assured destruction (MAD). Many experts see deterrence as the ultimate goal of nuclear arms control.

Because many civilians generally assume that arms control and disarmament is the same thing, there has often been public disappointment when treaties have resulted in an increase in the number or power of weapons. An advantage of arms control over disarmament, however, is that even states with a high degree of suspicion or hostility toward each other can still negotiate agreements. Disarmament agreements, on the other hand, require a high degree of trust, and their formation is unlikely between hostile nations.

Arms control is often used as a means to avoid an arms race—a competitive buildup of weapons between two or more powers. Such a race can be costly for both sides, and arms control treaties serve the useful purpose of limiting weapons stockpiles to a level that preserves deterrence while conserving the economic and social resources of a state for other uses.

3.7 Demilitarisation

It is an applied strategy for executing successful peacekeeping, peacemaking and peacebuilding operations, in a conflict zone or in a state or country that is emerging from crisis or war and is generally the strategy employed by all UN Peacekeeping Operations and state, continental, and regional organisations.

3.7.1 Types of Demilitarisation Methods

- i. **Disarmament:** Entails the physical removal of the means of combat from ex-belligerents (weapons, ammunition, and so on.)
-Is the collection, documentation, control and disposal of small arms, ammunition, explosives and light and heavy weapons of combatant and often also of the civilian population. Disarmament also includes the development of responsible arms management programmes.
- ii. **Demobilisation:** It entails the disbanding of armed groups; or is the formal and controlled discharge of active combatants from armed forces and other armed groups.
- iii. **Reinsertion:** Is the assistance offered to ex-combatants during demobilisation but prior to the longer-term process of reintegration.
- iv. **Reintegration:** It is described as the process of reintegrating former combatants into civil society, ensuring against the possibility of a resurgence of armed conflict. Alternatively, it can be described as the process by which ex-combatants acquire civilian status and gain sustainable employment and income. Reintegration is essentially a social and economic process with an open time frame, primarily taking place at communities at the local level.

A typical example of the above concepts is the Amnesty and Post-Amnesty operational activities extended to the Niger –Delta militant groups by the Nigerian government.

3.7.2 Objectives of DDR

The overall objective of the disarmament, demobilisation, and reintegration (DDR) are listed below.

DDR policy and programme is to reduce the size of the armed forces and the other organised services, and assist the ex-combatants in returning to civilian life and creating sustainable livelihoods.

Specific objectives of the DDR programme are to:

- to reduce the size of the armed forces and the other national organised forces
- to assist ex-combatants to socially reintegrate into their communities of return
- to increase livelihood opportunities for ex-combatants in communities of return
- to facilitate the release, return and reintegration of children associated with armed forces and groups into their families and communities of return
- to support social and economic reintegration of women associated with armed forces and group through community based programme in their communities of return
- to strengthen the capacities of RSSDDRC, line ministries. In South Sudan for instance, South Sudanese civil society and private sector to effectively support services delivery to the people of South Sudan.

3.7.3 Prerequisites for DDR

Disarmament, demobilisation, and reintegration (DDR) is somewhat different from the blanket term “peacekeeping,” in that DDR requires certain conditions to be effectively implemented. They include, but are not necessarily limited to:

- **Security** - conflict in the targeted area must be completely or at least nearly halted, and a significant deterrent force must be in place to ensure no renewal of conflict. Without this guarantee of security, DDR cannot be effectively implemented, as trust between former belligerents - an integral part of the DDR process - cannot develop.
- **Inclusion of all ex-belligerents** - without cooperation between all armed groups, DDR cannot succeed. Unless all combatants and factions are disarmed, the potential for a resurgence of conflict is too great.
- **Sufficient funding** - without enough funding to be completed, DDR operations cannot succeed, as incomplete reintegration of ex-combatants leaves the possibility of a renewal of conflict.

3.7.4 Requirements for Successful DDR Implementation

There are six aspects to a successful DDR conversion:

1. Reduction of military expenditure
2. Reorientation of military research and development
3. Conversion of the arms industry
4. Demobilisation and reintegration
5. Redevelopment of troops
6. Safe disposal and management of “surplus weapons”

4.0 CONCLUSION

Enforcement of arms control agreements has proven difficult over time. Most agreements rely on the continued desire of the participants to abide by the terms to remain effective. Usually, when a nation no longer desires to abide by the terms, they usually will seek to either covertly circumvent the terms or to simply end their participation in the treaty.

