

**PSYCHO-SOCIAL ROLES OF SPORTS AS PREDICTORS OF PEACE
AND DEVELOPMENT AMONG MALE IN-SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS IN
THE NIGER-DELTA COMMUNITIES IN NIGERIA**

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated especially to my late parents Elder and Mrs Gabriel Duval Akuru who notwithstanding their image and financial resources, gave me a solid academic foundation in life. To the Almighty God, the king of glory on the successful completion of this programme, I give honour and admiration to His holy name. Also to my sweet wife Mrs. Iziadu B. Akuru and all my beautiful and handsome children, Mrs. Onisobilen A. Amakoro, Mrs. Azakori Yaya Timothy, Solikume B. Akuru. Udiomine B. Akuru, Victory B. Akuru and my little son, Inimeya Emma B. Akuru for all their love, dedication, devotedness, patience, relentless and untiring roles they played even when their mother had a ghastly motor accident in the process of going to source for fund for this prestigious academic attainment in life. Oh come let us sing to the Lord. Let us shout joyfully to the Lord of our salvation.

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ABSTRACT

The capital infusion of government funding and philanthropic support for schools in the Niger-Delta communities has sparked off reforms which include restoring efficiency in poorly managed schools and thus, fostering peace and development in the schools. Despite these, the school system in the state is confronted with social barriers which have resulted in male in-school adolescents' ethnic intolerance. Studies undertaken to address violence in the Niger-Delta have focused on the upper echelon of government to the exclusion of the adolescents' problems and the role of sports in character building and social control. This study, therefore examined psycho-social roles of sports as predictors of peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta communities of Nigeria with respect to social control, character building, occupation mobility, ethical value, group dynamics, nationalism, socialisation and youth positive restiveness.

Using survey research design, this study adopted structural functionalism theory. One thousand seven hundred male in-school adolescents were selected through a multistage random sampling technique. They were drawn from Bayelsa, Delta and Rivers states in the Niger-Delta. Two instruments were used: Psycho-Sociological Roles of Sports Questionnaire ($r = 0.88$) and Sports for Peace and Development Questionnaire ($r=0.76$). These were complemented with three sessions of Focus Group Discussion (FGDs) with the male in-school adolescents. Two research questions were answered and six hypotheses tested at 0.05 level of significance. Data were analysed using multiple regression and qualitative data was subjected to content analysis.

Psycho-social sport role variables jointly predicted peace and development in the selected Niger Delta communities $F_{(8, 1691)} = 67.146$; $p < 0.05$, and they contributed 24% of the variance of the dependent variable. The order of the relative contributions of the psycho-social sport roles to peace and development was as follows: social control ($\beta = .33$, $p < 0.05$), occupational mobility ($\beta = .24$, $p < 0.05$), character building ($\beta = .22$, $p < 0.05$), ethical value ($\beta = .22$, $p < 0.05$) nationalism ($\beta = .19$, $p < 0.05$), youth positive restiveness ($\beta = .12$, $p < 0.05$) and socialisation ($\beta = .07$, $p < 0.05$) respectively. These implied that social control was the most potent role played by sport for peace and development in the studied communities. Sports provide socially rich environment that afforded students with many opportunities to interact with others in ways that have moral import to nurture and practice capacities for role taking, empathy, conflict resolution and various sub-skills related to moral judgment. About 70% male students from the communities in Bayelsa believed that sport roles promote moral reasoning for peace and development, while students from Rivers and Delta communities agreed that psychosocial sport roles helped to curb youth restiveness.

Psycho-social sport role variables positively predicted peace and development in the selected communities in the Niger-Delta region. Therefore, socialisation through sports, ethical value, character building and social control variables that could strengthen positive behaviour of students to enhance peace and development should be pursued in all ramifications.

Keywords: Psycho-social roles, Sports, Peace and development, Niger-Delta, Male in-school adolescents

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

The capital infusion of government funding and philanthropic support for schools in the Niger-Delta communities has sparked off reforms, which include restoring efficiency in poorly managed schools and thus, fostering peace and development in the schools. Despite these, the school system in the state is confronted with social barriers which have resulted into ethnic intolerance of the male in-school adolescents. Participation in sport and physical activity may encourage children to stay in school longer and help them to become more effective learners. This contributes in a world where frequent social and economic change places a high premium on the skills of learning and adaptation (Long & Sanderson, 1998). Sport has become the most popular form of physical activity for children and youth today. As such, it can be invaluable in preventing the negative consequences of inactivity, intolerance, violence and as crisis mediator (Keller, Lamprocht & Stamm, 1998).

