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Contents

CHAPTER ONE

I. Introduction

1.1 Social issues; *Essence…………………...*

Social issues: referring to community, human rights, consumer, societal, employee and labor issues that affect or affected by companies and their operations.

Social issues: questions concerning how events may affect society as a whole and individuals in society.

Social issues; *are matters which directly or indirectly affect many or all members of a society, and are considered to be problems, controversies related to moral values or both.*

Social issues: are related to the fabric of the community, including conflicts among the interest of community members, and lie beyond the control of anyone individual.

Social issues: include

- Abortion	- justice	- discrimination
- Pollution	- poverty	- homelessness
- Gay rights	- racism	- adolescent pregnancy
- Gun control	- unemployment	- social integration
- Human rights	- social discrimination	- injustice
- Under age sex	- war	- gay marriage
- Violence	- HIV/AIDS	- environmentalism
- Crime	- peace	- food security etc…

1.2 What is a social problem?

A **SocialProblem** is *a condition that at least some people in a community view as being undesirable.* It is a situation that threatens the quality of people's lives and their most cherished values, and something should be done to remedy that condition.

Everyone would agree about some social problems, such as murders and traffic deaths. Other social problems may be viewed as such by certain groups of people. Teenagers who play loud music in a public park obviously do not view it as a social problem, but some other people may consider it an undesirable social condition. Some smokers view smoking as an undesirable social condition that should be banned or restricted in public buildings.

Examples of social problems include crime, violence, drug abuse, and environmental

problems. Such social problems can be found at the local and, state, national and international levels.

Perspectives in social problems

There are three major perspectives about social problems.

1. The functionalist perspective

The functionalist perspective looks at the way major social institutions like the family, the military, the health care system, and the police and courts are actually operate. According to this perspective, the role behavior associated with any given status has evolved as a means of allowing a particular social institution to fulfill its function in society. For this perspective, the main reason for the existence of social problems is that societies are always changing; failure to adapt successfully to change leads to social problems.

In the early 1900's, functionalist theorists viewed social problems like criminal deviance. All societies produce their own unique forms of crime and their own ways of responding to them. Societies fear most crimes that seem to threaten their most cherished values, and individuals who dare to challenge those values will receive the most severe punishment.

The functionalist perspective on social problems like criminal deviance has changed considerably since the 19thcentury. Functionalist theorists regarded such behavior as a form of **social disease** or **social pathology-** social problems arise when either individuals or social institutions fail to keep pace with changing conditions and thereby disrupt the healthy operation of the social organization; such individuals or institutions are considered sick.

Later functionalist theory of **social disorganization** tends to emphasize the effects of immigration, urbanization and industrialization on societies lead for many social problems.

In the present time, **modern functionalists** often conduct institutional research designed to show how people and societies recognize their lives and institutions to cope with new conditions.

2. The conflict perspective

The conflict perspective rejects the idea that social problems can be corrected by reforming institutions that are not functioning well. It is based on the belief that social problems arise out of major contradictions in the way societies are organized contradictions that lead to large scale conflict between those who have access to the good life and those who do not.

This perspective owes much to the writings of Karl Marx, the German social theorist who developed many of the central ideas of modern socialism. In this perspective there are two major theories. These are **Marxian conflict theory** that underlining patterns of class conflict and **value conflict theory** that assumes social problems occur when groups with different values meet and compete.

3. The interactionist perspective

This perspective offers an explanation that gets closer to the individual levels of behavior. Research based on this perspective looks at the process where by different people becomes part of a situation that the larger society defines as a social problem. The interactionist approach focuses on the ways in which people actually take on the values of the group of which they are members. It also explored how different groups define their situation and in so doing construct a version of life that promotes certain values and behaviors and discourages others.

Labeling theory is an application of the interactionist perspective, and according to this theory, social problems are conditions under which certain behaviors or situations become defined as problems. In this theory, the cause of a social problem is simply society's awareness that a certain behavior or situation exists.

Table 1; Major Perspectives on Social Problems

Perspective	View of social problems	Origin of social problems	Proposed solutions
Functionalist	➢ Social problems are disruptions of system. Problems of social institut produce patterns of deviance and institutions must address such patt through strategic social change.	➢ Social problems result f the impersonal operation existing institutions.	➢ Create new organizat to address s problems
Conflict	➢ Defines social problems as condit that do not conform to soci values.	➢ Groups with different va and differing amount of po meet and compete.	➢ Build stronger s movements an groups with grievar The conflicting gr may then engage negotiations and r mutual accommodati

Interactionist	➢ Definition of deviance or so problems is subjective; separ deviant and non-deviant people no what they do but by how so reacts to what they do.	➢ Society becomes aware certain behaviors exist labels them as social proble	➢ Re socialize deviant increasing their cont with accepted patterr behavior; make social system less rig

1.3 Contemporary world

Contemporary means happening, existing, living or coming into being during the same period of time.

World means the earthly state of human existence.

Contemporary world is the circumstances and ideas of the present age. It is the synonym for modern times, modern world, and present time.

At the end of the twentieth century, the world was at the major crossroads. Throughout the century, more technological advances had been made than in all of preceding history. Computers, the internet, and other modern technology radically altered daily lives. Increased globalization, specifically Americanization had occurred. While not necessarily a threat, it has caused anti-western feelings in part of the world, especially the Middle East. The English language has become a leading global language, with people who did not speak it becoming increasingly disadvantaged.

In the contemporary era, several issues are faced in the world. Some of these are;

✓ Wealth concentrated among the G-8 and western industrialized nations, along with several Asian nations, and OPEC countries.

✓ Disease threatened to destabilize many regions of the world. New viruses such as bird flu continued to spread quickly and easily. In poor nations malaria and other disease affected the majority of the population. Millions were infected with HIV, the virus which causes AIDS.

✓ Terrorism, dictatorship and the spread of nuclear weapons were also issues requiring immediate attention.

✓ The change of climate over the past century, have been attributed of to various factors which have resulted in global warming. This warming increase the average temperature of the earth's near surface air and oceans since the mid 20th century and its projected

continuation. Some effects on both the natural environment and human life are, at vast in part, already being attributed to global warming. It is usually impossible to connect specific weather events to human impact on the world. Instead, such impact is expected to cause changes in the overall distribution and intensity of weather events, such as change to the frequency and intensity of heavy precipitation. E.g. arctic shrinkage, sea level rise, glacial retreat, etc...

CHAPTER TWO

Definition

Food Security,global challenge of food security and nutrition

According to the UN's Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the definition of food security has evolved over the years (FAO 2006). The term "food security" arose in the 1970s during a period of food crisis. Originally, food security definitions focused primarily on food supply issues related to availability, but the definition has grown over time to be more inclusive of all issues surrounding the food system (Webb et al. 2009). One commonly used definition of food security was established by the 1996 World Food Summit.

This definition states that food security:"…exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life" (FAO 2006).

A later definition by the FAO adds an emphasis to the social aspect of food security that was missing in the 1996 one. According to this definition, food security: "…exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food which meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life" (FAO 2006).

In a later document, the FAO (2006) describes 4 key aspects of food security: Food must be **available i**n sufficient quantities and quality. Food must be **accessible**. Food must be **utilized properly** through adequate diets to meet all physiological needs. This proper utilization of food includes important non-food inputs such as clean water and sanitation to ensure health.

Finally, food **must be stable,** meaning that all individuals must have access to adequate food at all times. Stable food systems can sustain sudden shocks such as economic or climatic crises (FAO 2006). **Availability and access** are the food security indicators utilized in the most minimal definitions of food security and are therefore the frame of reference for "food security" in this paper. Furthermore, most measurement tools of food insecurity focus on these two aspects of food insecurity.

There is no universally accepted measurement of food insecurity (Webb et al. 2009).

Furthermore, agencies attempting to record food insecurity often have difficulty differentiating between varying community, household, and individual levels of food insecurity (Webb et al. 2006). Proxy measures of food security typically used include; agricultural production, food storage levels, caloric intake, per capita income, or nutritional status (Coates et al. 2003).

Webb et al. (2009) find these measures unsatisfactory, and prefer to measure food insecurity through subjective measures such as working through anthropologists, focus groups, and surveys. One such subjective measurement tool was developed by Swindale and Bilinsky (2009), and their Household Food Insecurity Access Scale was found to be a sensitive indicator of changes in household food security (Swindale and Bilinsky 2009).

Concepts of food security and vulnerability

2.1 What are food insecurity and vulnerability?

Following a number of international summits since the World Food Conference in 1974 and based on work over several decades, the definition of food security is today generally agreed upon. The World Food Summit in 1996 captured earlier work by adopting that *food security exists when all people at all times, have physical andeconomic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life* (FAO 1996). This definition integrates access to food, stability, availability of nutritionally adequate food and the biological utilization of food.

*Food availability*refers to the physical presence of food at various levels from household to national level, be it from own production or through markets. *Food **access** refers* to the ability to obtain an appropriate and nutritious diet and is in particular linkedto resources at the household level. ***Biological utilization***relates to individual level foodsecurity and is the ability of the human body to effectively convert food into energy.

The '**at all times'** and *stability*dimensions point to the need for understanding current as well as likely future status at different points in time. Thus, a framework for analyzing food security must capture the temporal dynamics of food security.

The concept of vulnerability is used with different connotations. A fundamental difference exists between *vulnerability as defenselessness vis-à-vis a harmful event* (for example, vulnerability to drought) and *vulnerability to a specific negative outcome,following a harmful event* (for example vulnerability to food insecurity).

Much of the disaster management literature uses vulnerability with reference to a natural hazard (Alwang, Siegel and Jørgensen 2001) whilst the food security literature, and more recently part of the social risk management and poverty literature (Mansuri and Healy 2001; Dercon 2001a; Holzmann and Jørgensen 2000; World Bank 2000), defines vulnerability in terms of an unfavourable future outcome. This dichotomy is, to some extent, driven by the underlying policy questions that are sought to be addressed. Humanitarian aid and disaster management tend to focus on short-term responses targeted at people who require relief assistance following a natural hazard, these being the vulnerable. Looking at vulnerability relative to a social welfare outcome, on the other hand, is concerned with guaranteeing a minimum welfare threshold in terms of food security, through short as well as longer-term measures.

We define vulnerability relative to the negative outcome of food insecurity. Thus, vulnerability refers to people's propensity to fall, or stay, below this food security threshold within a certain timeframe.

The terms '*vulnerability' and 'food insecurity' are often used interchangeably.* This matters less when focusing on short-term unstable conditions, where there is little or no difference between those being food insecure today or tomorrow. However, over longer periods of time, people move in and out of food insecurity. Thus, while vulnerability refers to the ex-ante probability of falling or remaining below a specific threshold, food insecurity is the current or ex post measure relative to the threshold.

