

An Investigation into the Prevalent Types of Conflicts, Conflict Indicators, The Role Played by These Indicators and How Conflict Undermines the Management of Disasters in Africa.

Tichaona Muzuwa, Andries Jordaan and Piason Viriri

Abstract

This study sort to identify the prevalent types of conflict and causes, conflict indicators, the role played by these indicators and how conflict undermines Disaster Management activities in Africa. The historical method of data collection was used. Data collected was secondary. Collection involved the researcher visiting various web sites on the internet and various published works, which had information on conflicts in Africa. The study population comprised of 52 African countries. The period covered by the research was January 2007 to April 2009. The results show an identification of the following six types of conflict, armed conflict (divided into major, intermediate and minor), border disputes, food riots, political violence, targeted attacks and inter-communal strife. Nigeria, Sudan, Ethiopia, Somalia, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Kenya were quantitatively identified as high conflict areas in the continent. Armed conflict came out as the high priority conflict type that needed urgent attention. Various types of conflict indicators were identified and their role was explained as that of providing early warning to conflict. Conflict was seen as undermining disaster management activities through retarding, stopping and stalling many developmental processes. The study recommended various ways to deal with conflicts, all directed towards the search for peace and security that requires the mobilization, coordination and cooperation of all states, Non-Governmental Organisations, civil society, community leaders, the community and others to participate in efforts of promoting peace, security and stability in Africa.

Key words: Conflict, indicators, disaster.

1. Introduction

The article evaluates the types of conflicts in Africa and their causes, It goes further and looks at the conflict trends, the most prevalent conflicts, conflict indicators and how conflict is undermining disaster management. The study covered time period January 2007 and April 2009. 52 countries were the focus of the investigation.

2. Back ground

According to the UNDP (2001), the world is infested with disaster hazards. They range from the natural volcanoes, earthquake, floods, tsunamis and the man-made ranging from chemical spills, transport accidents and conflicts. All these are found and are occurring from all corners of the world but with different frequencies and intensities.

Some of the hazards are becoming a problem in some continents and some countries. One of the most prevalent hazards the world over is conflict. Due to various political, economic, religious and other reasons, conflicts are always erupting. Violent conflict is becoming a major developmental challenge. Conflict causes human misery, destroys communities and infrastructure, and can cripple economic prospects (UNDP, 2001).

The IFRC (2001) highlight that the continent of Africa is not spared and is affected by a number of hazards. Many people are dying. The continent has a weak development status. The disaster victims are mainly poor communities living below the poverty datum line. They are the most vulnerable to disasters because they have fewer resources therefore less capacity to prevent or cope with the impacts. This is a factor that significantly contributes to their vulnerability (DMC, 2000). Apart from the conventional disasters caused by floods, earthquakes and volcanoes, the continent has become prone to conflict disasters.

3. Research Methodology.

In this investigation no data collection instrument was used. The study made use of secondary data sources. A systematic search for open-source data was conducted. The search was specifically aimed at identifying organized data collection projects related to conflict and security issues around Africa. A comprehensive search strategy was initiated using various websites like the CNN (www.cnn.com), BBC (news.bbc.co.uk), Alertnet_Reuters (www.alertnet.org) Relief Web (www.reliefweb.int), UN News (www.un.org/News and situational reports from various websites like www.crisisgroup.org, www.alertnet.org, www.systematicpeace.org, and www.hewsweb.org. This was also through listening to radio or television news casts and the internet. Other information was also got through reading recently published works like journals, articles and communiqués from various meetings and forums of the African Union.

4. Results

4.1 The types of conflicts

Processes of conflict resolution in Africa are characterized by three dimensions which include the nature of conflicts, conflict resolution mechanisms and the outcome of such mechanisms. In understanding the nature of conflicts, there is need to identify types of conflicts first. There have been different ways of identifying types of conflicts. One way is in terms of complexity (Mwagiru, 2001). It has been observed that in Africa there are simple and complex types of conflicts. Most of the conflicts have been and continue to be complex (Mpangala, 2004).

The second way is in terms of duration. In this context there are short lived and protracted conflicts. Protracted conflicts are the most common in most countries in Africa. Wars of liberation in Southern Africa were protracted conflicts and civil wars that came after independence in Mozambique and Angola were also protracted. This is also true of civil wars in Sudan and Somalia. The Rift Valley conflicts in Kenya in 1997 constitute an example of short-lived conflicts.

The third way is in terms of violence. There are conflicts which are violent and those which are non-violent. Some people have characterized the non-violent conflicts as latent or structured conflicts (Mwagiru, *ibid*). However, most conflicts which have been studied and which have drawn greater attention are violent conflicts which have involved bloodshed. Although most conflict resolution measures have been taken on violent conflicts, there have also been situations when conflict resolution measures have been made on latent conflicts (Mpangala, 2000).

The fourth way of identifying types of conflicts is in terms of the scale of the conflict. In this context conflicts in Africa have been categorised into internal, interstate and internationalized conflicts. There have been a good number of interstate conflicts such as wars between Tanzania and Uganda in, Ethiopia and Somalia and Ethiopia and Eritrea. Internationalized and internal conflicts are the most common. These are conflicts, which in one way or another are internal have involved other countries or affected neighbouring countries such as the influx of refugees and their implications. Given this conception, most conflicts in Africa have internal or internationalized conflicts (Mpangala, 2004).