Conflicts are established in unfortunate realities of inequalities, political and cultural exclusions in both developed and developing nations. These are often exacerbated by habits of distrust, recrimination, and misunderstanding. Conflict itself is a natural part of social and political life. Situation where societies response to conflict violently, however, all aspects of developments including economic growth, health, and education can be seriously disrupted or impeded. The Niger-Delta struggle is part of most national discomfort which continues to manifest in forms of corruption, insecurity, and poverty. The region (Niger-Delta) where much of the national wealth comes from has absolutely nothing to show for the long years of predatory oil exploration and exploitation by multinational oil firms. The result is absolute environmental degradation and utter neglect which has become noticed, from Edo to Delta, Bayelsa, Rivers, Akwa-Ibom and Cross River States, the story is the same (Gab, 2005). This had increased the conflict experience by the communities among one other, and also the oil companies, government including stakeholders in the region. Conflict is an ever-present feature in human relations as a result of crisis. Indeed, conflict is an inevitable part of life since the goals of different stakeholders are often incompatible (Jones, George & Hill, 2000). Thus Ahuja, Ahuja and

Ahuja (1997) asserted that, conflict is an inescapable phenomenon in all social organisations and society, whereby ethnic conflict has become issues in the world over. In most African countries, which have been compounded by colonial legacies of national states whose artificial boundaries cut across many devices have experienced conflict. Traditional approaches to ending violent conflicts have tended to focus on state-level solutions, at the exclusion of the people on behalf of whom peace and development is supposedly to be made. This has ignored the power that populations have to make or break peace processes by their acceptance or rejection of peace.

Diamond and Platter (1994) identified the challenges of ethnic conflict in this question, “how can realistic and often antagonistic group identities be reconciled with the unifying mission of the state”. The polarization of ethnic groups’ have resulted to conflicts, as they compete for resources, political, psychological, socio-economic power and other goals have caused negative consequences of tremendous proportions of which genocide; ethnic clashing and civil wars are some of the results (Stremlan, 1999). Ethnic conflict is the breakdown of accommodation of ethnic minorities within a state (Bastock, 1997). This had made Wright (1999) to assert that, an opposition among social entities directed against one another. He described social entities as family clan, ethnic leaders, community chiefs and institutions (clubs, society groups) as protégées of conflict in many communities. Albert (2001) sees it as a physical rather than a moral connotation. Conflict is particularly common in societies where specific ethnic groups feel that, the mainstreams of political, economic and social institutions are inaccessible to them.

In addition, leaders sometimes mobilize support for their political agenda by reinforcing negative ethnic stereotypes. When these stereotypes are adopted by communities, schools, and families, youths from both sides of a conflict learn intolerance and hatred towards those who are different from them. Lederach (2002, 2005) advocated a holistic approach to peace-building, which focuses attention from the grassroots right up to the highest levels of power, and at all points in between. Thus, the United Nations (UN, 2003) resolution enact calling upon member states to consider a role for sports and physical education when devising development programmes and policies. This shows the belief that, sports can help nations to achieve the UN Goals, whilst also contributing to peace, which has led them to join forces with various national and international sporting

authorities, such as the Football Association (FA), International Olympics Committee (IOC) and Federation International Football Association (FIFA) in advocating for sports as a means for holistic approach to peace and development in crisis areas.

Further, the Council of Europe also resolved to promote among member states the power of sport to engender social cohesion. Thus, the high-level political endorsement of a role for sports in peace and development complements various independent grassroots development and aid projects. These include sport-based programmes, aimed at adults and particularly children, with a wide variety of aims, such as education (about racism, drugs, the rights of the child, immunisation, HIV / AIDS), promoting citizenship, combating anti-social behaviour, tackling homelessness and truancy, peace-building, and so on. Thus, has made the International non-governmental organizations (INGO) programmes to marry sports and peace, which include using sports; to help resolve conflict by bringing people closer together; to provide an ice-breaker to initiate the complex process of reconciliation between divided communities; as a neutral platform to sustain the reconciliation for the initial stages; as rehabilitation; and as a 'hook' to keep traumatized youths coming back to non-sport based education, rehabilitation or reintegration projects.