Because vulnerability is linked to the uncertainty of events, everyone is vulnerable to food insecurity, but some more so than others. Vulnerability can be thought of as a continuum. **The higher the probability of becoming food insecure, the more vulnerable one is**. While 'the vulnerable' in praxis are often implicitly understood to be those with a probability of becoming food insecure above a certain predetermined threshold, no standard exists that defines this threshold.

Key food security and nutrition indicators

Progress in fighting hunger and meeting the MDG and WFS targets requires that a number of conditions are in place to ensure the four dimensions of food security and nutrition:

availability, access, stability and utilization are effectively addressed. Examining the dimensions of food security provides a more comprehensive picture, and can also help in targeting and prioritizing food security and nutrition policies and programmes.

Food insecurity in Ethiopia derives directly from dependence on undiversified livelihoods based on low-input, low-output rained agriculture. Ethiopian farmers do not produce enough food even in good rainfall years to meet consumption requirements. Given the fragile natural resource base and climatic uncertainty, *current policy emphases on agricultural intensification are misguided, while institutional constraints such as inflexible land tenure and ethnic federalism perpetuate this unviable livelihood system. Inappropriate food aid interventions by donors add another layer of dependence, at both household and national levels.*

Food insecurity incorporates low food intake, variable access to food, and vulnerability – a livelihood strategy that generates adequate food in good times but is not resilient against shocks. The*se outcomes correspond broadly to chronic, cyclical and transitory food insecurity, and all are endemic in Ethiopia. The main triggers of transitory food insecurity in Ethiopia are drought and war. Seasonality is a major cause of cyclical food insecurity.* Structural factors *contributing to chronic food insecurity include poverty (as both cause and consequence), the fragile natural resource base, weak institutions (notably markets and land tenure) and unhelpful or inconsistent government policies.*

The distinction between transitory and chronic food insecurity is increasingly blurred. A subgroup of virtually assetless rural Ethiopians is emerging who are subjected to all forms of food insecurity. They cannot meet their food needs even under ideal weather conditions, they suffer seasonal hunger and malnutrition, and they are acutely vulnerable to famine in years of low or erratic rainfall. Less well understood than the immediate impact of drought on rural livelihoods is the impact of repeated droughts on long term food insecurity. Two vicious cycles are at work: recovery (e.g. of herds) from food crises is cut short by the next drought, and the threat of drought - which occurs frequently but is unpredictable in its timing and severity - inhibits investment in productivity-enhancing agricultural inputs, because the downside risk for marginal farmers is too high.

Current conventional understanding on food insecurity in Ethiopia asserts that the problem can be simply conceptualized, as follows:-

Landholdings are too small - although (or because) unusually evenly distributed - to allow most farming households to achieve food production self-sufficiency;

Population increase reduces landholdings further and places intolerable stress on an already fragile natural resource base;

Soil fertility, already very low, is declining due to intensive cultivation and limited application of yield-enhancing inputs;

Recurrent droughts add food production shocks to abnormally low yields;

Limited off-farm employment opportunities restrict diversification and migration options, leaving people trapped in increasingly unviable agriculture.

Following Chambers (1983), analysts of food insecurity in Ethiopia can be divided into two groups: the 'physical ecology cluster', who focus on population growth, declining soil fertility and drought, and the 'political economy cluster', who blame government policies, weak markets and institutional failure.

An example of the 'physical ecology' discourse: according to Holt and Dessalegn (1999:i), poverty in rural Ethiopia is "a result not simply of drought but of an increasing shortage of the barest assets needed for agricultural survival. … The root factor is common to much of the rest of Ethiopia: ever greater density of the rural population through natural increase".

An example of the 'political economy' discourse comes from the World Bank (2000:170): "Centuries of poor policies and institutional failures are the primary cause of Africa's under-capitalised and uncompetitive agriculture. Adverse resource endowments have also had some direct effects".

A basic distinction between poverty and food insecurity is the latter's focus on instability. While poverty indices measure headcounts, depth and severity at a point in time, food insecurity incorporates vulnerability as a determinant of illbeing. People are food insecure not only because their food consumption level is low, but also because their access to food is variable and unpredictable over time (from one year or season to the next).

Factors Affecting Food Security

1-Land allocation

-Land allocation affects long-term food security (inequitable distribution Land by traditional authorities (chiefs)

 Ex. If you have land, you can feed yourself."

2- The Role of Government Agricultural Programs in Food Aid and Food Security

3- Economic Performance

A weak economy is also a potential contributor to food insecurity.

Rapid Assessment report released in March of 2012, "…food security seems to have deteriorated as households have been coping with the consequences of the fiscal crisis combined with the rising food price" (UN Swaziland 2012).

None of the food aid or food security experts interviewed noted economic performance or job loss as a cause of food insecurity in Swaziland. This indicates that development ideology's perception that there is a strong correlation between food security and market performance in Swaziland may not actually be the case.

4.Using inefficient and outdated agricultural practices and custom it is a cause of food insecurity.

5. Climatic factors (drought)

Climate plays an important role in food security. If poor climatic conditions exist, a food system must be stable enough to absorb the shocks caused on the food system by bad weather.

6. Role of food aid in food security

Post-development theorists view development organizations as a kind of **neo-colonial** exertion of power on "developing" countries to fit into the Western ideal of progress without regard for indigenous movements or preferences.

The global challenge of food security and nutrition

The proportion of undernourished people in the developing regions has fallen by almost half since 1990 (from 23.3 percent in 1990-92 to 12.9 percent in 2014-16), but almost 800 million people worldwide still suffer from hunger and are unable to consume enough food to conduct an active and healthy life. In addition to acute hunger, 2 billion suffer from micronutrient deficiencies. At the same time 1.9 billion are overweight, which is a growing trend, including in the global South. Scores for the Global Hunger Index, based on indicators related to undernourishment, wasting, stunting and child mortality show the greatest needs in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia.

Food insecurity from the people's perspective

Food insecurity is not an exclusively rural phenomenon. A growing proportion of food insecure people live in urban areas. Marginalized in various ways, most resource poor food insecure people are excluded from public decision-making. In the absence of effective education and training systems, they lack skills and access to information on jobs and market opportunities. The lack of access to credit makes investments in income-generating assets impossible.

Not having a regular income, they are in constant need of cash in order to purchase food and other essential goods or to cover school fees and health costs. Hungry people neither have the possibility nor the information to provide their children a diverse and nutritious meal. Breaking the vicious circle of malnutrition means avoiding situations where children start their lives stunted, being too short for their age. Rural smallholder families often concentrate their agricultural production on few staple food crops and have very little material savings. Living in remote areas or not being in a position to afford paid services they tend to be neglected by advisory services and to lose the bargaining power required with market actors such as agro dealers or money lenders. Research rarely addresses improvement of crops and cultivation techniques that are particular to their economic and social situation or ignores their experiential knowledge. Access to land for smallholders and in particular for women is often not secured; land may be taken away by investors holding titles and by non-agricultural ventures. Common lands are becoming increasingly scarce. The children of rural poor people are tempted to migrate without having non-agricultural skills, and are often caught in a poverty trap. Traditional (family) safety nets and social norms may lose their cohesiveness. Having very limited assets – few animals and seeds – any shock endangers their survival. With the changing climate as well as growing political instability and economic volatility at the global and national levels, their livelihood remains extremely vulnerable.

Food insecurity from a global perspective

People migrating to urban areas and to foreign countries in search of a decent life, and people living in situations of protracted crises and conflicts – and those escaping them – often face food insecurity and undernutrition. According to the 2015 Global Hunger Index, the countries with the lowest levels of food security are engaged in or recently emerged from war. Although war and conflicts remain a major cause of hunger and malnutrition,

they are by far not the only one. Compounded with growing inequalities, migration places substantial stress on the global food system's capacity to provide affordable food for all. The pollution and degradation of air, soil, water, the loss of the genetic heritage, thus the substantial ecological footprint of agriculture and the changing and increasingly unpredictable climate continue to threaten the foundation of food production and the livelihood of the world's population. The current global food system does not provide all people with a healthy diet and does not generate adequate livelihoods for millions of people. Driven by international trade and intellectual property rights regimes, global food markets often leave poor people exposed to volatile prices and instable supplies. The global food price crises in 2008 showed the fragility of the food system by pushing people into poverty and hunger and triggering political riots and major geopolitical changes.

The World Food Summit 2002 declared:

"Food security exists, when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food which meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life."

Availability: There is reliable and consistent source of quality food

Access: People have sufficient resources to produce and/or purchase food

Utilization: People have the knowledge and basic sanitary conditions to choose, prepare, and distribute food in a way that results in good nutrition

Stability: People's ability to access and utilize food that remains stable and sustained over time.

3. Stability
Markets, information, infrastructure, transport services, intermediaries

1. Availability
Land, water, labour, biodiversity, technologies credit, subsidies

Food Security & Nutrition

4. Utilisation
Balanced diets, food safety, processing, sanitation

2. Access
Purchasing power, employment, social insurances, social safety nets
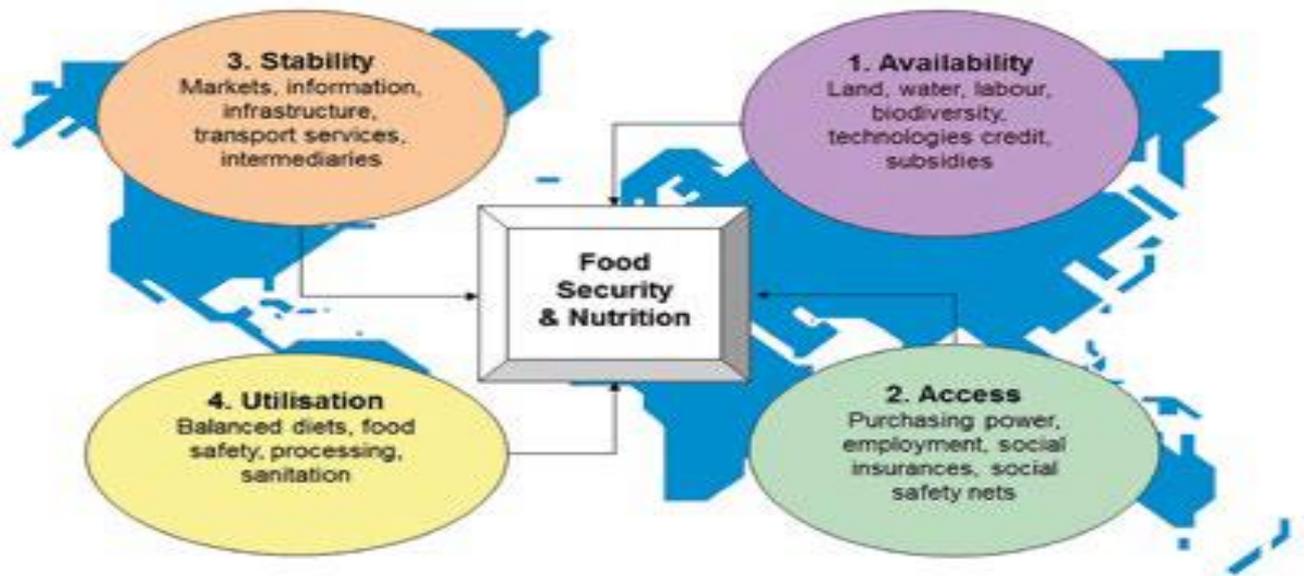
CHAPTER THREE

POVERTY, ITS CAUSES AND MEASURES

Basic needs and poverty

Basic needs are those things that an individual must have in order to survive as a human being. These are: -

- Clean air and water
- Adequate and balanced food
- Physical and emotional security
- Physical and mental rest
- Culturally and climatically appropriate clothing and shelter.