The fifth way is in terms of necessity or legitimacy of conflicts. While some conflicts are regarded as necessary and legitimate, others are unnecessary and illegitimate. Sekou Toure classified conflicts as legitimate and illegitimate conflicts (Nyirenda, 2000). Legitimate conflicts are mainly concerned with struggles for liberation from an oppressive and exploitative regime. The objective is to liberate the whole society from such domination, oppression and exploitation. The first stage when such conflicts took place in Africa was during struggles for national independence from colonialism. Colonised people, who could not achieve independence through peaceful means, had to resort to armed struggle.

Six conflict types were identified in this study. These were determined by benchmarking approaches by various organizations that have done research in the types of conflicts. Literature that was more influential in determining these was by the Relief web organization. They categorized conflict into armed conflict, inter-communal strife, political violence, food riots, targeted attacks (terrorism) and boarder disputes (Relief web, 2008).

4.2 Causes of conflict

4.2.1 The cultural dimension of conflict.

Stewart and Fitzgerald (2001) believe that, many groups of people who fight together perceive themselves as belonging to a common culture (ethnic or religious), and fight to maintain their cultural autonomy. Due to that, there is a tendency to attribute wars to “*prehistoric*” ethnic passions. They also argue that to an extent this view might not be correct, and seems to divert attention from important underlying economic and political factors. Although a person's culture is partly inherited it is also constructed and chosen, and many people have multiple identities.

In the same vein Turton (1997) states that many of the ethnic identities in Africa that today seem to be so strong were “*invented*” by the colonial powers for administrative purposes and have only weak origins in pre-colonial Africa (Ranger, 1983). Their boundaries are generally fluid, and they have been described as “*fuzzy sets*” Gurr (1993).

Alexander, McGregor and Ranger (2000) are of the view that in wars political leaders deliberately “*rework historical memories*” to engender or strengthen this identity in the competition for power and resources. They cite that the conflict in Matabeleland in post-independence Zimbabwe where, Ndebele identity was used to advance political objectives. Other well known examples include the Nazis in Germany, the Hutus in Rwanda and today, the emphasis on Muslim consciousness by the Taliban and others.

4.2.2 The Economic dimension of conflict.

Four economic hypotheses have been put forward to explain intra-state conflicts, based on factors related to group motivation, private motivation, failure of the social contract, and environmental degradation.

Group motivation hypothesis: Since intra-state conflicts mainly consist of fighting between groups, group motives, resentments, and ambitions provide motivation for conflict (Stewart, 2001). Groups may be divided along cultural or religious lines, by geography, or by class. Group differences only become worth fighting for, however, if there are other important differences between groups, particularly in the distribution and exercise of political and economic power (Cohen, 1974). In this situation relatively deprived groups are likely to seek (or be persuaded by their leaders to seek) redress. Where political redress is not possible they may resort to war. Resentments inspired by group differences, termed horizontal inequalities, are a major cause of war. These group differences have many dimensions that are economic, political, and social. Relatively privileged groups may also be motivated to fight to protect their privileges against attack from relatively deprived groups (Horowitz, 1985).

Private motivation hypothesis: War gives benefits and costs on individuals, which can motivate people to fight (Collier and Hoeffler, 2000). Young uneducated men, in particular, may gain employment as soldiers. War also generates opportunities to loot, profiteer from shortages and from aid, trade arms, and carry out illicit production and trade in drugs, diamonds, timber, and other commodities. Where alternative opportunities are few, because of low incomes and poor employment, and the possibilities of enrichment by war are considerable, the incidence and duration of wars are likely to be greater. This “*greed hypothesis*” has its base in rational choice economics (Collier and Hoeffler, 2000).

Failure of the social contract: This derives from the view that social stability is based on a hypothetical social contract between the people and the government. People accept state authority so long as the state delivers services and provides reasonable economic conditions (employment and incomes). With economic stagnation or decline, and worsening state services, the social contract breaks down, and violence results. Hence high and rising levels of poverty and a decline in state services would be expected to cause conflict (Nafziger and Auvinen, 2000). This hypothesis fits well in the service delivery protests common in South Africa. These also degenerated into xenophobia attacks in 2009.

Green war hypothesis: This points to environmental degradation as a source of poverty and cause of conflict (Kaplan, 1994). Rising population pressure and falling agricultural productivity may lead to land disputes. Growing scarcity of water may provoke conflict (Swain, 2000). This hypothesis contradicts the view that people fight to secure control over environmental riches (Fairhead, 2000).

4.2.3 Other causes

In a special session of the assembly of the African Union on the consideration and resolution of conflicts in Africa, in August 2009, the chairman of the commission highlighted the causes of conflict in Africa as including ethnic and religious extremism, corruption, exclusionary definitions of citizenship, poverty and disease, the illegal exploitation of Africa’s renewable and non-renewable natural resources and mercenarism.

Also included was a host of other factors ranging from competition for land and other resources, misallocation of resources and shortcomings in governance, as well as subversion by outside actors. The situation was said to be aggravated by the illicit proliferation, circulation and trafficking of small arms and light weapons and the scourge of drug trafficking, which poses increasing threat to peace and security in Africa (Chairman of the commission, 2009).