According to Feldman and Matjasko (2005) sports are the most popular extracurricular activities for adolescents. As a result, a popular assumption is that extracurricular activities and sports in particular, keep adolescents out of trouble by occupying their time and teaching them important values, organization, and discipline (Videon 2002). Other popular notions are that these activities can provide a positive contextual environment for socializing adolescents (Chalip and Green 1998); extending peer group associations (Eccles & Barber 1999); developing higher educational aspirations (Marsh & Kleitman 2003); influencing sexual activity (Sabo, Miller, Farrell, Melnick, & Barnes 1999); and aid in psychological adjustment to their environment (Csikszentmihalyi 1990). In contrast to the positives that sport offers, some theorists have pointed to athletes engaging in negative behaviour (Leonard 1998; Eccles and Barber 1999). Langbein and Bess (2002) noted detractors argue that school sports are competitive, involve conflict that is often physical, and, especially when sports teams are regarded as an exclusive high school elite, may even inspire hostility among those who

are left out. Public stereotypes of sport participants being involved in deviant or violent behaviour are dangerous to society and adolescent development (Lapchick, 2000).

Sport has a role to play in countering social exclusion, by increasing individuals' self-esteem, building community spirit, increasing social interaction, improving health and fitness, creating employment and reduce the temptation to anti-social behaviour by giving young people a purposeful activity. Thus, sports act as a social product of the society with many facets and different characteristics that served as the household affair of every nation throughout the world (Sport England, 1999). According to Collins et al (1999) they listed three broad types of sports-related benefits: national (identity, prestige, reduced health costs and trade), communal benefits and personal benefits. Thus, Peace and Development resolutions through the use of psycho-social roles of sports have been supported by many nations, non-voluntary organisations in the management of conflict constructively.

The social role of sports has a particular conflict preventative role to play, showing how to forge and maintain social understanding including community harmony psychologically and socially. For instance, prior to the qualification to the 2010 World cup in South Africa, the Ivory Coast national male football came out to appeal the warring factions to suspend their civil war and embrace peace, for development through their desire in sports to strive and sacrifice for their country to qualify, which was accepted. This accorded the opportunity for peace in the nation and for the people to come together through sports. Thus, Ahiauzu (1995) opined that, sports have taken a stage in the conduct of diplomacy and the evolution of development as well as changes in the world system.

The roles sports play as instrument in mobilizing both youths and adults to achieve common goals in conflict areas for peace and development can never be over-emphasized. Sports are active rather than passive, this involves participation and participants. Thus, CARICOM, (1997) of Human Resource Development Strategy identifies sports, culture and drama as behaviour change methodologies. Where sports obviously affects a person's physical development, as well as his or her social and psychological development (Vanden, Malcolm and Meulders, 2006) contributing to the wider "development" of the society. Thus, a reason why the United Nations organized the

International Year of Sports and Physical Education in 2005, and incorporates sports into its programmes and policies (UN Sports for Development and Peace, 2006).

The social roles of sports in the communities work in many ways to help build cohesive, empowered and provide active communities. Social cohesion in which neighborhoods become ever more diverse, with different people from an increasingly wide range of backgrounds living side by side. Sports as a social institution teaches and reinforces the society beliefs, norms and values, thereby assisting in socializing both young and old into major cultural and social behaviour patterns of various societal values (Onifade, 2001). This supported the structural functionalism theory which addresses society as a whole in terms of the functions of its constituent elements namely; norms, customs, traditions and institutions (Barnard, 2000). For example in Sierra-Leone sports for peace and development programmes have worked towards post-conflict reconstruction through civil society involvement, and plugging into education and exercise.

In areas of major crisis such as; war-torn zones and locations of forced migration, sports have become a psychological resource of hope to support various developmental projects aimed at ameliorating a range of interventions related to HIV education, as well as reconciliation and peace amongst warring factions and countries (Jarvie, Hwang & Brennan, 2008). Providing sporting activities in communities is one way of helping to integrate people from different backgrounds. This has placed sports higher up the agenda of organisations, aiming to facilitate humanitarian aid packages for countries in need. Thus, Best (1999) proposes that sport makes a positive contribution to health, has economic significance both as an employment sector and a potential economic regenerator and can provide a range of community benefits by increasing cohesion, preventing crime and contributing to academic achievement.

Moral principles are important component for character development. Participants in sports learn how to reason morally when they evaluate their personal moral values and develop a consistent and impartial set of moral principles by which to live (Lumpkin, Stoll, & Beller 2003). Thus, Bredemeier and Shields (1995) described sports character in terms of four virtues: compassion, fairness, sports-personship and integrity, believe that the possession of these qualities or virtues facilitates the consistent display of moral

action. This process requires discerning what is right and wrong, and acting based on what is known and valued (Carter 1996). Participants can be taught what character is and how to show the moral courage to do what is right. Wooden and Jamison (1997) addressed the importance of character and what character does for an individual by stating that the ability may get one to the top, but it takes character to keep one there. While Krzyzewski (2001) believes that a person's character is reflected in how he or she reacts to difficult and trying situations.