Since humans are inherently social, the survival of human race depends on the survival of communities. Thus, basic individual needs also include;

- Sexual regeneration
- System of communication /language/
- A belief and educational system for cultural continuity
- Physical and cultural security
- Political system
- System of health and recreation

Poverty can be defined in terms of basic needs. Poverty classified in to two. These are absolute and relative poverty

1. **Absolute poverty**: - is the inability of an individual, a community or a nation to satisfactorily meet its basic needs. These people need immediate relief in order to survive or they are population at need.

2**. Relative poverty**: - is the condition in which basic needs are met, but where there is an inability to meet perceived needs and desires in addition to basic needs. These people need development assistance in order to meet the perceived needs or desired needs or they are population at risk.

Identifying and Measuring Poverty

The wealth of nations is often measured in terms of gross national product(GNP) - is the total value of a nation's annual output of goods and services. Its measurements are usually

presented in terms of per capita figures i.e. GNP/total population. Therefore per capital GNP figures are an aggregate numbers i.e. they are based on average, which is misleading. In order to measure poverty another approach has been developed. This approach is called the physical quality of life index. /PQLI/

There are various ways of putting together the index. All of these are based on the selection and measuring of physical factors that indicate the state of people's health and welfare. The standard factors are usually life expectancy, child mortality and adult literacy. Other factors include malnourishment child morbidity and school attendance.

Generally speaking, PQLI give a better indication of the standard of living for an average person than the national economic statistics / GNP per capital/. But the PQLI does not tell you the whole story /reality/.

In recent the third way of identifying and measuring poverty has been developed. That is the basic needs approach. In this method the presence or absence of minimal basic human requirements for life as well as essential services indicate the degree of poverty / level of standards of living.

There are numerous problems involved in attempts to identify and quantify poverty. No one has given complete measurement. Some factors such as happiness, security, togetherness and others are immeasurable factors of welfare.

But estimates of the levels of family income, food and nutrition, infant mortality, shelter, potable water, sanitation etc are adequate to identify those areas and groups of people who are in need of developmental efforts.

3.1. Symptoms versus causes of poverty

In the above section we have seen some of the explanations given to explain the continued existence of extreme poverty. On the other hand chambers /1983/ argued for recognizing multiple causation, multiple objectives and multiple interventions. According to him, it is therefore; wise to analyze each given situation individually starting with an examination of to local causes and finishing with an evaluation of how national and international political and socio-economic relationships affect the poor in each particular program area. In each situation we can find a complex network of interrelated causes that may differ from one particular area to another.

The first step in assisting poor rural people on to the path of development must be an

analysis of the causes of poverty affecting particular people in their own particular situation.

The list made by a European business man as to the causes of poverty is similar to that of the third world countries and it appear as follows.

Table 1.1 Causes of poverty

Malnutrition	Low income	Lack of clean water
Illiteracy	Lack of transport	low productivity
Poor sanitation	overpopulation	poor housing
Laziness/idleness	Drunkenness	Superstition
Backwardness	Hunger	corruption
Drought/floods	Indebtedness	Exploitation
Deforestation	Lack of tools	unemployment
Lack of markets	low prices	lack of skills
Colonialism	poor management	lack of industry
Traditions	lack of credit	lack of initiative
Lack of capital	Mistrust	lack of cooperation

There are still questions as to whether the above listed causes are really the causes of poverty. It is all very well saying that some things are symptoms of poverty while others are the real causes.

 3.2. Vicious circles of Poverty

Though it is said among the above mentioned factors some are considered as causes while others are symptoms of poverty.

The category is not simple. Disease and malnourishment cause poor health: and if you are sick, you can't work and if you are sick, you can't work and if you don't work well, your production decrease and your income will also be lower. Poor people seem to get sick more often and recover more slovenly or not at all. This is because there may be no hospital or doctor around them or the poor may not offered the payment since they have law incomes. Neither the government has enough money to pay for all these things. The government's income that is earned through taxing surplus production is low. This is because the production is low because people are sick. Due to this fact we go around in circles and that

is what is mean by vicious circle of poverty. One problem causes another, which in turn causes a third, and we keep finding new linkage until we are right back where we started from and the vicious cycle starts all over again.

The simple drawing of vicious circle of poverty about disease and malnutrition look likes the following

Lack of health facilities	disease/ malnutrition	poor health
Low taxation		Low production
	Low income	
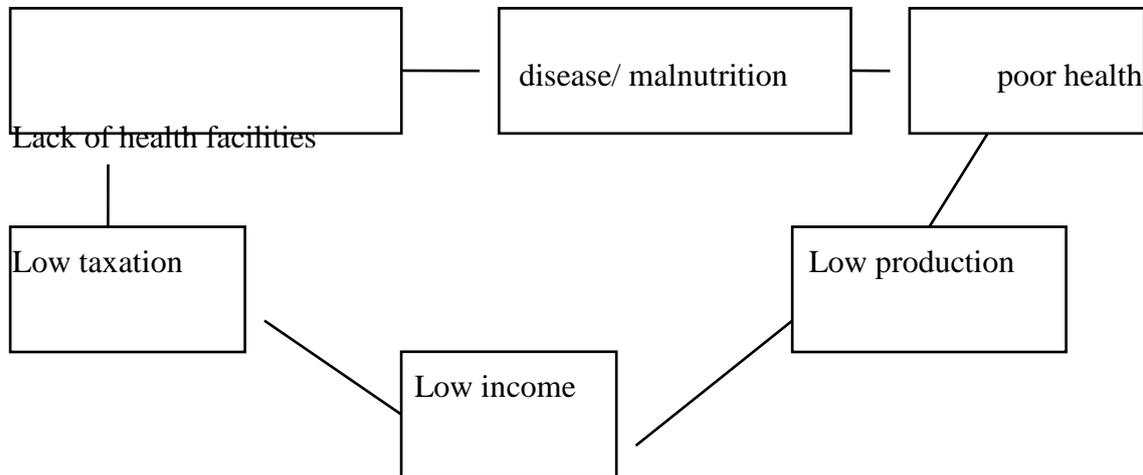
3.3. Causes of poverty

Some of the causes of poverty are economic, social, political and/or physical. Some of the causes had their roots in local communities, national level and some in the international relationships.

Based on this it is possible to categories the causes in to physical, social, economic and political, though it varies from local, region to region and from nation to nation.

The causes of poverty are also categorized in to primary and secondary causes. Primary cause is one, which on deeper analysis, turns out to be the real origin of the secondary cause and more importantly is an entry point for breaking a vicious circle. Trying to alleviate the symptoms without first identifying the real underlying causes /primary causes/ will not lead to sustainable development.

Stratification

This home/shanty in Jakarta is illustrative of the extreme economic stratification and disparity that exists around the world today.

Social stratification refers to the hierarchical arrangement of people in a society. This chapter focuses on economic stratification, meaning how people are differentiated based upon their wealth (and/or power). The most common delineation of economic groups in

societies is that of social classes, ranging from lower/working class to upper-class Alternative systems of economic stratification includes caste systems (which have traditionally combined additional factors, including religion and tradition) and the hierarchical structure in communist countries.

Because the *class* nomenclature is more common, it will be the primary distinction used in this chapter. To begin, this chapter explores what it means to be poor. It then turns to stratification in society, focusing on multiple levels of stratification at the global level and within the U.S.

Objective vs. Subjective Poverty

There are two notions of poverty that are often confused, *objective poverty* and *subjective poverty*. Objective poverty refers to the level of income below which one cannot afford to purchase all the resources one requires to live (poverty line). Objective poverty iscontrasted with subjective poverty; people who feel some sense of deprivation resulting fromtheir lower social standing or position near the bottom of a social hierarchy.

Individuals who are subjectively poor have sufficient funds to survive but do not have as many resources as other members of their society, resulting in a sense of *being poor* despite having enough to survive.

4. Theories of Development

The field of development study is a veritable jungle, inhabited by theories, counter-theories, approaches, paradigms and programs of all sizes, shapes and colors. The book by Magnus Blomstrom and Bjiron Hettne, Development Theory in Transition, is excellent for those who wish to increase their understanding of the many components of present-day development theories.

Most countries in central and South America have been independent for a well over 100 years. It is now over 40 years since India and other countries of the subcontinent gained their independent, and 25 years since most of new countries of sub-Saharan Africa joined the UN as independent countries. With the end of colonialism, expectations were high that the former colonies would experience a period of rapid economic growth and positive social transformations'. The post-war recovery of Europe with assistance from the U.S

Marshal Plan, as well as the Japanese development miracle, had led the economists and statesmen to forecast the possibilities for similar progress in the Third World Countries

There are many explanations given for the causes of underdevelopment in third world countries as there are development theorists. The reasons that have been given for the continued existence of poverty in the third world can be grouped under six headings. These are

1. Lack of modernization tendencies

2. Physical limitations

3. Bureaucratic stifling

4. Exploitation by local elites

5. Colonial Legacies

6. Dependencies of third world countries

1**. Lack of modernization-development through the Westerners**

The emergence of capitalism and the advance of industries gave distinctive form to Western development thinking. Development and economic-growth became synonymous with progress and higher levels of civilization. Development in the third world was expected to be an imitative process in which the less developed countries gradually assumed the qualities of the industrialized nations.

Those who explain poverty in terms of lack of modernization tendencies in the Third World countries often group their reasons in to two main categories. Lack of modern "technology" and lack of "modern" out looks among the people. They are inclined to believe that if these "growth-inhibiting factors" can be removed and replaced with modern technologies and motivations, then development will take-off for the betterment of all concerned.