Stewart, (2002) views that, the root cause of conflict lies in poverty, whereby individuals or groups are motivated to fight for redress. This assertion is also supported by Barbanti (2004) who states that poverty is the primary cause of conflict and at the same time also admits that conflicts prevent successful development programmes designed to alleviate poverty.

Michi Ebata (2001) is of the view that, conflict is caused by structural and proximate causes. Structural conditions are systemic features that structure the relations between people. Proximate conditions are specific events found in the process of escalation to violence. These structural and dynamic conditions of conflict are rooted in the structure of societies. Societies are structured by three components: the state, its society and their external environment. The state comprises the political, legal and security apparatuses that structure the rules of the game. Society refers to physical, social, and economic conditions. The external environment refers to the international system, the regional context and the specific policies, actions and interventions by outside actors.

According to the Commission on Human Security (2003), causes of internal conflict include:

- Competition over land and resources,
- Sudden and deep political or economic transitions,
- Growing inequity among people and communities,
- Increasing crime, corruption and illegal activities,
- Weak and unstable political regimes and institutions, and
- Identity politics and historical legacies, such as colonialism.

The causes of conflict from the above authorities are varied but it can be seen that most of the causes overlap.

4.3 The trend of conflicts in Africa.

The number of countries affected by conflicts is as indicated in figure 1 below. The figures show the number of countries and the percentage value. For example the number 10 and 18% indicates that, 10 countries were affected by food riots during the period under review. This represents 18% of the population (52 countries) under study.

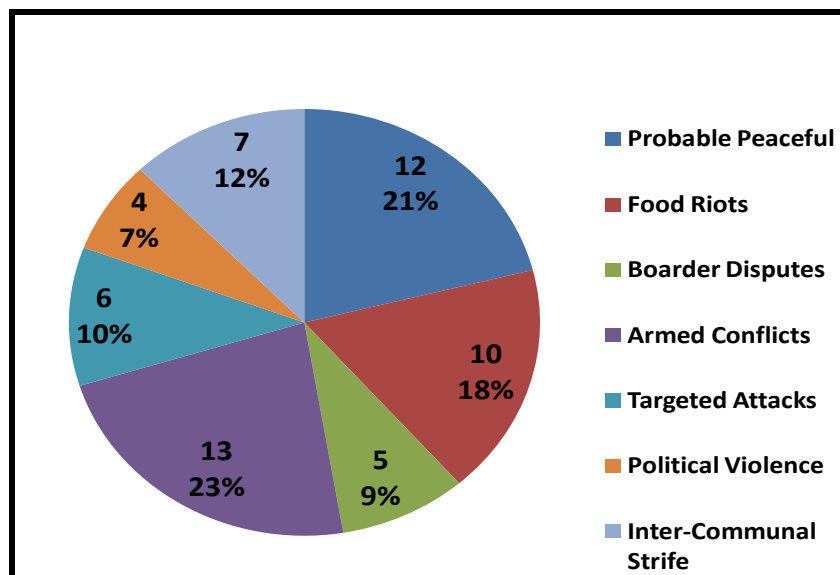


Figure 1: Types of Conflict: January 2007 to April 2009.

4.4 The most prevalent type of conflict

The quantitative approach was used to determine the most prevalent type of conflict. This approach is easy and it's a matter of using the rule of numbers. The type of conflict with more in terms of quantity (numbers) was identified as the most prevalent and also a high priority. In the study armed conflict was identified as the most prevalent and a high priority. Thirteen countries were identified as having armed conflicts during the time under review. More information about this is provided in the table 1 below.

Table 1: Conflict prevalence and priority ranking using quantitative approach.

Conflict indicator	Number of countries affected	High priority/prevalent rate
Armed conflict.	13	1
Food riots.	10	2
Inter-communal strife.	07	3
Targeted attacks	06	4
Border disputes	05	5
Political violence	04	6

4.5 High conflict areas

Countries like Sudan, Nigeria, Somalia, Kenya, Ethiopia and the D.R. Congo have a high number of conflicts.



Figure 2: Countries with high conflict: January 2007 to April 2009.

With the exception of Nigeria and Kenya the other four countries are the ones that are also having unresolved and unabated serious armed conflicts in Africa. They are the focus of the international world. Peace keepers both from the United Nations and the African Union have been seconded and have been working in these countries for some time. This means that conflict in these countries is of serious concern and managing their situation must be given the seriousness it deserves. All things equal, solving problems in these countries must be a priority.

4.6 Conflict Indicators.

According to Michi Ebata (2001), conflict indicators refer to structural and proximate conditions that cause conflict as well as the institutions, mechanisms, procedures and values that manage cooperation and accommodation, competition and conflict in all societies, which enable the transformation from conflict to violent conflict. They identify patterns of change.

The purpose is to identify when and how institutions, rules and mechanisms designed to resolve conflicts in society begin to break down. They give an indication of and changes in attitudes and values towards violence. Conflict indicators should indicate to what extent the 'rules of the game' constitute a system of rules that is regular, ordered and sustained. The degree to which such mechanisms are not institutionalised and ordered indicates a precondition for conflict (Michi Ebata, 2001).