The social process by which people interact and behave in a group environment involves the influence of personality, power, and behaviour on the group process. Sport works primarily by bridging relationships across social, economic and cultural devices within society, and by building a sense of shared identity and fellowship among groups that might otherwise be inclined to treat each other with distrust, hostility or violence. Lederach (1997) views relationship-building as the central component of peace-building and highlights the importance of interventions that explicitly focus on strategic networking to build relationships.

This has made non-governmental organization (NGOs) positioned to facilitate the process of relationship-building by bringing people together and engaging them in dialogue and programmes that cut-across diverse boundaries through sports. Sports programmes can play a contributing role in this process, when properly supported, creating more opportunities for social contact, establishing community sports organizations, the participation of community sports volunteers generates social ties and community infrastructure that help to build peace and stability (Sugden, 2006).

Community sports programmes can provide shared experiences between people that re-humanize opposing groups in the eyes of their enemies. This help by sharing sports experiences, sports participants from conflicting groups increasingly grow to feel that they are alike, rather than different. This shared "ritual identity," or sense of belonging to the same group on the basis of a shared ritual experience, helps to erase the dehumanizing effects of persistent negative characterizations of opposing groups, connecting individuals to communities.

As an international language and a means to an end, sports have increasingly been used by the United Nations and non-governmental organisations in partnership with local

grassroots agencies. Peace and Development cause people to listen and consider different ideas in resolving conflict through sports as a powerful tool to engage all sections of the community and breaking down barriers between them. For example in Sierra Leone, UNICEF in partnership with the NGO on 'the Right to play', incorporate sports and play into its community based on re-integration programme.

In another view, Monnigton (2005) sees the use of sports in form of psychological aspects, as a means of bringing people together from different communities with dispute to share positive experiences and gain greater understanding of each other's ways of life. The intervention of sports in resolving conflicts provide meaningful life of an early stage for young people who are usually being used in causing problems, thereby reducing the risk that may get them involved in anti-social behaviour. Riorden (1986) consenting to this, stated that, sports in terms of psycho-social in developing societies has serious functions to perform. He stated further that, this function as a control with specific utilitarian and ideological designs associated with hygiene, health, defence, patriotism, integration, productivity, international recognition, cultural identity and nation building.

The identification of sports for development which refers to the creation of sports infrastructure and sports competition, enact the basic principle behind perspective as the universal right of all people to participate in sports and play. Sports have been used on several occasions for peace and development in a society, and as a means for societal unification. For instance, sports have successfully brought together the two Koreas, most recently seen at the 2003 Pan-Asian Games when the North and South Korean teams marched side by side at the opening ceremony. United nation (2004) adopted resolution to crisis region stated that, sports should be used as a means to promote education, health, peace and development.

The universal value of sports to resolve the problems of nations, states and the world over have been identified by political leaders, governments and leaders of numerous national agencies. Kofi Annan (2002) former Secretary-General of United Nations stated his belief that" sports can play a significant role in improving the lives of not only individuals, but the whole communities. He concluded that, it is the right time to build on the understanding of encouraging governments, development agencies and communities to think on how sports can be included more systematically in the plans to help children

and youths; particularly those living in the midst of poverty, disease and conflict. This agrees with the United Nations (2004) general assembly resolution which underlines the importance of sports as a means to encourage, enhance and promote peace, dialogue and understanding among peoples and civilizations.

In the same view, Blair (2002), former British Prime Minister, endorsed the importance of sports to address a variety of political agenda, when he identified government's new vision for sports in the United Kingdom (UK) as a means to promote peace and development in the country. He empathised on the roles sports play in the era of new millennium and world globalisation has a focus for promoting the fundamental elements in order to achieve 'Global Millennium Developments Goals' by the United Nations Agencies through transformation (attitude and behaviour) processes which involve psychological and social roles of sports to be meaningful in the society and youth in conflict areas. The primary aim therefore is for sports to contribute to overall development through sports related projects.