A. *Lack of modern technology: -* it is argued that poverty exists because the poor lack modern techniques of agriculture, fishing, industry etc. Farmers lack not only modern equipment, improved seed, fertilizers and pesticides but, also they lack the necessary knowledge to use the modern techniques, irrigation, and roads, cooperative and other support facilities. Those who interpret the causes of poverty in this way tend to believe that introducing modern technologies together with the required training and to extension programs will lift the poor out of their destitute situation.

Although these ideas were widely accepted during the first two development decades,

many more recent researchers have vigorously pointed out the weaknesses in these arguments. They maintain that the development of modern cash-crops agriculture has not led to generalized improvements of the income and living standard of third world population. They pointed out that exports crops have replaced food crops and although incomes have risen, food consumption has often decreased. Profits have become concentrated in the hands of merchants, middlemen, large land owners and government bureaucrats. The high cost of modern inputs has increased the debt of small producers. Mechanization has produced a pool of under-employed landless. Violent price fluctuations in the international markets have severely affected small producers as well as national incomes.

It has also been pointed out that no amount of modern technology is going to help peasant farmers unless they also have access to land, reasonable credit and fair market prices.

B. *Lack of modern out looks among the people*: - Poor people are said to resist change because they are ignorant, superstitious, fatalistic traditional etc. They have limited world view and are unable to see the advantage of modernization. They also lack innovativeness and are unable to perceive the advantages of investing today for a better of tomorrow. They have limited aspirations and unable to defer today's gratifications to the future. They are either dependant on or hostile to government and other outside interventions.

Rural economists have shown that poor peasants will tend to adopt production strategies that minimize the risk of failure. These are because they have nothing to fall back on. Dare to this reason, they concentrate on producing adequate quantities of food and little surplus to sell in order to purchase necessary consumer good.

They also tend towards mixed farming to spread their risk. They avoid hybrid seeds that require expensive fertilizers and insecticides which are more susceptible to bad weather conditions and pests. Poor people are not afraid to make money, but they are deathly afraid of losing an entire harvest.

Simply, those who have been stated lack of modern technology as the cause for the continued existence of poverty are shortly criticized for the following reasons.

- Emphasized modernization in cash crop agriculture and this has not old to generalized improvement of incomes and living standards of the rural population
- Export crops have replaced food crops
- Profits have become concentrated in the hands of merchants middle men, large land owners and government bureaucrats
- The high cost of modern inputs has increased the debt of small producers.
- Mechanization produces a pool of under-employed landless.

2. Physical limitation

Many areas of third world countries are subject to long periods of drought, rain when it comes tends to come all at once causing flooding and water logging, thin and delicate soil and frequent natural disaster such as cyclones and earthquakes. But the problem is not the prevalence of drought, rain and natural disasters. Rather it is the inability of nations to respond to it effectively.

Poverty and population pressure intensify the physical limitations. Deforestation that is caused by over-grazing, or the need for more land and firewood resulted in desertification, soil erosion, flooding and micro-climatic changes.

The physical limitation of the poor resulting from their destitute conditions also creates new barriers to development. Symptoms of poverty become the cause of poverty i.e. malnutrition, disease, lack of clean water and proper sanitation weaken the poor and make them physically difficult to break vicious circle of poverty.

High rates of childbirth weaken women physically and lead to greater pressure on the environment.

However, physical limitation can be overcome assuming political and social conditions especially population growth, can be changed rapidly enough to reverse environmental deterioration.

3. Bureaucratic stifling of development

A third set of reason often proposed by non-governmental organizations is the stifling of development by bureaucratic heavy-handedness. In this view, third world governments are saddled with over grown bureaucracies attempting to control all aspects of rural people's development.

Over centralization leads to not only unrelated decisions and programs, but also often harmful to the real interests of the poor people. Lack of genuinely representative local government prevents the emergence of local initiatives. Government bureaucrats and politicians are said to be part of an elite who are uninterested in or antagonistic to the real needs of the poor.

The formalism in government organizations makes it impossible for them to communicate with the common man and woman. Programs and projects initiated from the top-down either never reach the poor or actually make their situation worse.

There is conception that all bureaucrats and government official are corrupt and that their action and decisions are related primarily to their desire for personal gain and prestige. Where government programs are temporarily successful in reaching the rural poor, such programs are often based on the provision of subsidized inputs. And as PaoloFreire has pointed out, 'they create even greater degrees of dependence and dominations. When such programs inevitably collapse, the people tends to sit back and say, when is the government coming back to develop us?'

4. *Exploitation of the poor*

"They used to say we were unproductive because we were lazy and drunkards. All lies. Now that we are respected as men, we're going to show every one that we were never drunkards or lazy. We were exploited." Quoted from Chilean Peasant Leader.

This explanation focuses on the local socio-economic situation of the poor. Immediate causes of poverty lie in the domination of poor people and their resultant dependence on powerful local elites in the form of landowners, merchants and middlemen, moneylenders, corrupt officials and sometimes even religious leaders.

Exploitation of the poor in this context takes many forms. The poor unable to accumulate their own savings or obtain reasonable loan from established credit institutions. Due to this fact they are forced to: borrow from moneylender at usurious terms in order to purchase agricultural inputs, food and supplies in lean pre-harvest periods or to meet the unexpected expenses such as funerals and weddings.

To get such loans, the poor mortgage their land and become landless laborers or share-croppers and even bonded laborers little better than slave.

The government extension agents never visit the poor and as a result

- They can't get bank credit

- They have no say in co-operative decisions.

- Their children are discriminated against at school, as are the women at health clinics.

They are always at the tail-end of irrigation systems and never receive their rightful share of the precious water. The list of oppression is endless.

Many poor people consciously enter into dependency relationships with wealthy merchants or land owners. Organizing to break out of this exploitative relationship carries a high risk of violent oppression by the corrupt and selfish bureaucrats and technocrats.

Any strategy of development, if it is to be successful, must act up on the factors that create dependency.

CHAPTER FOUR

HEALTH, ILLNESS AND HIV AIDS

4.1.Health

Definition: Health is the general condition of a person in all aspects. It is also a level of functional and/or metabolic efficiency of an organism, often implicitly human.

According to WHO, health is defined as being "*a state of complete physical, mental and social well being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.*

In 1986, the WHO, in the Ottawa charter for health promotions said that health is "a resource for everyday life, not the objective of living. Health is a positive concept emphasizing social and personal resources, as well as physical capacities.

Overall health is achieved through the combination of physical, mental and social well being, which together is commonly referred to as the health triangle.

Maintaining health: achieving health and maintaining healthy is an ongoing process. Effective strategies for staying healthy and improving ones health include the following elements.

A. **Social activity:** personal health depends partially on the social structure of one's self. The maintenance of strong social relationships is linked to good health conditions, longevity, productivity, and a positive attitude. This is due to the fact that positive social interactions as viewed by the participant increase many chemical levels in the brain which are linked to personality and intelligence traits.

B. **Hygiene**: it is the practice of keeping the body clean to prevent infection and illness, and the avoidance of contact with infectious agents. Hygiene practices include bathing, brushing and flossing teeth, washing hands, etc.

C. **Stress management**: is the application of methods to either reduce stress or increase tolerance to stress. Relaxation techniques are physical methods used to relieve stress. Prolonged psychological stress may negatively impact health and has been cited as a factor in cognitive impairment with aging, depressive, illness and expression of disease. Psychological methods include cognitive therapy, meditation, and positive thinking which work by reducing responses to stress.

D. **Health care**: is the prevention, treatment and management of illness and the preservation of mental and physical well being through the services offered by the medical, nursing and allied health professions.

Factors affecting health: the major factors that affect a person's health are;

- ❖ Heredity
- ❖ Environment
- ❖ Social
- ❖ Proper nutrition
- ❖ Professional health services
- ❖ Freedom from disease and accident

4.2. Public health

The term "public health" came into general use around 1840. It arose from the need to protect "the public" from the spread of communicable disease. Later, it appeared in 1848 in the name of a law, the Public Health Act in England to crystallize the effort organized by society to protect, promote and restore the people's health.

In 1920, C.E.A.Winslow, a former professor of public health at Yale University, gave the oft-quoted definition of public health. The WHO expert committee on public health administration, adopting Winslow's earlier definitions, has defined it as; the science and art of preventing disease, prolonging life, and promoting health and efficiency through organized community efforts for the sanitation of the environment, the control of communicable infections, the education of individual in personal hygiene, the organization

of medical and nursing services for early diagnosis and preventive treatment of disease, and the development of social machinery to ensure for every individual a standard of living adequate for the maintenance of health, so organizing these benefits as to enable every citizen to realize his birth right of health and longevity.

4.3. Environmental health

Environmental health is the branch of public health that is concerned with all aspects of the natural and built environment that may affect human health. Other terms that refer to the discipline of environmental health include environmental public health and environmental health and protection.

Environmental health is defined by WHO as;

"Those aspects of human health and disease that are determined by factors in the environment. It also refers to the theory and practice of assessing and controlling factors in the environment that can potentially affect health".

Environmental health includes both the direct pathological effects of chemicals, radiation and some biological agents, and the effects (often indirect) on health and wellbeing of the broad physical, psychological, social and aesthetic environment which includes housing, urban development, land use and transport.

Environmental health concerns

Environmental health addresses all human health related aspects of both the natural environment and the built environment. Environmental health concerns include.

- ✓ Air quality: - including both ambient outdoor air and indoor air quality, which also comprises concerning about environment tobacco smoke.
- ✓ Body art safety:- including tattooing, body piercing and permanent cosmetics
- ✓ Climate change and its effects on health
- ✓ Disaster preparedness and response
- ✓ Food safety

- ✓ Safe drinking water

- ✓ Solid waste management

- ✓ Vector control including the control of mosquitoes, rodents, flies, cockroaches and other animals that transmit pathologies.

- ✓ Housing including substandard housing abatement

- ✓ Occupational health and industrial hygiene

- ✓ Medical waste management

- ✓ Land use planning

- ✓ Noise pollution control etc.

4.4. Illness

In studying the social dimensions of health care and medicine, sociologists distinguish among three concepts; disease, illness and sickness.

- ➢ **Disease** is a medically diagnosed pathology (such as lead poisoning, bacterial or viral infection, or cancer).
- ➢ **Illness**, in contrast, is a person's own subjective sense of not feeling well.
- ➢ **Sickness** is social acceptance of a person as ill, as is the case when a company allows its employees "sick days" home from work. These three concepts are often closely related.

Some one with the disease of lead poisoning, fore example, often feels ill and is frequently treated as a sick person in a hospital. All three of these concepts, moreover, are affected by social factors such as age, sex, ethnicity, social class and subculture.

Very recently people, fore instance, are more vulnerable to certain disease (such as cancers), tend to experience more symptoms of illness, and are more readily accepted by others into the sick role.