More recent arms control treaties have included more stringent terms on enforcement of violations as well as verification. This last has been a major obstacle to effective enforcement, as violators often attempt to covertly circumvent the terms of the agreements.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we defined small arms and light weapons and as well enumerated different types of both concepts. We also discussed the meaning of arms proliferations, the causes and its effects coupled with brief explanation of arms control, the aims and importance of arms control. In addition, we also learnt about demilitarisation and types or methods of demilitarisation such as disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration. Objectives, prerequisite, and requirements for successful DDR were also discussed.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Briefly define the following concepts: small arms, light weapons, arms control, arms proliferation and demilitarisation.
- ii. What factors are responsible for small arms and light weapons proliferation?
- iii. Of what importance is DDR to sustainable peace of a state?

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UNIT 5 PEACE AND EDUCATION

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

There are several ways to look at peace and this is shown in the various ways. In this course, it has been defined within the field of peace studies. As we will find out shortly, each definition appears to fit particular world views or orientations of the scholars who provided these definitions. However, this is not to say that there are no similarities between the definitions. What would be more correct is to see them as complementing each other to the extent that they identify and highlight very salient issues that are germane to peace. Education serves the purpose of teaching, understanding and respect for all peoples, their cultures, civilisations, values and ways of life, including domestic ethnic cultures and cultures of other nations; and for increasing awareness of global interdependence between peoples and nations.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss the connection between education and peace
- define peace education
- identify the key issues in peace education
- articulate the role of peace educators
- explain methods of achieving lasting peace.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Peace

The word “peace” is derived from the Latin word *pax* which literally means a pact, a contract, an agreement to end war or any dispute and conflict between two people, nations or antagonistic groups of people. A situation or a period of time in which there is no war or violence in a country or an area is often described as peaceful. Peace can be a state of harmony or the absence of hostility. “Peace” can also be a nonviolent way of life. “Peace” often depicts cessation of violent conflict, a state of quiet or tranquility or an absence of disturbance or agitation. Peace can also describe a relationship between any people characterised by respect, justice and goodwill.

Conception of peace as tranquility can also pertain to an individual’s sense of himself or herself, as being “at peace” with one’s own mind. This is why Saint Augustine argued that peace and health go hand-in-hand. As he puts it:

The peace of the body then consists in the duly proportioned arrangement of its parts. The peace of the irrational soul is the harmonious repose of the appetites, and that of the rational soul the harmony of knowledge and action. The peace of body and soul is the well-ordered and harmonious life and health of the living creature.

Following from the above, peace can pertain to an individual relative to his or her environment, because the use of the word peaceful could be to describe calm, serenity, and silence. This latter understanding of peace can also pertain to an individual’s sense of self, as to be “at peace” with oneself would indicate the same serenity, calm, and equilibrium within oneself—that is, a life devoid of worries, bitterness or pain. This probably explains why some people refer to death as a state of peace with one’s creator.

In most cases, when people mouth the word “peace”, they refer to an absence of hostility. However, the term also represents a situation where there is, among others, a healthy or newly healed interpersonal or international relationship; safety in matters related to social or economic welfare; the acknowledgment of equality and fairness in political relationships and, in world matters. Thus, peacetime represents a state where any war or conflict is absent. Whenever we reflect on the nature of peace, it is usually in relation to considerations of the factors that bring about its absence or loss including such critical issues like insecurity, social injustice, economic inequality, political and religious radicalism, and acute nationalism.

Words that signify peace such as the Hebrew word *shalom*, the Arabic word *salaam*, the Yoruba word *alaafia* and the Igbo word *udo* all signify many things that human beings desire such as safety, welfare, prosperity, security, fortune, friendliness. The personalised meaning is reflected in a nonviolent lifestyle, which also describes a relationship between any people characterised by respect, justice and goodwill. This understanding of peace can also pertain to an individual's sense of herself or himself such as being "at peace" with one's own self and having "rest of mind". The term is also used in the sense of "quiet", reflecting a calm, serene, and meditative approach to family or group relationships that is devoid of quarrels among individuals and social groups.