4.6.1 The purpose of conflict indicators.

Violent conflict is neither inevitable nor does it appear spontaneously without warning. Armed conflict evolves over time from conflicts found in society. There are conflicts in all societies but this evolution occurs only when there are conditions and processes that facilitate it and no effective action is taken to reverse the process (Michi Ebata, 2001). These structural and permissive conditions and the process by which they escalate towards violence are variables that can be monitored by appropriate indicators. The purpose of compiling conflict indicators is to predict the likelihood of a violent conflict or the imminent outbreak of violence. Indicators identify conflicts found in society at their earliest stage and their potential to escalate towards violence. Conflict-specific indicators measure or monitor conflict, in terms of whether there are conditions for conflict, the likelihood of conflict becoming violent through process variables and whether a conflict crisis exists and the form it takes (Michi Ebata, 2001).

4.6.2 The Content of Indicators.

Conflict-specific indicators are based on information and data that are not easily measured and are more qualitative than quantitative. Understanding the context and conflict environment of a country situation is broad in both scope and depth. While indicators are guides for interventions designed to prevent conflict, they must identify more than just risk factors. They need to take into account what holds society together and keeps it from

falling apart. Every society has the potential to breakdown, but may evolve from the experience of keeping the system working. It is important to identify positive capacities in order to strengthen them. (Michi Ebata, 2001).

4.6.3 Identification of conflict indicators.

Indicators are identified through conflict analysis. It is a snap-shot of a highly fluid situation. It provides an in-depth analysis with more dynamic and continuous forms of monitoring to provide up-to-date information from which to measure the interaction between the context and the intervention. Indicators are useful as they help reduce a complex reality to a few concrete dimensions and represent valuable pointers to monitor change. The conflict analyst has to look at the relationship between specific actors, causes and profile, in order to gain an understanding of the conflict dynamics. Indicators can then be developed in order to reflect these relationships and how they evolve over time. It is important to have a mix of perception-based and objective indicators, each of which should reflect qualitative and quantitative elements. Good indicators reflect a variety of perspectives on the context. It is good practice to involve communities and other actors in identifying the indicators; not only should this produce better indicators but it is also an important opportunity to build a common understanding of the context, to ascertain joint priorities and to agree on benchmarks of progress (www.conflictsensitivity.org/resource).

4.6.4 Identified Conflict Indicators.

The following are the conflict signs, symptoms or indicators for the six conflicts identified in this study. Some of the indicators overlap.

Table 2: Food riot indicators.

Frequent food price increases.
Drought.
Famine.
Food shortages.
Development of a dominant black market economy.
Growing dependency on food imports.
Strikes.
Picketing.

Once the indicators or signs of conflict in table 4 arise or manifest themselves they signal the probability of food riots. It is these that have to be managed or resolved before they turn into anything serious. At the same time these indicators and some not identified in this paper, must be used as early warning to conflict especially food riots. Conflicts need to be negotiated, mediated or arbitrated during the conflict indicator phase.

Table 3: Border dispute indicators.

Border skirmishes between local people.
Claims over resources.
Cross border raids and thefts.

These indicators or signs of conflict in table 5 signal the probability of boarder disputes. Managing them reduces the risk of conflict. The indicators and some not identified in this paper, must be used as early warning to boarder disputes. Conflicts need to be negotiated, mediated or arbitrated during the conflict indicator phase.

Table 4: Armed conflict indicators.

Threats to make military attacks.
Tightening security for individuals groups or structures.
Use of child soldiers.
Theft of weapons from military armouries.
Rigging of elections.
Proliferation of small arms and light weapons.
Capital flight.
Disinvestment.
Threat of civilian rule by military politics.
No rule of law.
Violation of human rights by state agents.
Declaration of a State of emergency.
High military expenditure.
Buying of weapons of war by the government.
Mobilization of the army.

Indicators or signs of conflict in table 6 signal armed conflicts. They are a wakeup call to armed conflict. They must be used as early warning to armed conflicts. Negotiations, mediation or arbitration during the conflict indicator phase are important.

Table 5: Targeted attack indicators.

Hate speech by individuals or groups.
Tightening security for individuals groups or structures.
Kidnappings.

Indicators for targeted attacks are ignored. It is only after attacks have occurred that people start blaming themselves, for failing to take action when indicators manifested. They must be used as early warning to conflict especially terrorism, banditry, or sabotage. Capacitating people in conflict resolution is paramount.

Table 6: Political violence indicators.

Controversial Government Appointments.
Kidnappings.
Freedom of the press threatened by government and militant groups.
Systematic frustration amongst the masses especially the elites.
Corruption.
Poor governance.
Questioning of state legitimacy.
Elections heatedly contested.
Non recognition of election results.
Political protests by students, labour and sectarian groups.
Internal displacement of people.
Arrest and harassment of opposition political party members.
Media propaganda.
Rule of law abolished.
Formation of vigilante and Para-military groups.
Tightening security for individuals groups or structures.
Sporadic threats and violence against individual political figures or members.
Use of inflammatory rhetoric by political elites.

Political violence is very easy to dictate before people start attacking each other. It can also be easily prevented by the deployment of the police or the army, but however it is the political leaders who have a role to play, by influencing their supporters to respect freedom of association.