4.4.1. Social causes of illness

Text books of pathology and of clinical medicine are replete/full with examples of the

particular circumstances which cause disease. These traditional approaches to the causes of illness, however, have been dominated by the biological model which argues that a biological change is brought about by a preceding biological change. Sociology offers three challenges to this perspective.

1. The presence of many biological causes of illness is strongly influenced by social factors.

2. Because illness is multidimensional, the description of the causes of the biological lesion alone is not an adequate explanation: in that illness has psychological dimensions which equally need understanding.

3. There is evidence that apparently biologically based disease, and even death, may be directly brought about by social factors.

The role of social factors in the causes of illness can be seen in two ways. There can be an indirect effect in which social factors bring the individual and harmful physical and biological factors together in some way: e.g., although it may be water born organism which can cause illness it is the particular social customs of a tribe in drinking from a stream which will help to determine their disease patterns. Alternatively social factors may have a direct effect through which something in the social environment triggers an illness with out any apparent physical intermediary. Given the multifactor etiology of most disease it is probable that both indirect and direct effects are involved together in illness.

4.4.2. Mental illness

Mental illness is disorder characterized by disturbances in a person's thoughts, emotions, or behavior. The term mental illness can refer to a wide variety of disorders, ranging from those that cause mild distress to those that severely impair a person's ability to function. Mental health professionals sometimes use the terms psychiatric disorder or psychopathology to refer to mental illness.

No universally accepted definition of mental illness exists. In general, the definition of mental illness depends on a society's norms, or rules of behavior. Behaviors that violet these norms are considered signs of deviance or, in some cases, of mental illness.

Because norms vary between cultures, behaviors considered signs of mental illness in one culture may be considered normal in other cultures. Fore example, in the United States, a person who experiences trance and possession states (altered states of consciousness) is usually diagnosed as suffering from a mental illness. Yet, in many non-western countries, people consider such states an essential part of human experience. In Native American culture, it is common for people to hear the voices of recently deceased loved ones. In contrast, most mental health professionals in western cultures would consider such behavior a possible symptom of schizophrenia or psychosis.

The variation in behavioral norms does not mean, however, that definitions of mental illness are necessarily incompatible across cultures. Many behaviors are recognized throughout the world as being indicative of mental illness. These include extreme social withdrawal, violence to oneself, hallucinations (false sensory perceptions), and delusions (fixed, false ideas).

Another way of defining mental illness is based on whether a person's behaviors are maladaptive-that is, whether they cause a person to experience problems in coping with common life demands. For example, people with social phobia may avoid interacting with other people and experience problems at work as a result.

A number of mental illnesses- such as depression, anxiety, disorders, schizophrenia, and bipolar disorder- occur world wide. Others seem to occur only in particular cultures. Fore example, eating disorders, such as anorexia nervosa (compulsive dieting associated with unrealistic fears of fatness), occur mostly among girls and women in Europe, north America, and westernized areas of Asia, whose cultures view thinness as an essential component of female beauty.

There are different kinds of mental illness, some of these are

- ❖ **Anxiety disorders**- involve excessive apprehension, worry, fear, etc, fore example, **phobia, panic disorder**, etc.

- ❖ **Mood disorders**- affective disorders create disturbance in a person's emotional life. E.g. **depression, mania, bipolar disorder**
- ❖ **Cognitive disorders**- involve a significant loss of mental functioning. E.g. **delirium and dementia**
- ❖ **Dissociative disorders**- involve disturbances in a person's consciousness, memories, identity and perception of the environment. E.g. **amnesia**
- ❖ **Somatoform disorders**- characterized by the presence of physical symptoms that can not be explained by a medical condition or another mental illness. e.g. **hysteria and hypochondrias**
- ❖ **Eating disorders**- conditions in which an individual experiences severe disturbances in eating behaviors e.g. **anorexia nervosa**
- ❖ **Substance related disorders**- result from the abuse of drugs, side effects of medications, or exposure to toxic substances e.g. alcoholism

4.5. HIV/AIDS

4.5.1. What is HIV/AIDS?

AIDS is the abbreviated form for Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome and when we see each term, they have the following meanings.

Acquired:- attained, gained, a non-inheritable character resulting from certain environmental influences.

Immune: - free, secure, protected against a specific disease by inoculation or as a result of innate resistance

Deficiency: - the state of being deficient, lack, incompleteness, a shortage or lack, insufficiency

Syndrome: - set of symptoms which together indicate a particular disease or abnormal condition.

AIDS is a condition caused by a deficiency in the body's immune system. It is a syndrome because it encompasses a pattern of different symptoms with varied manifestation in different cases. It is acquired because AIDS is an infectious disease caused by a virus which

is spread from person to person through a variety of rotes. This makes it different from other immune deficiency conditions due to genetic cause or due to the use of anti-cancer drugs and immune system suppressing drugs given to persons who undergo transplant surgery etc. HIV is the abbreviation for human immune deficiency virus, the virus that causes AIDS. Previously HIV was known by a variety of name such as LAV (Lymphadenopathy Associated Virus), and HTLV III (Human T Cell Lymphotrophic Virus). AIDS, the acquired-deficiency syndrome (sometimes called a "slim disease") is a fatal illness caused retrovirus known as the human immune-deficiency virus (HIV) which breaks down the body's immune system, leaving the victim vulnerable to a host of life-threatening opportunistic infections, neurological disorders, or unusual malignancies. Among the special features of HIV infection are that once infected, it is probable that a person will be infected for life. Strictly speaking the term AIDS refers only to the last stage of the HIV infection. AIDS can be called our modern pandemic affecting both industrialized and developing countries.

4.5.2. Theories of AIDS Origin

The origin of the HIV viruses and AIDS is still mystery**.** There have been many theories but none so far has been proven. During the early stages of the AIDS epidemic the flimsiest evidence was used to blame AIDS on Haitians and Africans. There has been a strong reaction from African nations to the racism shown in many of these early pronouncements.

- That it has developed from an old human disease not known to sciences:
- That it has developed from a natural virus disease of some other specious, probably of monkeys or apes:
- That it was deliberately or accidentally manufactured in a laboratory.

Four theories will be discussed; that the virus has always been present but remained unnoticed and confined to an isolated group of people: that it is an animal virus that has

crossed over humans: that it is a product of a germ warfare laboratory; and that it is an existing virus that has recently mutated.

1. **Isolated community theory**: one theory is that the AIDS virus has always existed in a small isolated group of people. The deaths in that group might not have been noticed as unusual or the people may have had some immunity. The virus then was passed to an outsider and spread from there. There are some deficiencies in this theory. So far no person has been shown to be immune from AIDS. It is difficult to see how deaths in such a young age group could have been unnoticed even in a remote group. AIDS was first observed in urban populations and not rural people. Where AIDS has been found in remote populations, it seems to have been as a result of contact with outsiders.

2. **Green monkey theory**: a variation of this theory is that the virus was present in an animal where it did not cause disease and in some way transferred to humans where it caused disease. There are several diseases that have animal reservoirs such as Lassa fever and plague. The animal that has received most attention as a possible resource has been the African green monkey. The evidence that appeared to support this is that the virus HIV-2 is genetically similar to a virus called "simian immune-deficiency virus (SIV)" which was found in some monkeys kept for experiments in a laboratory in California. These were Asian monkeys but the virus could not be found in wiled monkeys in their natural habitat in Asia. It was then speculated that they may have caught it from African Green Monkeys who were also kept at that laboratory. However, there has been no convincing proof that the virus is present in monkeys caught in the wiled and there remains a strong possibility that the monkeys may have been contaminated with the virus from man in the laboratory setting. Another reason for doubting the green monkey theory is that, as SIV is closer to HIV-2 the theory would predict that HIV-2 would have appeared first. However, this is not the case as the original AIDS epidemic is based on HIV-1 and relatively smaller HIV-2 epidemic appeared later. Thus, the green monkey theory would leave the origin of the original HIV-1 unexplained. There are so many unproven issues about the green monkey theory and some see the way it has been seized upon as yet another example of the willingness of researchers and sections of the press to blame Africa.

3. **Germ warfare theory**: the theory that HIV was produced by the American military as a germ warfare agent is based on a paper published by three east German scientists in 1986. This report was taken up by many newspapers and strongly denied by the United States government. This theory has been criticized because the technology for genetic engineering did not exist in the early 1970's when HIV was thought to have first started spreading. HIV would make a highly unsuitable pathogen for germ warfare as there would be no means of protecting one's own people.

4. **Mutation theory**: viruses are continually changing and mutating into new strains. It is seems a highly likely hypothesis that a mutation took place in a virus to produce a new virus with the deeply properties of HIV. It is impossible to tell in which country that mutation first took place. Searching through case records it has been suggested that the first recorded cases of HIV infection found have been in a New Orleans teenager who died with strange symptoms in 1969 and in a woman in 1959 from Zaire. However, there were probably additional cases of AIDS in other countries of which we have no knowledge. The degree of travel between countries in modern society ensured that it rapidly spread to produce simultaneous epidemics USA and Africa.

The debate about the origins of AIDS has not been helpful because it has created bitterness and diverted attention from the important task of prevention. Kenneth Kaunda, the former president of Zambia, expressed it well when he said: ***"It is not important to know where it came from but rather where it is going."***

4.5.3. Ethical issues and human right

Dealing with AIDS involves confronting many difficult decisions including the following:
- Should a person's blood be tested without his or her knowledge or permission?
- Should a person be compelled to have HIV test?
- Should every person coming for surgery or delivery be made to have a HIV test?
- Should a pregnant HIV antibody positive woman be compelled to have an abortion?
- Should a health worker be forced to care for a person sick with AIDS?

- Should a doctor be forced to report certainly if she /he detect that a patient is HIV antibody positive?

- Should condoms be made available to college students?

For many of these issues there are no answers that are universally appropriate. Each society has to make a decision that is socially, politically and culturally acceptable. Many of these involve ethical decisions on the rights of individuals compared to that of society as a whole. The fears and anxieties aroused by AIDS can lead to society calling for extreme repressive measures that restrict human freedom with out contributing very much to prevention of the problem. Debates about public control measures are often influenced by prejudice against marginalized groups such as homosexuals or sex workers.

In recognition of the importance of human rights, the 41st World Health Assembly in May 1988 passed a resolution calling on all its member states to:

- ❖ Foster a sprit of understanding and compassion for HIV-infected people and people with AIDS through information, education and social support programs;

- ❖ Protect the human rights and dignity of HIV-infected people and people with AIDS, and of members of population groups, and to avoid discriminatory action and stigmatization of them in them in the provision of services, employment and travel;

- ❖ Ensure the confidentiality of HIV test results and to promote the availability of confidential counseling and other support services to HIV- infected people and people with AIDS."