3.2 Education and Peace

In view of mankind's experience with war and violence, a global movement has emerged which recommends discussion of issues of peace in education at all levels and in all its forms. According to this movement, education could be used to teach understanding and respect for all peoples, their cultures, civilisations, values and ways of life, including domestic ethnic cultures and cultures of other nations; and increase awareness of the increasing global interdependence between peoples and nations.

They also argue that education is capable of improving the abilities of people to communicate with others; lead to an awareness not only of rights but also of the duties incumbent upon individuals, social groups and nations towards each other; foster an understanding of the necessity for international solidarity and co-operation; and that education could be used to measure the readiness on the part of individuals to participate in solving the problems of their communities, their country and the world at large.

They also believe that education could remove the ignorance that is often associated with violence in human societies, which many people believe is an inherent part of human nature. Those who have disagreed with the notion that violence is part of human nature argue instead that although it is widespread and universal in occurrence, violence is a phenomenon that emerged as late as the last 10,000 years.

Those who advocate pursuing a culture of peace through education also believe that the institution of warfare and its associated culture of violence are cultural phenomena and not biological phenomena inherited from our ancestors, and that war is a social invention rather than a fatality determined by genes, violent brains, human nature or instincts. For this reason, it is essential to understand how and why the culture of

war developed and has been sustained over time. To ask these questions, we then need to create understanding through education. The use of education for the pursuit of peace will thus involve:

- training and practice of conflict resolution and mediation in school systems, among staff and students, and extension of such knowledge through community involvement to the rest of society;
- linkage of school activities to ongoing activities in communities that promote participation by all in culture and development;
- incorporation of discussions on social movements, peace and non-violence, democracy and good governance into school curricula;
- extension of the sense of community to all peoples with the aim of preserving both the world's cultural diversity and its ecology for future generations;
- systematic review of school curricula to ensure an approach to ethnic, racial and cultural differences that emphasises their equality and unique contributions to the enrichment of the common good;
- systematic review and renovation of the teaching of history, to lay more emphasis on non-violent social change as opposed to military aspects of history; and
- teaching of science as a tool which can be used for war or for peace, for exploitation or for co-operative development.

On the basis of the above, use of education to promote peace (peace education) entails inculcating the need for positive response to diversity and conflicts with tolerance, imagination, flexibility into the minds of individuals, and fully exercising one's responsibilities to ensure that the rights of others and the freedom to exercise such rights are fully protected.

3.3 Peace Education

Peace education is a process of imparting specific skills, attitude and knowledge on people, thereby helping them to solve problems by building consensus, creating cultural awareness and showing empathy which is expected to build positive attitude about justice and respect for democracy. He further emphasises that through peace education, individuals would understand the dynamics of social conflicts, warfare, conflicts resolution and peace.

Briefly put, the aim of peace education is to help you understand the nature and origins of violence and its effects on both victim and perpetrator; to create frameworks for achieving peaceful creative

societies; to sharpen awareness about the existence of unpeaceful relationships between people and within and between nations; to investigate the causes of conflicts and violence embedded within perceptions, values and attitudes of individuals as well as within social and political structures of society; to encourage the search for alternative or possible nonviolent skills; and to equip children and adults with personal conflict resolution skills.

According to the peace education Working Group of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF, 2004) peace education is "the process of promoting knowledge, skills and values that will bring about behavioural changes that will enable children, youths and adults to prevent conflict and overt and structural violence; to resolve conflict peacefully; and to create the conditions conducive for peace, whether at intrapersonal, interpersonal, inter-group, national or international level." Peace education therefore covers such topics as anti-racism, conflict resolution, multiculturalism, cross-cultural training and the cultivation of a generally peaceful outlook (Salmon, 2002:7).

At the core of peace education is the consciousness and conscience of the human being. It seeks to develop persons with rational, ethical minds whose vision of the world and its inhabitants is that of unity. The values that animate this unity can be expressed in different cultural connotations according to varying modes of life, but the unity does not imply that there is one conceptual vision of this unity. Diversity and differences are a natural expression of this consciousness; however, peace remains the underlying value and the instrument by which this unity is achieved through interdependence.

Peace education is about empowering people with the skills, attitudes, and knowledge to build, maintain, and restore relationships at all levels of human interaction; to develop positive approaches towards dealing with conflicts from the personal to the international; to create safe environments, both physically and emotionally, that nurture each individual; to create a safe world based on justice and human rights; and to build a sustainable environment and protect it from exploitation and war. Peace education is based on a philosophy that teaches nonviolence, love, compassion, trust, fairness, cooperation and reverence for the human family and all life on planet earth.