Table 7: Inter-communal strife indicators.

Brain gain.
Brain drain.
Deterioration of health and educational standards.
Corruption in the public service.
Misappropriation of funds and resources by senior government officials.
Dominant black market economy.
Corruption among politicians and senior government officials.
Rising unemployment.
High inflation rate.
Systematic frustration amongst the people especially the elites.
Poor economic performance.
High refugee influx.
Cross border raids.
Land invasions.
Service delivery protests.
Employee labour strikes.

The issues involved in this conflict type are mostly socio-economic. Africa has a lot of this conflict type. The way people live and their needs have to be addressed to avoid conflict eruptions.

4.7 How conflict is undermining disaster management activities.

This section relied on information got from review of related literature in the form of published works, research done and from information about the events that were occurring in Africa during the period under review.

Conflict slows down the management of disasters as it influences or makes other related disaster more serious. Conflict brings along with it hunger and illness there by making the disaster situation very complicated (Pkalya *et al*, 2003). The other issue that makes it complicated is that some conflicts are sponsored. That is why we have conflicts in countries like the Democratic republic of Congo, Sudan and Chad unending. There is a school of thought which is of the opinion that some countries, organizations, individuals and even governments are benefiting from armed conflicts (Collier and Hoeffler, 2000). This is as a result of the existence of some mineral resources in these countries that range from, gold, diamonds and oil that are traded for weapons through both legal and illegal trade (Collier and Hoeffler, 2000).

Some countries and organizations are bringing weapons that they sell especially to rebel leaders who are in control of mineral rich areas in some countries. This trade with weapons is in exchange with diamonds, gold or oil. This means that no matter how much the rebels are defeated by the government forces and weapons confiscated, there is continuous supply and wars are continuing (Collier and Hoeffler, 2000).

Another school of thought is of the opinion that it is the political commitment or will to end these wars that is lacking. There are deliberate acts by governments to escalate or perpetuate the wars, and it's believed that some are also benefiting from the natural resource and arms of war scandals (Collier and Hoeffler, 2000).

Armed conflicts in Africa kill thousands of people every year, not only combatants but also civilians. In actual fact, more people, especially women and children, die from the consequences of conflict than die from direct conflict-related violence (www.missionariesofafrica.org/challenges/orphan1.html).

In addition, many other people are injured as a result of violence, suffering often from permanent disabilities. Civilian displacement as a result of armed conflict is considerable. Africa has the largest number of victims of forced displacement in the world (www.reliefweb.int/rw/rwb.nsf/db900sid/AMMF-7X3PSU?).

The issue of refugees also strains resources in the host countries. Instead of using country budgets for the well being of their people, the host countries have to divert or create other budgets for refugees (Akpan, 1991). This factor short changes and delays the provision of service delivery to their people. This also creates animosity as was seen in South Africa, where service delivery protests against the municipalities were then diverted to foreign nationals who were accused of benefiting from the services at the expense of the locals.

People were killed and this created an internal crisis, where foreigners were put in refugee camps. The creation of these camps also opened up avenues of other problems and the main one being financing such projects. What this meant is that developmental issues had to be set aside to manage, the xenophobia and the refugee camps (Geldenhuys and Dewet, 2008).

Peace and security are threatened in general. This disrupts the social order as it becomes a situation where the fittest person survives. There is usually lawlessness and misrule of law. Humanitarian workers are at times kidnapped or killed, aid is stolen or looted. At times aid is also suspended impinging hardly on those in need. People might get starved to death due to hunger. Due to easy access to arms in conflict situations a lot of people get engaged in criminal activities as a survival strategy (Collier and Hoeffler, 2000).

Conflict besides being a hazard by itself it becomes the root cause or catalyst of other disasters like the illness and hunger. It worsens disasters. Where there is conflict there is social and economic disruption. People are disturbed from their economic activities of growing food on their land as they are displaced. Accessing food from shops also becomes impossible as shops are looted, closed or destroyed. This brings about hunger (Bhavnan, 2006).

Infrastructure like hospitals and clinics are also destroyed. People fail to get or access health care. Children fail to get immunised from various viral problems. The fact that people also become concentrated in one place or areas like refugee camps also cause illness from fungal, bacterial and many viral diseases (Bhavnan, 2006).

Women are raped. The vulnerability of women increases drastically when the traditional protection afforded to them by their families and communities is disrupted or unavailable owing to displacement or separation. In such circumstances, women especially girls are all too often exposed to threats or acts of violence by parties to armed conflicts, be they military forces, armed groups or the police (www.american.gov/st/democracyhr). At times, their personal safety is also threatened by members of peacekeeping forces, humanitarian workers or private individuals (Morse, 2009).

Children are abused. The military use of children takes three distinct forms: children can take direct part in hostilities (Child soldiers), or they can be used in support roles such as porters, spies, messengers, look outs, and

sexual slaves or they can be used for political advantage either as human shield or in propaganda (www.reliefweb.int/library/documents/chilsold.htm).