In the context of AIDS, lessons can be drawn from the shameful history of leprosy where people were stigmatized for an affliction and isolated in leper colonies. It is now known that leprosy is not very infectious but the stigma of leprosy remains as a barrier to prompt action. Lack of compassion and tolerance towards HIV infected people and people with AIDS will only drive the disease underground and make it much more difficult to control.

4.5.4. International action and AIDS

In response to the growing threat of AIDS, the WHO and other UN organizations such as UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNFPA, ILO have initiated AIDS prevention and control activities in various parts of the world. The WHO in 1987 set up its special programme on AIDS that later became the global programme on AIDS. In this programme the WHO was mandated by the United Nations to provide the global leadership in the fight against AIDS. The corner stone of the WHO programme has been to stimulate and provide support for AIDS prevention activities within each member country. WHO also encourages international cooperation in research information exchange and training.

The WHO Global Programme on AIDS has embarked on three global strategies:

The **first** global strategy is to prevent HIV infection through the following activities:

- Information, education and communication (IEC) backed up by health and social services and a supportive socio-economic environment.
- Prevention of blood borne transmission of HIV through safe blood supply and rational use of blood.
- Reduction of use of drugs by injections.
- Prevention of HIV transmission in the health care setting.
- Prevention of pre-natal transmission of HIV.

The second global strategy is to reduce the personal and social impact of HIV infection and AIDS by:

- Care, including counseling and clinical management.
- Social and economic support to patients and their families.
- Reduction of the socio-economic impact on society.

The third and last strategy is to mobilize and unify national and international effort against AIDS by:

- Advocacy to counter denial and complacency about the epidemic.
- Broad multi-sectoral commitment.
- International coordination of research.
- Meeting global financial needs.
- Involvement of agencies of the United Nations system and Non Governmental Organizations.

At the 42nd world health assembly in May 1989 a resolution was carried out a clear role for voluntary agencies in global and national AIDS control.

CHAPTER FIVE

GLOBALIZATION

5.1. Definition of globalization

Globalization is a worldwide movement towards economic, financial, trade and communication interactions and integrations. It is the system of interaction among the countries of the world in order to develop the global economy. It is also the process by which the experience of everyday life marked by the diffusion of commodities and ideas is becoming standardized around the world.

Globalization, comprehensive term for the emergence of a global society in which economic, political, environmental, and cultural events in one part of the world quickly come to have significance for people in other parts of the world. Globalization is the result of advances in communication, transportation, and information technologies. It describes the growing economic, political, technological, and cultural linkages that connect individuals, communities, businesses, and governments around the world. Globalization also involves the growth of *multinational corporations* (businesses that have operations or investments in many countries) and *transnational corporations* (businesses that see they functioning in a global marketplace). The international institutions that oversee world trade and finance play an increasingly important role in this era of globalization.

The world is linked as never before due to advances in communication and transportation due also to trade agreements that have lowered or eliminated barriers in the exchange of go But this growing interdependence has not come without a price.

Although most people continue to live as citizens of a single nation, they are culturally, materially, and psychologically engaged with the lives of people in other countries as never before. Distant events often have an immediate and significant impact, blurring the boundaries of our personal worlds. Items common to our everyday lives—such as the clothes we wear, the food we eat, and the cars we drive—are the products of globalization.

Globalization has both negative and positive aspects. Among the negative aspects are the

rapid spread of diseases, illicit drugs, crime, terrorism, and uncontrolled migration. Among globalization's benefits are a sharing of basic knowledge, technology, investments, resources, and ethical values.

The most dramatic evidence of globalization is the increase in trade and the movement of *capital* (stocks, bonds, currencies, and other investments). From 1950 to 2001 the volume of world exports rose by 20 times. By 2001 world trade amounted to a quarter of all the goods and services produced in the world. As for capital, in the early 1970s only $10 billion to $20 billion in national currencies were exchanged daily. By the early part of the 21st century more than $1.5 trillion worth of yen, euro's, dollars, and other currencies were traded daily to support the expanded levels of trade and investment. Large volumes of currency trades were also made as investors speculated on whether the value of particular currencies might go up or down.

1.1 Dimensions of globalization

Trade in goods and services

Globalization leads to increased trade. In general, the developing countries share world trade increased from 19% in 1997 to 29% in 1999, although there are variations between regions. A key institution shaping globalization is the World Trade Organization (WTO), which traces its origins to a 1948 United Nations (UN) conference in Havana, Cuba. The conference called for the creation of an International Trade Organization to lower tariffs (taxes on imported goods) and to encourage trade.

Capital flows and integration of financial markets

There have been increased capital flows to developing countries during the 1990's. Cross-boarder portfolio investments have become the most important category of private capital flows.

International migration

There has been increased movement of people or workers between countries to find better

employment opportunities. The flow of migrants from poor to rich countries is seen as means through which global wages coverage.

Spread of knowledge and technology

Information exchange is an integral part of globalization. Direct foreign investment involves not only expansion of capital stock, but also technical innovation. Furthermore, knowledge of production methods, management techniques, export markets and economic policies, is available at low cost.

Cultural diffusion

The term cultural diffusion refers to the process by which a cultural item spreads from group to group, society to society or from country to country as a result of globalization. Cultural diffusion can occur through a variety of means, among them exploration, military conquest, missionary work, the influence of the mass media, tourism and the internet. This results domination of one culture which is commonly called westernization.

4.3 Causes of globalization

Most accounts of globalization have given the issue of causation only passing attention or avoid it altogether. When this matter is addressed, the preferred explanation is usually asserted in general terms with but limited elaboration. In the argument elaborated below, globalization is said to have transpired owing to:

1. The spread of rationalism as a dominant knowledge frame work.
2. Certain turns in capitalist development.
3. Technological innovations in communications and data processing, and
4. The construction of enabling regulatory frameworks

   Rationalism

Rationalism in general is the configuration of knowledge that has greatly promoted the spread of global thinking, and through it, the boarder trend of globalization. This framework of knowledge has four main distinguishing features. First, rationalism is

securest: it defines reality entirely in terms of the physical world, with out reference to transcendent and divine process. Second, rationalism is anthropocentric: it understands reality primarily in terms of human interests and activities. Third, rationalism has a scientist character: it holds that phenomenon can be understood in terms of single, incontrovertible truths which are discoverable by rigorous application of objective research methods. Fourth, rationalism is instrumental: it assigns greatest value to insight that enables people to solve immediate problems.

Capitalism

Karl Marx wrote in Grandiose that capital by nature derives beyond every spatial barrier to conquer the whole earth for its market (1857). Capitalism is a structure of production where economic activity is oriented first and for most to the accumulationofsurplus. Capitalism has spread globalization in so far as the objectives that circulate in supra territorial spaces open up major additional opportunities for surplus accumulation of capital by no means generated globalization by itself. For one thing, this production structure has depended on the concurrent existence of a rationalist knowledge structure that creates the secular, anthropocentric, instrumentalists mindset through which capitalism operates.

Technological innovations

Technological innovations have provided much of the infrastructure for globalization. The future promise further advances that will increase the possibility for supra-territorial relations many times over again. Fore example, digital radios that receive satellite transmissions will open new opportunities for low cost, high capacity trans-boarder broad casting. Emergent micro circular technology for mobile telephones will permit increased subscriber density and enlarged equipment capacities.

Regulation

Regulation has enabled globalization with the legalization of Tran's world organizations. Regulation has promoted globalization in four main ways; technical and procedural standardization; liberation of cross boarder movements of money, investment, goods and services (but not labor); guarantees of property rights for global capital; and legalization of

globalization and activities.

4.4 Theoretical approaches in globalization

Three major theoretical approaches have been used to examine globalization. These are modernization theory, dependency theory and world systems theory. Each provides a model for analyzing the impact of globalization on industrial and non industrial societies.

4.4.1 Modernization theory

It is developed in the USA during the 1950s, which is concerned with the process of economic, social, political and cultural change that accompanies industrial and technological change. It became the leading model of societal evolution in the 1950s in the context of the cold war between USA and former Soviet Union. Modernization theory provided a model to explain how social and cultural change could take place in all societies through industrial capitalism. One of the most influential proponents of modernization theory is the American economist W.W.Rostow. He argued that although modernization exists first in the west, it can occur in all societies. Modernization theorists view cultural values and traditionalism as the primary reasons for the lack of economic development. The practical implication that derives from this model is that before a country should receive foreign aid, traditionalism and the values that support must be transformed.

1.4.2 Dependency theory

This approach is a model of socio-economic development that explains global integrity as resulting from the historical exploitation of poor, underdeveloped societies by rich, developed societies. Dependency theory was influenced by Marxism and is associated with theorists such as Andre Gunder Frank, who denied that underdevelopment is the product of the persistence of traditionalism in pre-industrial societies. These theorists instead contend that wealthy, industrialized capitalist countries exploit underdeveloped pre-capitalist societies for the cheap labor and raw materials needed to maintain their own industrial technologies. Through this process, impoverished, under developed countries became economic and political dependency of wealthy industrialized capitalist countries. These theorists categorize the industrial capitalist countries as metro pole societies that maintain

dependent satellite countries in the underdeveloped world. Through organization of the world economy by the industrialized capitalist societies, the surplus of commodities produced by cheap labor flow from the satellite to the metropolitan. The satellites remain under developed because of economic and political domination.

1.4.3 World systems theory

This perspective maintains that the socio-economic differences among various societies are a result of an inter locking global political economy.

Sociologist Immanuel Waller stein, who developed the world-systems theory agree with the dependency theorists that the industrial nations prosper through the economic domination and exploitation of non-industrial peoples but unlike dependency theorists, Waller stein believes that under specific historical circumstances, underdeveloped countries can develop economically. Fore example, during the world wide depression of the 1930s, Latin America countries such as Brazil and Mexico advanced in some way.

This model places all countries in one of three general categories;

1. **Core societies**; are powerful industrial nations that exercise economic domination
2. **Peripheral societies;** are societies which have very little control over theirown economies and are dominated by core societies.
3. **Semi-peripheral societies;** there are some what industrialized and have someeconomic authority.

1.5 Effects of globalization

Globalization is a very controversial issue today. Opinions vary considerably over its pros and cons. Hence, we can identify the positive and negative effects of globalization.

Negative effects of globalization

Globalization is a buzz word of today. The economies of the world are being increasingly integrated. Opponents of globalization pointed out to its negative effects. Some of them are listed below.

- Developed nations are out sourced manufacturing and white collar jobs. That means less jobs for their people. This has happened because of manufacturing work is out sourced to developing nations.

- Globalization has led to exploitation of labor. Prisoners and child workers are used to work in inhuman conditions. Safety standards are ignored to produce cheap goods.