3.4 The Role of Peace Educators

Peace education is often described as a series of "teaching encounters" that draw from people their desire for peace, nonviolent alternatives for managing conflict, and skills for critical analysis of structural arrangements that produce and legalise injustice and inequality. Page

(2008) therefore suggested that peace education be thought of as involving a number of tasks such as:

- encouraging a commitment to peace as a settled disposition and enhancing the confidence of the individual as an individual agent of peace;
- informing the student on the consequences of war and social injustice;
- informing the student on the value of peaceful and just social structures and working to uphold or develop such social structures;
- encouraging the student to leave the world and to imagine a peaceful future; and
- caring for the student and encouraging the student to care for others.

Traditional distinctions in peace education are couched in terms of negative and positive peace. These distinctions can be seen in peace through strength which uses peacekeeping strategies to deter violence, peacemaking which helps disputants resolve their conflicts, and peacebuilding which tries to motivate students to want to be peaceful. Negative peace education tries to put out fires while positive peace education tries to stop fires (conflicts) from breaking out in the first place. Generally, people want immediate solutions to the problems of violence that they fear. Because peace education provides a long term solution, is not seen as necessary and is not grabbing the kind of support that conflict resolution which helps put out fires is getting.

Further distinctions in peace education come from the content of courses taught, the teachers style, and the skills that students learn in order to become peaceful people. Peace education content started out by discussing the causes of war and the attempts of international systems to avoid war. In Japan, peace education was originally defined narrowly as 'anti-atomic bomb' education in line with their experience with the atomic bombs that were dropped on the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. More recently, Third World perspectives on the variability of war and its causes has led to a broadening of the notion of peace education to include the study of the origins of Japanese militarism. Peace educators around the world are dealing with other issues, such as structural violence, cultural violence, personal violence, racism, and environmental degradation.

Recent studies in the field that relate to the study of war places an emphasis upon developing a questioning attitude towards the violence of the status quo and a teaching style that relies upon a dialogue between teacher and pupil where both of them jointly seek alternatives to

violence. Peace educators produce critical thinkers who question the emphasis upon the various forms of militarism found all around the world.

Peace educators seek to establish democratic classrooms that teach cooperation and promote positive self esteem among their students. Teachers serve as peaceful role models to help to counteract images of violent behaviour young people receive through popular culture (video, internet, games, music, and so on) and in their homes. Their teaching style will normally adjust to the developmental needs of their pupils, respecting the various identities and concerns about violence that students bring to the classroom.

Educators contribute to making a peaceful person by building in their students a certain orientation towards peaceful values, beliefs, and behaviours. A peaceful person should display a certain “groundedness” that implies not being in a constant state of anger and frustration. It is also the teacher’s work to build the student’s capacity in social skills and democratic participation.

The skills that peace educators often focus on teaching include verbal and non-verbal communication, active listening, understanding and management of different perspectives, cooperation, joint problem solving, critical thinking, decision making, conflict resolution, and social responsibility.

3.5 Methods of Achieving Post-Conflict Sustainable Peacebuilding

3.5.1 Understanding Peace Building

It should be noted at the outset that there are two distinct ways to understand peace building. According to the United Nations (UN) document “An Agenda for Peace,” peace building consists of a wide range of activities associated with capacity building, reconciliation, and societal transformation. Peace building is a long-term process that occurs after violent conflict has slowed down or come to a halt. Thus, it is the phases of the peace process that takes place after peacemaking and peacekeeping.

Many non-governmental organisations (NGOs), on the other hand, understand peace building as an umbrella concept that encompasses not only long-term transformative efforts, but also peacemaking and peacekeeping. In this view, peace building includes early warning and response efforts, violence prevention, advocacy work, civilian and

military peacekeeping, military intervention, humanitarian assistance, ceasefire agreements, and the establishment of peace zones.

In its narrower sense, peace building is a process that facilitates the establishment of durable peace and tries to prevent the recurrence of violence by addressing root causes and effects of conflict through reconciliation, institution building, and political as well as economic transformation. This consists of a set of physical, social and structural initiatives that are often an integral part of post-conflict reconstruction and rehabilitation.