Niger-Delta area emanated mostly from the South-South region of the oil rich producing states, covers an area of about 70,000 square kilometers and accounts for 7.5% of total land mass in Nigeria, which extend from Apoi to Bakassi (now in Cameroun), from Mashin creek to the Bight of Benin which covers a coastline of 560km; about two-third of the entire coastline of Nigeria. The states considered part of the Niger-Delta region include: Abia, Akwa-Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo, Imo, Ondo and Rivers states with estimated population of about 20 million; consisting of over forty different ethnic groups, speaking 250 different languages and consist of about 300 communities (NDDC, 2004; Emeka, 2005; Wikipedia, 2006). The predominant occupations of the people are farming and fishing. The areas have been involved in crisis with the government, Oil Companies, states and communities. Also noteworthy is the inter-communal conflicts in the most conflict-prone states of Bayelsa State. Delta State, Rivers State, Edo state and so on, which include: Okpoama vs. Ewoama; Liama vs. Beletiam; Twon-Brass vs. Okpoama; Emadike vs. Epebu; Oleh vs. Olomoro, to mention but few (Vanguard. Monday, August 14. 2006). Finding solution to the problems of inter-tribal and community communal conflicts has been the hall mark of disputes that needed resolutions to manage these crises. Thus, the researcher investigated psycho-social roles

of sports as predictors of peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta communities.

Statement of the Problems

Sport, wherever, and at whatever level is played and always presents a set of moral challenges. Because of the nature of sport, it is not possible to participate without encountering those moral challenges. But, like moral challenges in many other fields of life, those challenges often do not present themselves explicitly. The sufferings of the Niger Delta people has for long existed, even before independence. Evidence showed that the land and waters in the areas had become polluted through the rapid spread of dark, greasy substances left there. Due to some environmental neglect and lack of infrastructural development put in place by multinational companies which have for years, made billions of dollars drawing oil from the land in the hinterland. Indeed, for the people of this area, it is a story of absolute neglect. The communities in these areas (Niger-Delta) lack basic social amenities like roads, electricity, schools, hospitals and portable water. The unfortunate irony is that these are communities whose lands produce the nation's wealth, yet their lives present a perfect picture of abject penury.

The communities believe most oil companies who engage in explorations on their land and water have paid negligible attention to their problems. This alongside the Government too, the people believe, has been treating them like foreigners in their own lands. What the people are asking for is that part of the wealth realized from oil exploration should be used to develop their area by providing basic social infrastructures and linking almost all the satellite towns within the riverine areas with good roads. Competition for economic resources for development in the Niger-Delta areas has resulted to some internal conflicts between ethnic groups, especially in the Western Niger-Delta, comprising of Bayelsa State, Delta State, and Rivers State (Folger, Poole & Stutman, 1997).

There have been conflicts between indigenes of the Niger-Delta and oil companies operating in these areas. Moreover, conflicts have occurred between the Niger-Delta 'militants' (ex-militants) and the Nigerian government (oil infrastructures), the inter-ethnic conflicts in spite of its relatively low occurrence, is the most well known of the Niger-Delta conflicts to the Nigerian public. This is because it usually involves bigger

area, greater loss of lives and properties. The lack of employment and non-infrastructure amenities in the areas, whereby most youths lack entrepreneurial skills and proper education within their communities cause for urgent attention. The youths have constantly resorted to open conflicts and violence against those operating companies (especially SHELL, AGIP, CHEVRON and others) and local government officials. Cases of intra-communal conflicts are not new in the Niger-Delta, for instance, the conflict between Okpoama and Ewoama, the later community was completely destroyed. In the Liama and Beletiamama case of the 1990s, the destruction of Beletiamama was such that, even by the middle of 2005, it was difficult to imagine that, a town of several thousand people once existed there (Vanguard, 2006).

Sports forms part of human and social development that contribute to social cohesion, tolerance and integration and is an effective channel for physical and socio-economic development. As a universal language, sports can be a powerful medium for social and economic change, which can be utilized to bridge cultural gaps, resolve conflict and educate people in ways that very few activities can. Therefore, in critical or difficult political situations, the effectiveness of governance is dependent on the ability to address social issues and human needs. Thus, the researcher examined the extent to which psycho-social roles of sports could assist for peace and development among male in-school adolescent of the Niger-Delta communities’.

Objective of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find out the psycho-social roles of sports as predictors of peace and development among male in-school adolescent in crisis areas of the Niger-Delta communities. In doing this, the study examined impact of the roles of sports to the development of male in-school adolescents in peace-keeping fostering their physical, emotional health and building valuable social connections. Based on this, specific objectives were examined which are:

1. Determine the contribution of the roles of sports in coordinating and utilizing it for strategic way for peace and development in crisis areas of the Niger-Delta communities.

2. Examining the strength of relationship between the roles of sports on peace and development among male in-school adolescent in the crisis areas of the Niger-Delta communities.