Reduced economic activity due to insecurity is also an effect of conflict. Many companies, industries become non functional or scale down operations during conflict periods. Some relocate to peaceful countries. This causes loss of investor confidence and business potential. Due to lack of production in the affected countries, trade becomes limited and some countries are even slapped with economic sanctions. This also has the effect that people lose their jobs thereby affecting their economic power to look after their families well. Human activity is reduced because of conditions like curfews that might be imposed to restrict the movement of people in certain areas at particular times of the day. Human activity might also be reduced as some people get killed, run away from the conflicts or even brain drain (Fairhead, 2000).

Direct costs become a problem. A lot of money is diverted from developmental projects to fund military or law enforcements projects to deal with conflict situations. The presence of United Nations or African Union missions shows that extra budgets are being created to manage such ventures at the expense of essential services. There is also an effect on medical costs. A lot of people, the military, rebels and civilians get injured especially during armed conflicts. This means they have to be hospitalised or need drugs for treatment. During such emergencies most medical costs are sponsored by the cash strapped governments (Saundry, 2008).

There is loss of developmental aid as war is destructive. Organizations or even governments that want to be sponsor or be involved in developmental aid will withhold or withdraw aid. They cannot invest their money where the degree of losing it due to structural damage or destruction is obvious (www.wilsoncenter.org/index.cfm?fuseaction=events).

Brain drain or human capital flight is very prevalent. Individuals with technical skills or knowledge, usually leave their countries due to conflict, political instability, or security risks. Brain drain is usually regarded as an economic cost, since emigrants usually take with them the fraction of value of their training sponsored by the government. Political instability, civil strife, economic and social deterioration characterized by working and living conditions in countries of origin are also some of the causes (www.helium.com/items/1364457-effects-of-brain-drain-on-development).

5. Conclusion

Conflict is causing havoc in Africa and is also a carrier of other disaster hazards like illness and hunger. It makes the management of disaster difficult. Some of it like armed conflict is presumed sponsored. The conflict indicators are many and varied depending on the conflict type. Some indicators also overlap. Wars are a major cause of poverty, underdevelopment, and ill health in poor countries. They often have cultural dimensions related to ethnicity or religion, and there are underlying economic and social causes too. The major root causes of conflict include political, economic, and social inequalities, extreme poverty, economic stagnation; poor government services, high unemployment, environmental degradation, and individual (economic) incentives to fight. To reduce the likelihood of conflicts it is essential to promote inclusive development, reduce inequalities between groups and use conflict indicators to identify situations than might lead to conflict. Once identified conflict prevention, mitigation, preparedness and response mechanisms have to be activated.

References

Books

1. Auty, R.M., (1993) *Sustaining Development in Mineral Economies: The Resource Curse Thesis*. Routledge, London.
2. Bhattacharyya, D.K (2003) *Reserach Methodology*. New Dehli, Excel Books.
3. Charles. C, and Mertle, A (2003) *Introduction to Educational Research*, Boston : Pearson Education company.
4. Checkland. P (1999) *Systems Thinking, Systems Practice*, John Wiley and Sons. New York.
5. Demer (2009) *Fundamentals of Geographical Information Systems*, USA, John Wiley and Sons.
6. Ehrilich, P and Ehrilich, A (1990) *The Population Explosion*, London, Arrow Books.
7. Foster, H.D. (1980) *Disaster Planning. The Preservation of Life and Property*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
8. Henderson. I, (2004) *Training in Mediation : African Solutions to African Problems*, ACCORD, South Africa.
9. Hussey and Hussey. R (1997) *Business Research, basingstoke*: Palgrave Macmillian.
10. Luckham.R, Ahmed.I, Muggah.R, White.S., (2001) *Conflict and Poverty in Sub-Sahara Africa: An assessment of the issues and evidence*, Dept of Developmental Studies, University of Sussex.
11. Kpundeh. S. J., (1995) *Project on Democratisation: Democratisation in Africa, African Views, African Voices*, USA, National Academy Press.
12. Koppell and Sharma., (2003) *Preventing the next wave of conflict: Understanding non- traditional threats to global stability*, Woodrow Wilson International Centre for Scholars, Washington D.C.
13. Michi Ebata (2001) *Mainstreaming Conflict Prevention in Analysis and Programming. A Review of*

CCA/UNDAF process, Toronto, Canada.