It is generally agreed that the central task of peace building is to create positive peace, a “stable social equilibrium in which the surfacing of new disputes does not escalate into violence and war.” Sustainable peace is characterised by the absence of physical and structural violence, the elimination of discrimination, and self-sustainability. Moving towards this sort of environment goes beyond problem solving or conflict management. Peace building initiatives try to fix the core problems that underlie the conflict and change the patterns of interaction of the involved parties. They aim to move a given population from a condition of extreme vulnerability and dependency to one of self-sufficiency and wellbeing.

To further understand the notion of peace building, many contrast it with the more traditional strategies of peacemaking and peacekeeping. Peacemaking is the diplomatic effort to end the violence between the conflicting parties, move them towards nonviolent dialogue, and eventually reach a peace agreement. Peacekeeping, on the other hand, is a third-party intervention (often, but not always done by military forces) to assist parties in transitioning from violent conflict to peace by separating the fighting parties and keeping them apart. These peacekeeping operations not only provide security, but also facilitate other non-military initiatives.

Some draw a distinction between post-conflict peace building and long-term peace building. Post-conflict peace building is connected to peacekeeping, and often involves demobilisation and reintegration programmes, as well as immediate reconstruction needs. Meeting immediate needs and, handling crises is no doubt crucial. But while peacemaking and peacekeeping processes are an important part of peace transitions, they are not enough in and of themselves to meet longer-term needs and build a lasting peace.

Long-term peace building techniques are designed to fill this gap; and to address the underlying substantive issues that brought about conflict. Various transformation techniques aim to move parties away from

confrontation and violence, and towards political and economic participation, peaceful relationships, and social harmony.

This longer-term perspective is crucial to future violence prevention and the promotion of a more peaceful future. Thinking about the future involves articulating desirable structural, systemic, and relationship goals. These might include sustainable economic development, self-sufficiency, equitable social structures that meet human needs, and building positive relationships.

Peace building measures also aim to prevent conflict from reemerging. Through the creation of mechanisms that enhance cooperation and dialogue among different identity groups, these measures can help parties manage their conflict of interests through peaceful means. This might include building institutions that provide procedures and mechanisms for effectively handling and resolving conflict. For example, societies can build fair courts, capacities for labour negotiation, systems of civil society reconciliation, and a stable electoral process. Such designing of new dispute resolution systems is an important part of creating a lasting peace.

In short, parties must replace the spiral of violence and destruction with a spiral of peace and development, and create an environment conducive to self-sustaining and durable peace. The creation of such an environment has three central dimensions: addressing the underlying causes of conflict, repairing damaged relationships and dealing with psychological trauma at the individual level. Each of these dimensions relies on different strategies and techniques.

3.5.2 The Structural Dimension of Peace Building

The structural dimension of peace building focuses on the social conditions that foster violent conflict. Many note that stable peace must be built on social, economic, and political foundations that serve the needs of the populace. In many cases, crises arise out of systemic roots. These root causes are typically complex, but include skewed land distribution, environmental degradation, and unequal political representation. If these social problems are not addressed, there can be no lasting peace.

Thus, in order to establish durable peace, parties must analyse the structural causes of the conflict and initiate social structural change. The promotion of substantive and procedural justice through structural means typically involves institution building and the strengthening of civil society.

Avenues of political and economic transformation include social structural change to remedy political or economic injustice, reconstruction programmes designed to help communities ravaged by conflict revitalise their economies, and the institution of effective and legitimate restorative justice systems. Peace building initiatives aim to promote nonviolent mechanisms that eliminate violence, foster structures that meet basic human needs, and maximise public participation.

To provide fundamental services to its citizens, a state needs strong executive, legislative, and judicial institutions. Many point to democratisation as a key way to create these sorts of peace-enhancing structures. Democratisation seeks to establish legitimate and stable political institutions and civil liberties that allow for meaningful competition for political power and broad participation in the selection of leaders and policies. It is important for governments to adhere to principles of transparency and predictability, and for laws to be adopted through an open and public process. For the purpose of post-conflict peace building, the democratisation process should be part of a comprehensive project to rebuild society's institutions.