Research Questions

The following research questions were answered:

1. Would the place of birth influence male in-school adolescents to crisis in the Niger-Delta communities?
2. What roles do the type of sports play among male in-school adolescents to peace and development in crisis areas of Niger-Delta communities?
3. Is there any relationship between the psycho-social roles of sports on peace and development among male in-school adolescents of Niger Delta communities?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

1. There will be no significant joint effect of independent variables (socialization, nationalism, social control, culture/ethical value, character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth restiveness) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents of the Niger-Delta communities, Nigeria.
2. There will be no significant relative effect of independent variables (socialization, nationalism, social control, culture/ethical value, character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth restiveness) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents of the Niger-Delta communities, Nigeria.
3. There will be no significant joint effect of independent variables (Social: socialization, nationalism, social control and culture/ethical value,) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents of the Niger-Delta communities, Nigeria.
4. There will be no significant relative effect of independent variables (socialization, nationalism, social control and culture/ethical value) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents of the Niger-Delta communities, Nigeria.
5. There will be no significant joint effect of independent variables (Psychological: Character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth restiveness)

on peace and development among male in-school adolescents of the Niger-Delta communities, Nigeria.

6. There will be no significant relative effect of independent variables (Character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth restiveness) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents of Niger-Delta communities, Nigeria.

Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited to the following:

1. Descriptive survey research design was used for this study.
2. Multistage sampling technique was used in this study to select 1,700 respondents from SS1-SS3.
3. A structured validated questionnaire tagged Psycho-Social Roles of Sports Survey which has: Psychological Sports Roles Questionnaire (PSRQ), Social Sports Roles Questionnaire (SSRQ), and Sports for Development and Peace Questionnaire (SDPQ) were used as instruments for data collection. Focus Group discussion Questionnaire was also used to gather information from the respondents.
4. Twenty trained research assistants were used for the study.
- 5 Independent variables (Psycho-social) of socialization, cultural and ethical value, social control, character building, occupational mobility, nationalism, group dynamics and youth restiveness, and the dependent variables as sports for peace and development.
6. Descriptive statistics of frequency counts, percentage. Mean, standard deviation, also with bar chart and pie-chart to graphically illustrate the results. Inferential statistics of multiple regression to test the hypotheses at 0.05 alpha level.

Limitation of the Study

The limitation observed during the course of this study.

The location of some villages made it difficult to reach them easily. The reason was that access to those places is only by speed boats and local canoes used at the riverine areas. This made transportation only once a day by 12 noon. Thus, going to the riverine areas was difficult getting to some schools in the chosen local government areas not reachable. Also, due to unprecedented conflicts that occurred during the course of distributing the questionnaires, this resulted to some questionnaires lost in those areas, this fall short to

the actual total number proposed and could not be analyzed owing to subject mortalities. The roles of sports in ex-militant and refugees groups were not analysed, though many of the variables used in this study can be quite applicable and useful in such a unique community. There is also no data to comprehensively compare the costs of sports-based peace-building projects with alternatives, and it is simply assumed that the price of running sports projects is relatively low due to lack of facilities and equipment needed.

Significance of the Study

The roles sports play through psychological and social aspects in contemporary society cannot be over emphasized. It has become an inexorable part of the modern society with its influence being felt in all facets of national life. The findings of this study is believed could help identify some of the specific ways of using sports in order to bring about peace in the community, thereby promoting inter-tribal unity in crisis areas of the Niger-Delta communities in Nigeria. It may also provide opportunity for the development in the society where the ethnic embrace peace among the Niger-Delta communities.

The result of this study may also provide baseline information needed for planning, implementing comprehensive programmes through sports that would address the regular needs of the people in the communities of the Niger-Delta areas. It may also assist the government policy on implementation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) in solving the Niger-Delta crisis. The result of this study would help to explore creative means of effective communication through the use of sports-related and different ways of development and peace programmes among different communities in the area.

The outcomes of the study will help the state and local government in form of channeling the peace and development of crisis areas by implementing structural development in terms of sports facilities building, as a means for economy manpower for the communities at large. This would generate income for other infrastructural development in the areas. Moreover, the outcomes of this study would help to initiate the essential benefits of planning sports programmes by providing social, physical and educational tools necessary to improve the individual potential of the youths.

The outcomes of this study if taken to consideration and implemented by the Federal government, state, local and other agencies (stakeholders) would help to position sports as a tool for peace and development, whereby sports would not only be positioned as an

end in itself, but also as low-cost and high-impact tools to achieve broader development aims, in particular the Millennium Development Goals. Furthermore, the result of this study would afford governments and her agencies not only to meet some of the needs to engage civil society in employment opportunities and essential role-play as policy and delivery partners, but also challenging them to become more engaged in sports for peace and development efforts programmes.