14. Saunders, M, Lewis, P and Thornhill, A (2003) *Research Methods for Business Students*. Harlow: Financial times, Prentice Hall.
15. Stewart., (2002) *Root causes of violent conflict in developing countries, development studies*, Queen Elizabeth House, Oxford.
16. Von Bertalanffy, L (1988) *General Systems Theory: Foundations, development Applications*, G.Braziller, New York.
17. Wisner, B. Blaike, P. Cannon, T. And Davis, I. (2004) *At Risk, Natural Hazards, People's Vulnerability and Disasters*. (2nd ed.) New York: Routledge.
- Journals, Papers and Other publications*
18. African Union Commission (2008) *Meeting the Challenges of Conflict Prevention. Proposal for an indicators module towards the operationalisation of the Continental Early Warning System for African Union*, Issue paper Number 2.
19. Bobeica, Jean-Paul, Test and Teofile (Undated) *A study of root causes of conflict using Latent Scientific Analysis*, IPSC Joint Research Centre, European Commission, Italy.
20. Chairman of Commission (2009) *Enhancing Africa's Resolve and Effectiveness in Ending Conflict and Sustaining Peace*: Special Session of the Assembly of the Union on the consideration and resolution of Conflicts in Africa, Libya 30-31 August 2009.
21. Collier, P. and Hoeffler, A., 2004. *The Challenge of Reducing the Global Incidence of Civil War*. Copenhagen Consensus Challenge Paper.
22. Commission on Human Security (2003) *Human security now*. Communications Development Incorporated, Washington.
23. Cutler, J (2007) *Armed Conflict in Africa. A threat to Regional Co-operation*. United Nations Environmental Programme.
24. DMC (2000) *Ten-Day Bulletin*. DEKAD 19 report (1-10 July 2000), Nairobi, drought Monitoring Centre.
25. Douglas, O, Kemedi, V, Okonta, I. and Watts, M., 2003. *Alienation and Militancy in the Niger Delta: A response to CSIS on Petroleum, Politics and Democracy in Nigeria*. Foreign Policy in Focus Special Report. Foreign Policy in Focus, Silver City and Washington, D.C.
26. *Environmental Health in Emergencies and Disasters: A Practical Guide*: WHO 2002.
27. FAO (2000) *ACC Inter-Agency Task Force on the UN response to long-term Food Security Agricultural Development and related aspects in the horn of Africa*, Rome, FAO.
28. FAO (2001) *17 countries are facing exceptional Food Emergencies in sub-saharan africa. FAO concerned about deteriorating food situation in Sudan, Somalia and Zimbabwe*. Press release 01/48. Rome. FAO.
29. Findlay, A.M (1996) *Population and Environment in Arid Regions*. Policy and Research Paper No. 10. Paris, International Union for the Scientific Study of Population.
30. Gomme and Patrassi (1996) *Rainfall Variability and Drought in Sub-Saharan Africa since 1960*. FAO. Agro meteorology Working Paper No. 9, Rome, FAO.
31. Hagemeyer, G and Weissman, M (2003) *Early warning indicators for Preventative Policy. A new approach to Early Warning Research*, Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI), March 2003.
32. Homer-Dixon, T., 1994. *Environmental Scarcities and Violent Conflict: Evidence from Cases*. International Security, 19 (1), 5-40.
33. Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-15: *Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities in disasters*. World Conference on Disaster Reduction 18-22 January, Kobe, Hyogo, Japan.
34. IPCC (2001) *Climate Change 2001: The scientific basis Contribution of working group I to the third assessment report of the Inter-governmental panel on climate change*. New York, Cambridge University Press.
35. ISDR. 2002. *Living with Risk. A Global Review of Disaster Reduction Initiatives*. Geneva: United Nations.
36. ISDR. 2004. *Living with Risk. A Global Review of Disaster Reduction Initiatives*. Volume 1. Geneva: United Nations.
37. Journal of Peace Research / Conflict Resolution.
38. Kasperson, R. 2001. *Research and Assessment Systems for Sustainability*. The George Perkins Marsh Institute Clark University.
39. Lange, G. and Wright, M., 2002. *Sustainable Development in Mineral Economies: The example of Botswana*. Centre for Environmental Economics and Policy in Africa (CEEPA). Discussion Paper Series, 2002(3) University of Pretoria, Pretoria.
40. Lodge (1999) *Towards Understanding Contemporary Armed Conflicts in Africa*, Monograph No. 36: Whither Peacekeeping in Africa: April 1999.
41. Nitzschke, H., 2003. *Transforming War economies: Challenges for Peace Making and Peace Building*. Report of the 725th Wilton Park Conference, New York, USA, 27-29 October 2003.