Political structural changes focus on political development, state building, and the establishment of effective government institutions. This often involves election reform, judicial reform, power sharing initiatives, and constitutional reform. It also includes building political parties, creating institutions that provide procedures and mechanisms for effectively handling and resolving conflict, and establishing mechanisms to monitor and protect human rights. Such institution building and infrastructure development typically requires the dismantling, strengthening, or reformation of old institutions in order to make them more effective.

It is crucial to establish and maintain rule of law, and to implement rules and procedures that constrain the powers of all parties and hold them accountable for their actions. This can help to ease tension, create stability, and lessen the likelihood of further conflict. For example, an independent judiciary can serve as a forum for the peaceful resolution of disputes and post-war grievances.

In addition, societies need a system of criminal justice that deters and punishes banditry and acts of violence. Fair police mechanisms must be established and government officials and members of the police force must be trained to observe basic rights in the execution of their duties. In addition, legislation protecting minorities and laws securing gender equality should be advanced. Courts and police forces must be free of corruption and discrimination.

But structural change can also be economic. Many note that economic development is integral to preventing future conflict and avoiding a relapse into violence. Economic factors that put societies at risk include lack of employment opportunities, food scarcity, and lack of access to natural resources or land. A variety of social structural changes aim to eliminate the structural violence that arises out of a society's economic system. These economic and social reforms include economic development programs, health care assistance, land reform, social safety nets, and programs to promote agricultural productivity.

Economic peace building targets both the micro and macro-level and aims to create economic opportunities and ensure that the basic needs of the population are met. On the microeconomic level, societies should establish micro-credit institutions to increase economic activity and investment at the local level, promote inter-communal trade and an equitable distribution of land, and expand school enrollment and job training. On the macroeconomic level, the post-conflict government should be assisted in the efforts to secure the economic foundations and infrastructure necessary for a transition to peace.

3.5.3 The Relational Dimension of Peace Building

A second integral part of building peace is reducing the effects of war-related hostility through the repair and transformation of damaged relationships. The relational dimension of peace building focuses on reconciliation, forgiveness, trust building, and future imagining. It seeks to minimise poorly functioning communication and maximise mutual understanding.

Many believe that reconciliation is one of most effective and durable ways to transform relationships and prevent destructive conflicts. The essence of reconciliation is the voluntary initiative of the conflicting parties to acknowledge their responsibility and guilt. Parties reflect upon their own role and behaviour in the conflict, and acknowledge and accept responsibility for the part they have played. As parties share their experiences, they learn new perspectives and change their perception of their "enemies." There is recognition of the difficulties faced by the opposing side and of their legitimate grievances, and a sense of empathy begins to develop.

Each side expresses sincere regret and remorse, and is prepared to apologise for what has transpired. The parties make a commitment to let go of anger, and to refrain from repeating the injury. Finally, there is a sincere effort to redress past grievances and compensate for the damage

done. This process often relies on interactive negotiation and allows the parties to enter into a new mutually enriching relationship.

One of the essential requirements for the transformation of conflicts is effective communication and negotiation at both the elite and grassroots levels. Through both high and community-level dialogues, parties can increase their awareness of their own role in the conflict and develop a more accurate perception of both their own and the other group's identity. As each group shares its unique history, traditions, and culture, the parties may come to understand each other better. International exchange programs and problem-solving workshops are two techniques that can help to change perceptions, build trust, open communication, and increase empathy. For example, over the course of the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, the main antagonists have sometimes been able to build trust through meeting outside their areas, not for formal negotiations, but simply to better understand each other.

If these sorts of bridge-building communication systems are in place, relations between the parties can improve and any peace agreements they reach will more likely be self-sustaining. (The Israeli-Palestinian situation illustrates that there are no guarantees, however.) Various mass communication and education measures, such as peace radio and TV, peace-education projects, and conflict-resolution training can help parties to reach such agreements. And dialogue between people of various ethnicities or opposing groups can lead to deepened understanding and help to change the demonic image of the enemy group. It can also help parties to overcome grief, fear, and mistrust and enhance their sense of security.

A crucial component of such dialogue is future imaging, whereby parties form a vision of the commonly shared future they are trying to build. Conflicting parties often have more in common in terms of their visions of the future than they do in terms of their shared and violent past. The thought is that if they know where they are trying to go, it will be easier to get there.