Finally, it would provide an insight for the local authority, and state government in engaging multilateral institutions, awareness of the value of sports for peace and Development, as well as encouraging its integration into their policies and strategies. It is hoped that, this study may also serve as a springboard for other researches of similar nature among the conflict or crisis community area.

Operational Definition of Terms

Development: to realize the right of all members of society to participate in sports and leisure activities.

Ethnicity: Society with different believes and norms made up of tribes or clans.

Ethnic conflict: Situation involving two clans or groups strife against each other.

Hubris: Elite athletes sense of being unique and extraordinary underlying social dynamics of team sports contribute to deviant behaviour.

Infrastructural: provision of materials or supply or amenities provided for people utilization.

Interpersonal Communication: when two or more people are engaged in a communication exchange.

Legacies: famous form of the past

Male in-School Adolescent: all secondary schools male students from SS1-SS3 in the .three states chosen in the Niger-Delta communities.

Polarization: This refer to many groups joined together

Political crisis: is used here to refer to corruption or pretender politics

Psychological variables: These are character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth positive restiveness.

Resource Competition: taking place against the background of various predisposing factors.

Social entities: group existing separately from other things

Sports for Peace and Development: the intentional use of sports, physical activity and play to attain specific development and peace objectives.

Social variables: These are socialization through sports, nationalism through sports, social control through sports and cultural/ethical value through sports.

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CHPATER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The related literature was reviewed under the following sub-headings:

1. Historical background of the Niger-Delta Communities
2. History of Ethnic and Ethnicity conflict in Communities in Nigeria
 - (i) Ethnic and Ethnicity conflict in the Communities
 - (ii) Causes of Ethnic Conflict in the Communities
3. Concept of conflict in the Society
 - (i) Sources of Communities Conflicts
 - (ii) Theoretical Approach of conflict in the Society
 - (a) Social conflict theory
 - (b) Structural Functionalism theory
4. Sources and Causes of community conflict in the Niger-Delta Communities.
 - i) Economic causes and Community conflict
 - ii) Political causes and Community conflict
 - iii) Psychological causes and Community conflict
 - iv) Social causes and Community conflict
 - v) Ethnic causes and Community conflict
5. Conflict Management and Group outcomes in Conflict Communities
6. Communication processes in Conflict Management in Communities
7. Conflict Resolution and Management Strategies in Crisis Communities
8. Means of Conflict Resolution in the Communities
 - (A) (i) Conciliation or Mediation by a 3rd party intermediating to settle dispute
 - (ii) Arbitration
 - (iii) Conflict resolution via negotiation
 - (B) Ways of resolving Conflicts
9. Concept of Sports and value in the Society
 - (i) Definition of Sports
 - (ii) Sports and the Society
 - (iii) Sports roles and the Society
 - (iv) Sports functioning in the Society

- (v) Potential of sports in the society
- 10. Positive and Negative effects of sport participation
- 11. Theoretical Framework: Social Bond
- 12. Path to success through sports
- 13. Sports for Development and Peace
- 14. Sports unique contribution to Development and Peace
 - (i) Sport's universal popularity
 - (ii) Sport's ability to connect people and communities
 - (iii) Sport's as a communication platform
 - (iv) Sport's as a cross-cutting nature
 - (v) Sport's as a potential to empower, motivating and inspire
- 15. Growing International Support for sport Development and Peace
- 16. Elements of Sport and Sports for development and peace
 - (i) Countries with the policies and programmes already
 - (ii) Linkages with Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)
- 17. Sports and Peace Practice
 - (i) Peace Building and conflict prevention through sports
 - (ii) Social Integration and the Development of social capital through sports
 - (iii) Communication and Social Mobilization through sports
 - (iv) Criticism for sports and Peace
 - (v) Future Vision for Sports for Development and Peace
- 18. Sports and Development in the Community
- 19. Opportunities and Challenges through sports
- 20. Benefits of Sports for Peace and Development
- 21. Sports and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)
- 22. Contribution of Elite sports for development
- 23. Limitations and Risks Associated with Sports
- 24. Psycho-Social Variable of sports roles for Peace and Development in the Communities
 - (i) Socialization through sports participation for peace and development

- (ii) Cultural and Ethnical value through sports participation for peace and development
- (iii) Social control through sports participation for peace and development
- (iv) Nationalism and integration through sports participation for peace and development
- (v) Character building roles through sports participation for peace and development
- (vi) Occupation mobility roles through sports participation for peace and development
- (vii) Social Mobilization through sports participation for peace and development
- (viii) Positive Attitude development roles through sports participation for peace and development
- (ix) Group Dynamics roles through sports participation for peace and development