- Job insecurity- earlier people had stable, permanent jobs. Now people live in constant dread of loosing their jobs to competition. Increased job competition has led to reduction of wages and consequently lower standard of living.

- Terrorists have access to sophisticated weapons enhancing their ability to inflict damage. They use internets to communicate among themselves.

- Companies have set up industries causing pollution in countries with poor regulation of population.

- The benefit of globalization is not universal as the rich are getting richer and the poor are becoming poorer.

- Bad aspects of foreign cultures are affecting the local cultures through TV and the internet.

- Deadly diseases like HIV/AIDS are spread by travelers to the remotest area.

- Local industries are being taken over by foreign multinationals.

- The increase in prices has reduced the government's ability to sustain social welfare schemes.

Positive effects of globalization

Globalization has a positive side as well. Supporters of globalization argue that it is good and beneficial. Some of their arguments are listed below.

- Globalization has created the concept of out sourcing. Work such as soft ware development, consumer support, marketing, accounting and insurance is outsourced in developing countries like India. So the company that out sourced work enjoys the benefit of lowers costs.

- ❖ Increased competition forces companies to lower prices which benefits the end consumers.
- ❖ Increased media coverage draws the attention of the world to human right violation which leads to improvement in human rights.
- ❖ Globalization has brought the world into a smaller place which facilitates the flow of ideas, technologies and cultures into other parts of the world from its place of origin.

1.6 Advantages and disadvantages of globalization

Advantages

According to Tony Spy (1996), globalization has advantages like;

i. Increase in the efficiency of production
ii. Enhancement of rapid development of modern technology
iii. Increased completion among different countries that stimulates business activities
iv. Mitigation of global problems like food problems, drought and terrorism
v. Mitigation of global problems of ecology and HIV/AIDS
vi. Fighting against poverty, environment failure and social violence

Many globalization activities suggest that it has some advantages. Globalization increased free trade between nations, increased liquidity capital allowing investors in developed nations to invest in developing nations, increased flow of communication around the world, spread democratic ideas to developed nations, it creates greater interdependence on nation's state.

Disadvantages

According to Tony Spy (1996), globalization has also disadvantages like;

a) Political dependence and loss of sovereignty
b) Unequal exchange of goods between industrialized and weakly industrialized countries
c) Mitigation of resources from weakly industrialized countries to industrially advanced countries
d) Decrease environmental integrity as polluting corporations take advantage of weak regulatory rules in developing countries.

CHAPTER SIX

6. Terrorism: A threat to global peace

Terrorism is not new, and even though it has been used since the beginning of record history it can be relatively hard to define. Terrorism can be described variously as both a tactic and a strategy; a crime and a holy duty; a justified operation to operation and an inexcusable abomination. Obviously, a lot depends on whose point of view is being represented. Terrorism has often been an effective tactic for the weaker side in a conflict. As an asymmetric form of conflict, it confers coercive power with many of the advantages of military force at the reaction of the cost. Due to the secretive nature and small size of terrorist organizations, they often offer opponents no clear organization to defend against or to deter.

The United States Department of Defense defines terrorism as "the calculated use of unlawful violence or threat of unlawful violence to inculcate fear; intended to coerce or to intimidate governments or societies in the pursuit of goals that agree generally political, religious, or ideological ." Within this definition there are three key elements- violence, fear and intimidation –and each element produce terror in its victims.

Terrorism is criminal act that influences an audience beyond the immediate victim. The strategy of terrorists is to commit acts of violence that draws the attention of the local populace, the government and the world to their cause. The terrorist plan their attack to obtain the greatest publicity, choosing targets that symbolize what they oppose. The effectiveness of the terrorist act lies not in the act itself, but in the public's or government's reaction to the act. For example, in 1972 at the Munich Olympic, the Black September Organization killed 11 Israelis. The Israelis were the immediate victims. But the true target was an estimated one billion people watching the televised event.

There are three perspectives of terrorism: the terrorist's, the victim's and the general public's. The phrase "one man's terrorist is another man's freedom fighter" is a view terrorists themselves would accept. Terrorists do not see themselves as evil. They believe they are legitimate combatant fighting for what they believe in, by whatever means possible. A victim of a terrorist act sees the terrorist as a criminal with no regard for human

life. The general public's view is the unstable.

Terrorist acts or the threat of such action have been in existence for millennia. Despite having a history having longer than the modern notion-state, the use of terror by governments and those that contest their power remains poorly understood. While the meaning of the word terror itself is clear, when it is applied to acts and actors in the real world it becomes confused. Part of this is due to the of terror tactics by actors at all levels in the social and political environment.

There is clearly a wide choice of definitions for terrorism. Despite this, there are elements in common among the majority of useful definitions. Common threads of the various definitions identify terrorism as:

A. Political

A terrorist act is a political act or is committed with the intention to cause a political effect. They merely eliminate the intermediate step of armies and warfare, and apply violence directly to the political contest.

B. Psychological

The intended results of terrorist acts cause a psychological effect ("terror"). They are aimed at a target audience other than the actual victims the act. The intended target audience of the terrorist act may be the population as a whole, some specific portion of a society (an ethnic minority, for example), or decision making elites in the society's political, social, or military populace.

C. Coercive

Violence and destruction are used in the commission of the act to produce the desired effect. Even if causalities or destruction are not the result of a terrorist operation, the threat or potential of violence is what produces the intended effect.

D. Dynamic

Terrorist groups demand change, revolution or political movement. The radical worldview that justifies terrorism mandates drastic action to destroy or alter the status quo. Nobody commits violent attacks on strangers or innocents to keep things "just the way they are".

E. Deliberate

Terrorism is an activity planned and intended to achieve particular goals. It is rationally

employed, specifically selected tactic, and is not a random act.

F. Media exploitation

Terrorism's effects are not necessarily aimed at the victims of terrorist violence. Victims are usually objects to be exploited by the terrorists for their effect on a third party. In order to produce this effect, information of the attack must reach the target audience. So any terrorist organization plans for exploitation of available media to get the message to the right audiences. Victims are simply the first medium that transmits the psychological impact to the larger target audience.

6.1 Terrorism and Insurgency

If no single definition produces a precise, unambiguous description, we can approach the question by eliminating similar activities that are not terrorism, but that appear to overlap. For the U.S. military, two such related concepts probably lead to more confusion than others. Guerilla warfare and insurgencies are often assumed to be synonymous with terrorism. One reason for this is that insurgencies and terrorism often have similar goals. However, if we examine insurgency and guerilla warfare, specific differences emerge.

Another difference is the intent of the component activities and operations of insurgencies versus terrorism. There is nothing inherent in either insurgency or guerilla warfare that requires the use of terror. While some of the more successful insurgencies and guerilla campaigns employed terrorism and terror tactics, and some developed into conflicts where terror tactics and terrorism become predominant; there have been others that effectively renounced the use of terrorism. The deliberate choice to use terrorism considers its effectiveness in inspiring further resistance, destroying government efficiency, and mobilizing support.

The ultimate goal of an insurgency is to challenge the existing government for control of all or a portion of its territory, or force political concessions in sharing political power. Insurgencies require the active or tactic support of some portion f the population involved. External support, recognition or approval from other countries or political entities can be useful to insurgents, but is not required. A terror group does not require and rarely has the active support or even the sympathy of a large fraction of the population. While insurgents

will frequently describe themselves as "insurgents" or 'guerillas", terrorists will not refer to themselves as "terrorists" but describe themselves using military or political terminology ("freedom fighters", "soldiers", "activists"). Terrorism relies on public impact, and is therefore conscious of the advantage of avoiding the negative connotations of the term "terrorists" in identifying themselves.

Terrorism does not attempt to challenge government forces directly, but acts to change perceptions as to the effectiveness or legitimacy of the government itself. This is done by ensuring the widest possible knowledge of the acts of terrorist violence among the target audience. Rarely will terrorists attempt to "control" terrain, as it ties them to identifiable locations and reduces their mobility and security. Terrorists as a rule avoid direct confrontations with government forces. A guerilla force may have something to gain from a clash with a government combat force, such as proving that they can effectively challenge the military effectiveness of the government. A terrorist group has nothing to gain from such a clash. This is not to say that they do not target military or security forces, but that they will not engage in anything resembling a "fair fight", or even a "fight" at all. Terrorists use methods that neutralize the strength of conventional forces.

Insurgency need not require the targeting of non-combatants, although many insurgencies expand the accepted legal definition of combatants to include police and security personnel in addition to the military. Terrorists do not discriminate between combatants and non-combatants, or if they do, they broaden the category of "combatants" so much as to render it meaningless.

Ultimately, the difference between insurgency and terrorism comes down to the intent of the actor. Insurgency movements and guerilla forces can adhere to international norms regarding the law of war in achieving their goals, but terrorists are by definition conducting crimes under both civil and military legal codes.

6.2 State Involvement in Terrorism

Three different ways that states can engage in the use of terror are:

- **Governmental or "state" terror**
- **State involvement in terror**
- **State sponsorship of terrorism**

1. **Governmental or "State" terror**

   Sometimes referred to as **"terror from above"**, where a government terrorizes its own population to control or repress them. These actions usually constitute the acknowledged policy of the government, and make use of official institutions such as the judiciary, police, military and other government agencies. Changes to legal codes permit or encourage torture, killing, or property destruction in pursuit of government policy.

2. **State Involvement in Terror**

   These are activities were government personnel carry out operations using terror tactics. These activities may be directed against other nations' interests, its own population, or private groups or individuals vowed as dangerous to the state. In many cases, these activities are terrorism under official sanction, although such authorization is rarely acknowledged openly. Historical examples include the Soviet and Iranian assassination campaign against dissidents, who had fled abroad, and Libyan and North Korean intelligence operatives downing airlines on international flights.

3. **State Sponsorship of Terrorism**

   Also known as **"state supported" terrorism**, when government provide supplies, training, and other forms of support to non-state terrorist organizations. One of the most valuable types of this support is the provision of haven or physical basing for the terrorists' organization. Another crucial service a state sponsor can provide is false documentation, not only for personal identification (passports, internal identification documents), but also for financial transactions and weapons purchase. Other means of support are access to training facilities and experts not readily available to groups without extensive resources. Finally, the extension of diplomatic protections and services, such as immunity from extradition, diplomatic passports, and use of embassies and other protected grounds, and diplomatic pouches to transport weapons or

explosives have been significant to some groups.

6.3 Countries with Large Terrorist Groups

Terrorists have long found refuges in countries and in many cases worked hand in hand with the local governments. Some of the countries with significant terrorist operations include:

Afghanistan

Afghanistan became the hotbed of Islamic terror activities in the mid-1990s. With the radical Taliban government establishing control, several radical Islamic (mostly *Sunni*) terror organizations use Afghanistan as their training and operational base. Al Qaeda was the broad umbrella organization that recruited terrorists from Pakistan, Afghanistan, and central Asia and around the world, training them in Afghanistan and Pakistan. Some of the terrorist groups still operating in the region include Al Qaeda, Al-Jihad, Lashkar-r-Jhangvi, Islamic Group, Armed Islamic Group, Harkat-ul-Mujahiden and the Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan.