Another way for the parties to build a future together is to pursue joint projects that are unrelated to the conflict's core issues and center on shared interests. This can benefit the parties' relationship. Leaders who project a clear and hopeful vision of the future and the ways and means to get there can play a crucial role here.

However, in addition to looking towards the future, parties must deal with their painful past. Reconciliation not only envisions a common, connected future, but also recognises the need to redress past wrongdoing. If the parties are to renew their relationship and build an

interdependent future, what has happened must be exposed and then be forgiven.

Indeed, a crucial part of peace building is addressing past wrongdoing while at the same time promoting healing and rule of law. Part of repairing damaged relationships is responding to past human rights, violations and genocide through the establishment of truth commissions, fact-finding missions, and war crimes tribunals. These processes attempt to deal with the complex legal and emotional issues associated with human rights abuses and ensure that justice is served. It is commonly thought that past injustice must be recognised, and the perpetrators punished if parties wish to achieve reconciliation.

However, many note that the retributive justice advanced by Western legal systems often ignores the needs of victims and exacerbates wounds. Many note that to advance healing between the conflicting parties. Justice must be more reparative in focus. Central to restorative justice is its future-orientation and its emphasis on the relationship between victims and offenders. It seeks to engage both victims and offenders in dialogue and make things right by identifying their needs and obligations. Having community-based restorative justice processes in place can help to build a sustainable peace.

3.5.4 The Personal Dimension of Peace Building

The personal dimension of peace building centers on desired changes at the individual level. If individuals are not able to undergo a process of healing, there will be broader social political and economic repercussions. The destructive effects of social conflict must be minimised, and its potential for personal growth must be maximised. Reconstruction and peace building efforts must prioritise treating mental health problems and integrate these efforts into peace plans and rehabilitation efforts.

In traumatic situations, a person is rendered powerless and faces the threat of death and injury. Traumatic events might include a serious threat or harm to one's family or friends, sudden destruction of one's home or community, and a threat to one's own physical being. Such events overwhelm an individual's coping resources, making it difficult for the individual to function effectively in society. Typical emotional effects include depression and post-traumatic stress disorder. After prolonged and extensive trauma, a person is often left with intense feelings that negatively influence his/her psychological wellbeing. After an experience of violence, an individual is likely to feel vulnerable, helpless, and out of control in a world that is unpredictable.

Building peace requires attention to these psychological and emotional layers of the conflict. The social fabric that has been destroyed by war must be repaired, and trauma must be dealt with on the national, community, and individual levels. At the national level, parties can accomplish widespread personal healing through truth and reconciliation commission that seek to uncover the truth and deal with perpetrators. At the community level, parties can pay tribute to the suffering of the past through various rituals or ceremonies, or build memorials to commemorate the pain and suffering that has been endured. Strong family units that can rebuild community structures and moral environments are also crucial.

At the individual level, one-on-one counseling has obvious limitations when large numbers of people have been traumatised and there are insufficient resources to address their needs. Peace building initiatives must therefore provide support for mental health infrastructure and ensure that mental health professionals receive adequate training. Mental health programmes should be adapted to suit the local context, and draw from traditional and communal practice and customs wherever possible. Participating in counselling and dialogue can help individuals to develop coping mechanism and to rebuild their trust in others.

If it is taken that psychology drives individuals' attitudes and behaviours, then new emphasis must be placed on understanding the social psychology of conflict and its consequences. If ignored, certain victims of past violence are at risk of becoming perpetrators of future violence. Victim empowerment and support can help to break this cycle.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Peace can be built outside of classrooms and formal education settings. Whenever we reflect on the nature of peace, it is usually in relation to considerations of the factors that bring about its absence or loss including such critical issues like insecurity, social injustice, economic inequality, political and religious radicalism, and acute nationalism. Education can assist mankind to overcome the attitudes and practices in our culture that threaten peace and also explains how lasting peace could be accomplished in our society.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have examined the history of education in terms of how it developed over the ages, the various ways in which humans educate their members in culture and survival skills, the meaning of peace and its connection to education, and how formal, non-formal and informal education could effectively serve the purpose of peace in human

societies. We also discussed methods of achieving post-conflict sustainable peacebuilding

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Why is education important to the development of human culture?
- ii. Identify the various stages in the emergence of education.
- iii. What is peace and how does education promote it?
- iv. What activities become necessary if we are serious about using education to promote peace?

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