42. UNDHA (1994) *First African Sub-Regional Workshop on Natural Disaster Reduction*. Gaborone, 28 November to 02 December 1994. Gaborone United nations department of Humanitarian Affairs.
43. UNDP (2001) *Disaster Profiles of the least developed countries*, Geneva, United Nations Development Programme Emergency response division.
44. UNDP (2009) *Reducing Disaster Risk – A Challenge for Development*. United Nations Development Programme, New York.
45. UNEP (1999), *Western Indian Ocean Environmental outlook*, Nairobi, United Nations Environmental Programme.
46. UN/ISDR (2006) *International Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction*, issue 13, 2006.
- Verstegen, S (1999) *Conflict Prognostication: Toward a tentative framework for Conflict Assessment*, The Hague.
47. World Bank (2001a) *Upgrading Urban Communities*, version 2001. Spotlight on Alexandra, South Africa, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
48. Zimbabwe Peace Project, (2008) March 29 *Harmonised election post mortem, An analysis of trends, patterns and predictions for electoral run off*.
- Internet publications
49. Acharya, M. (2005) 'Amateur Radio, A potential tool in emergency operations', i4d Magazine, Volume 3, Number 1, January 2005, Centre for Science, Development and Media Studies, New Delhi, India. <http://www.i4donline.net/jan05/amateur.asp>
50. Anderskov, C. 2004. *Anthropology and Disaster - An analysis of current trends within anthropological disaster research, and an attempt to construct an approach that facilitates theory building and applied practices - analyzed with vantage point in a case- study from the flood-prone Mutarara District in Mozambique* http://www.anthrobase.com/Txt/A/Anderskov_C_03.htm#21_Research%20Framework.
51. *Causes of conflict*:
Retrieved from www.conflictsensitivity.org/resource on 22/10/09.
52. *Committing to action: Achieving the Millennium Development Goals. High-level event on the Millennium development goals*, United Nations Headquarters, 25 September 2008. Retrieved from www.un.org/millenniumgoals/2008highlevel on 11/12/09
53. Clothier, J (2005). 'Dutch trial SMS disaster alert system', CNN.com. <http://edition.cnn.com/2005/TECH/11/09/dutch.disaster.warning/index.html>
54. Cutter, S. 2006. *The Geography of social vulnerability: Race, Class and Catastrophe*. <http://www.understandingkatrina.ssrc.org/cutter/>
55. Dilley (1997) *Warning and Intervention. What kind of information does the response community need from the early warning community?* Internet Journal of African studies, Vol 2, University of Bradford. www.brad.ac.uk/research/ijasno2/dilley.html (Geo-2-336)
56. Dunnette, R (2006) 'Radio and TV Broadcasting for Disaster Relief and Public Warning', *Pacific Telecommunications Council '06 Proceedings*. <http://www.ptc06.org/program/public/proceedings/>
57. *Early warning systems*:
Retrieved from <http://beforeproject.org/publications> on 15/10/09.
58. Hauss, C.C. (2003). "Addressing Underlying Causes of Conflict." *Beyond Intractability*. Eds. Guy Burgess and Heidi Burgess. Conflict Research Consortium, University of Colorado, Boulder.
Retrieved from http://www.beyondintractability.org/essay/addressing_underlying_causes/ on 08/01/10.
59. IFRC (2001) *World Disasters Report 2001*. International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent societies. <http://www.ifrc.org/publicat/wdr2001/>(Geo-2-334)
60. *Information Communication Technology for Disaster Managers* Retrieved from : [Http://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/ICT for Disaster Managers](http://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/ICT_for_Disaster_Managers) on 25/09/09.
61. Kim (2000) *Southern Africa swamped by rains*. Disaster News Network. http://www.disasternews.net/disasters/2-14-00_Africaswamped.shtml(Geo-2-337).
62. Putnam, L (2002) 'By Choice or by Chance: How the Internet Is Used to Prepare for, Manage, and Share Information about Emergencies', *First Monday*, Volume 7, Number 11 (November 2002). http://www.firstmonday.org/issues/issue7_11/putnam/index.html
63. Samarajiva, R. Malathy K.J. Peter S. A. and Zainudeen, A. (2005) *National Early Warning System: Sri Lanka – A Participatory Concept Paper for the Design of an Effective All-Hazard Public Warning System, Version 2.1*, Lirneasia, Sri Lanka. <http://www.lirneasia.net/2005/03/national-early-warning-system>
64. Subramanian, T.S (2005) *Their own Warning System*. Front line. Volume 22, Issue 02, 15- 28 January 2005 <http://www.hinduonnet.com/fline/fl2202/stories/20050128006701600.htm>
65. *The Disaster Management Cycle*; Retrieved from www.gdrc.org/uem/disasters/l-dmcycle.html on 03/09/09.

66. www.rebirth.co.za/armed_Conflict_and_war_in_Africa.htm.
67. *Armed conflict 1946-99. A new Dataset*. Retrieved from <http://isanet.ccit.arizona.edu/archive/npg.html> on 13/10/09.
68. *Rwanda Genocide*. Retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rwanda_Genocide on 14/12/09.
69. *Religious conflicts in Nigeria*. Retrieved from <http://allafrica.com/stories> on 14/12/09.
70. Opala, K (2006) *Kenya: climate change fuelling conflicts* Retrieved from <http://allafrica.com/stories> on 14/12/09.
71. *The causes of xenophobia* Retrieved from www.worldsocialism.org/spgb/may01/xeno.html on 14/12/09
72. Okungu., (2009) *Africa: Does Kenya and Zimbabwe have similar political destiny* <http://allafrica.com/stories/200903060206.html>.
73. Shea. S., (undated) Commentry: *African leaders, corruption and colonialism* <http://www.helium.com/items/310265-commentry>

This academic article was published by The International Institute for Science, Technology and Education (IISTE). The IISTE is a pioneer in the Open Access Publishing service based in the U.S. and Europe. The aim of the institute is Accelerating Global Knowledge Sharing.

More information about the publisher can be found in the IISTE's homepage:

<http://www.iiste.org>

CALL FOR PAPERS

The IISTE is currently hosting more than 30 peer-reviewed academic journals and collaborating with academic institutions around the world. There's no deadline for submission. **Prospective authors of IISTE journals can find the submission instruction on the following page:** <http://www.iiste.org/Journals/>

The IISTE editorial team promises to review and publish all the qualified submissions in a **fast** manner. All the journals articles are available online to the readers all over the world without financial, legal, or technical barriers other than those inseparable from gaining access to the internet itself. Printed version of the journals is also available upon request of readers and authors.

IISTE Knowledge Sharing Partners

EBSCO, Index Copernicus, Ulrich's Periodicals Directory, JournalTOCS, PKP Open Archives Harvester, Bielefeld Academic Search Engine, Elektronische Zeitschriftenbibliothek EZB, Open J-Gate, OCLC WorldCat, Universe Digital Library, NewJour, Google Scholar