Iran

Iran has long been an active sponsor of Islamic terrorism, including accusations of it supporting subversive activities in Iraq. Islamic Revolutionary Guard Corps and Ministry of Intelligence and Security were involved in the planning of and support for terrorist acts and continued to exhort a variety of groups that use terrorism to pursue their goals. Several terrorist groups including Lebanese Hezbollah, HAMAS, the Palestine Islamic Jihad, and Ahmad Jibril's PFLP-GC have been provided funding, safe haven, training, and weapons in Iran.

Iraq

Since the US led invasions of Iraq, the country has fallen into a violent spiral. The presence of US troops has attracted Islamic terrorists from the Middle-East and around the world. Al- Qaeda is believed to have established a toe-hold in the country along with various splinter groups. Some of the other terror organizations active in Iraq include Ansar al-Islam, Al-Faruq Brigades, Al-Mahdi Army, Iraq Resistance Islamic Front (JAMI), Jamaat al-Tawhid wa'l-Jihad, Jaysh Muhammad and Kurdistan People;s Congress (KHK).

Pakistan

Pakistan has long been a staging ground and planning centre for Islamic terrorists operating

in South Asia. After the launch of Operation Enduring Freedom, thousands of terrorists were either killed or driven out of Afghanistan, mostly finding refuge in Pakistan. Pakistan and its secret service (ISI) have also been accused of training and funding several terrorist groups operating in Indian Kashmir. To many the links are clear, since the terrorist groups based in Pakistan operate in plain sight and have a distinct Indian focus. More recently, groups aligned with Al Qaeda and based in Pakistan have been responsible for numerous terrorist attacks in Afghanistan. Some of these terror groups include Lashkar-e-Taiba, Jaish-e-Muhammad, Lashkar-e-Jhangvi, Al Qaeda, Tehreek-e-Jaferia, Sipah-e-Sahaba, Al Badr, Harkat ul-Ansar, Hizb-ul-Mujahideen, Tehreek-e-Nafaz-e-Shariat-e-Mohammadi, Jamaat ul-Fuqra and Muslim United Army.

Syria

Even as Syria continues to reduce its presence in Lebanon, it also continues to fund and host Palestinian and possibly Iraq terrorist organizations. HAMAS, the PIJ, the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine-General Command, and the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine continue to operate from Syria.

Sudan

The African country of Sudan has been a training hub and safe haven for members of several of the more violent international terrorist and radical Islamic groups of the last decade. Among the terror groups known to have operated from Sudan are Hezbollah (Party of God), Palestine Islamic Jihad, Abu Nidal organization, HAMAS (Islamic Resistance Movement) and several smaller Islamic insurgent groups operating regionally in Ethiopia, Eritrea, Uganda, and Tunisia.

The Intent of Terrorist Groups

Terrorist group commits acts of violence to:

- ➢ Produce widespread fear
- ➢ Obtain worldwide, national, or local recognition for their cause by attracting the attention of the media
- ➢ Harass, weaken, or embarrass government security forces so that the government overreacts and appears repressive
- ➢ Steal or extort money and equipment, especially weapons and ammunition vital to the operation of their group

- Destroy facilities or disrupt lines of communication in order to create doubt that the government can provide for and protect its citizens
- Discourage foreign investments, tourism, or assistance programs that can affect the target country's economy and support of the government in power
- Influence government decisions, legislation, or other critical decisions
- Free prisoners
- Satisfy vengeance
- Turn the tide in a guerilla war by forcing government security forces to concentrate their efforts in urban areas. This allows the terrorist group to establish itself among the local populace in rural areas

6.4 Common Types of Terrorist Incidents

Bombings

Bombings are the most common type of terrorist act. Typically, improvised explosive devices are inexpensive and easy to make. Modern devices are smaller and are harder to detect. They contain very destructive capabilities; for example, on August 7, 1998, two American embassies in Africa were bombed. The bombings claimed the lives of over 200 people, including 12 innocent American citizens, and injured over 5,000 civilians. Terrorist can also use materials that are readily available to the average consumer to construct a bomb.

Kidnappings and Hostage-Taking

Terrorists use kidnappings and hostage-taking to establish a bargaining position and to elicit publicity. Kidnapping is one the most difficult for a terrorist group to accomplish, but, if a kidnapping is successful, it can gain terrorists money, release of jailed comrades, and publicity for an extended period. Hostage-taking involves the seizure of a facility or location and the taking of hostages. Unlike a kidnapping, hostage-taking provokes a confrontation with authorities. It forces authorities to either make dramatic decisions or to comply with the terrorist's demands. It is overt and designed to attract and hold media attention. The terrorists' intended target is the audience affected by the hostage's confinement, not the hostage.

Armed attacks and assassination

Armed attacks include raids and ambushes. Assassinations are the killing of a selected

victim, usually by bombings or small arms. Drive-by shooting is a common technique employed by unsophisticated or loosely organized terrorist groups. Historically, terrorists have assassinated specific individuals for psychological effect.

Arsons and fire- bombings

Incendiary devices are cheap and easy to hide. Arson and fire-bombings are easily conducted by terrorist groups that may not be as well organized, equipped, or trained as a major terrorist organization. Arson or fire-bombing against a utility, hotel, government building, or industrial center portrays an image that the ruling government is incapable of maintaining order.

Hijacking and Skyjacking

Hijacking is the seizure by force of a surface vehicle, its passengers, and/or its cargo. Skyjacking is the taking of an aircraft, which creates a mobile, hostage barricade situation. It provides terrorists with hostages from many nations and draws heavy media attention. Skyjacking also provides mobility for the terrorists to relocate the air craft to a country that supports their cause and provides them with a human shield, making retaliation difficult.

Other Types of Terrorist Incidents

In addition to the acts of violence discussed above, there are also numerous other types of violence that can exist under the framework of terrorism. Terrorist groups conduct maiming against their own people as a form of punishment for security violations, defections, or informing. Terrorist organizations also conduct robberies or extortion when they need to finance their acts and they don't have sponsorship from sympathetic nations. *Cyber-terrorism* is a new form of terrorism that is ever-increasing as we rely on computer networks to relay information and provide connectivity to today's modern and fast-paced world. Cyber-terrorism allows terrorists to conduct their operations with little or no risk to themselves. It also provides terrorists an opportunity to disrupt or destroy networks and computers. The result is interruption of key government or business related activities. This type of terrorism isn't as high profile as other types of terrorist attacks, but its impact is just as destructive.

6.5 Categories of Terrorist Groups

There are many different categories of terrorism and terrorist groups that are currently

in use. These categories serve to differentiate terrorist organizations according to specific criteria, which are usually related to the field or specialty of whoever is selecting the categories. Also, some categories are simply labels appended arbitrarily or redundantly, often by the media. For example, every terrorist organization is by definition "radical", as terror tactics are not the norm for the mainstream of any group.

1. Separatist

Separatist groups are those with the goal of separation from existing entities through independence, political autonomy, or religious freedom or domination. The ideologies separatists subscribe to include social justice or equity, anti-imperialism, as well as the resistance to conquest or occupation by a foreign power.

2. Ethnocentric

Groups of this persuasion see race as the defining characteristic of a society, and therefore a basis of cohesion. There is usually the attitude that a particular group is superior because of their inherent racial characteristics.

3. Nationalistic

The loyalty and devotion to nation, and the national consciousness derived from placing one nations' culture and interests above those of other nations or groups. This can find expression in the creation of a new nation or in splitting away part of an existing state to join with another that shares the perceived 'national' identity.

4. Revolutionary

Dedicated to the overthrow of an established order and replacing it with a new political or social structure. Although often associated with communist political ideologies, this is not always the case, and other political movements can advocate revolutionary methods to achieve their goals.

5. Political

Political ideologies are concerned withthe structure and organization of the forms of government and communities. While observers outside terrorist organizations may stress differences in political ideology, the activities of groups that are diametrically opposed on the political spectrum are similar to each other in practice.

6. Religious

Religiously inspired terrorism is on the rise, with a forty-three percent increase of total international terror groups espousing religious motivation between 1980 and 1995. While Islamic terrorists and organizations have been the most active, and the greatest recent threat to the United States, all of the major world religions have extremists that have taken up violence to further their perceived religious goals. Religiously motivated terrorists see their objectives as holy writ, and therefore infallible and non-negotiable.

7. Social

Often particular social policies or issues will be so contentious that they will incite extremist behavior and terrorism. Frequently this is referred to as "single issue" or "special interest" terrorism. Some issues that have produced terrorist activities in the United States and other countries include animal rights, abortion, ecology/environment, and minority rights.

8. Domestic

These terrorists are "home-grown" and operate within and against their home country. They are frequently tied to extreme social or political factions within the particular society, and focus their efforts specifically on their nation's socio-political arena.

9. International or Transnational

Often describing the support and operational reach of a group, these terms are often loosely defined, and can be applied to widely capabilities. *International groups* typically operate in multiple countries, but retain a geographic focus for their activities. Hezbollah has cells worldwide, and has conducted operations in multiple countries, but is primarily concerned with events in Lebanon and Israel. *Transnational groups* operate internationally, but are not tied to a particular country, or even region. Al Qaeda is transnational; being made up of many nationalities, having been based out of multiple contrives simultaneously, and conducting operations throughout the world. Their objectives affect dozens of countries with differing political systems, religions, ethnic compositions, and national interests.

6.7 Antiterrorism versus Counterterrorism

The concept of terrorism emerges from a thorough examining of the concept of terrorism as well as an attempt to understand and articulate what constitutes terrorism in

western terms. In military contexts, terrorism is a tactic, not an ideology. Terrorism may be a tactic in war between nation-states in a civil war, or in an insurgency.

Counter-terrorism refers to offensive strategies intended to prevent a belligerent, in a border conflict, from successfully using the tactic of terrorism. The US military definition, compatible with the definition used by NATO and many other militaries, is "operations that include the offensive measures taken to prevent, deter, preempt, and respond to terrorism. In other words counter-terrorism is a set of techniques for denying an opponent the use of terrorism based tactics, just as counter-air is a set of techniques for denying the opponent the use of attack aircraft.

Anti-terrorism is defensive, intended to reduce the chance of an attack using terrorist tactics at specific points, or to reduce the vulnerability of possible targets to such tactics. Defensive measures used to reduce the vulnerability of individuals and property to terrorist acts, to include limited responses and containment by local military and civilian forces.