25. Appraisal of related reviewed literature

Historical Background of the Niger-Delta Community

Niger Delta is an area inhabited by about 20 million people with different cultures, languages and histories. They are united by their historical status in Nigeria and share a common identity as southern minorities (NDDC, 2004). Historically, the peoples of the area were at the forefront of minority agitation in the colonial and the immediate post-independence periods (Saro-Wiwa, 1992; 1993). Their situation has not changed as their demands and position in the Nigerian federation remain unaltered despite the different commissions that have been set up by successive administrations to look at the question of the minorities. What has exacerbated the problem of the Niger Delta is the question of oil (Dokubo, 2004).

Oil, which is the mainstay of the Nigerian economy, contributing about 90% of the nation's foreign exchange earnings and revenue, is produced in the region. However, the Niger Delta region remains grossly underdeveloped, pauperized, marginalized, and largely poverty zone (World Bank, 1995). The basic facilities and infrastructures of a modern society like potable water, electricity, health care facilities, good roads, cottage industries and employment are lacking in the area (Dokubo, 2004). It is this paradox and apparent tragedy of poverty in the midst of wealth of the Niger Delta people that forms

the political economy of human rights violations in the area (Okonta & Douglas, 2001). Apart from the issues of the civil war and abandoned properties, the *raison d'être* of human rights violations in the Niger Delta region has to do with the political economy of oil (Okafor, 1992).

As noted by scholars (Iyoha & Adamu, 2002; Chinedu, 2004), oil, which forms the live wire of the Nigerian economy, is largely produced in the Niger Delta. This issue of oil is also linked to the minority question and the perceived injustices that those groups and communities suffer in the Nigerian federation. The wealth derived from oil by the Nigerian federation is not reflected in the socio economic life of the oil producing communities and their standards of living (Human Rights Watch, 2002). The Nigerian state does not have a coherent, consistent and just formula of recycling some parts of the oil wealth it accumulates back into the communities from which oil is produced. The period during which oil became the mainstay of the Nigerian economy coincided with the emergence of military rule with its logic of power centralization and economic control (Oputa, 2005).

The rise of the military in power after the civil war saw a de-emphasis on the principle of derivation as a revenue sharing formula to other factors like population, need and even development (Oputa, 2005). The implication of this is that, what oil-producing states got from the federation account was increasingly not commensurate with their contributions and sacrifices in producing it, since the bulk of the revenue was derived from the extraction of oil beneath their land. Apart from the increasing marginalization of the oil producing areas in revenue allocation in the federation, there is also the problem of ecological disaster and environmental degradation that oil exploration, hazards of oil spillage and gas flaring engender in those communities (Onduku, 2001; Iyoha & Adamu, 2002).

Oil exploration and its poor management, as manifested in oil spillage, dislocates the economic life of the people as farming and fishing, the main occupation of the people in the area, are decimated, their environment polluted, and their water poisoned. On the environmental impact of oil exploration in the Niger Delta, the Civil Liberties Organization (CLO), a prominent human rights group in Nigeria, asserts that: Today, the entire Niger Delta and coastal wetlands of Nigeria producing the nation's oil wealth is

well known to be one of the most fragile ecosystems in the World. It has also been labelled the most endangered delta in the World. Demand for land is high being a densely populated region (Ojo, 1996). While their environment and means of livelihood are undermined, little effort is made to recompense the Niger delta people with basic infrastructure of electricity, roads, schools, potable water, cottage industry and employment. As such, wanton neglect and deepening poverty characterize the Niger Delta communities.

A broad section of the elite in the Niger Delta believes that the injustices their people suffer are due to the fact that they are minorities in the Nigerian federation (Eghosa, 1995; Corporate Social Responsibility News, 2002). They accuse the major ethnic groups who control political power at the federal level of using oil wealth derived from the oil producing region to develop their areas at the expense of the area from where the oil is gotten (Eghosa, 1995). According to the Oputa (2005) report, two actors are accused as being primarily responsible for the deplorable condition of the Niger-Delta people. First is the state, which seems not to have protected the rights of the minorities in the Niger-Delta and abandoned its primary responsibility of facilitating socio-economic development in the areas.

The second of the actors accused are the oil multinational companies engaged in oil exploitation in those communities. The report puts the allegations leveled against the oil companies as basically three. First is that they mostly operate below internationally acceptable minimum standards as their activities regularly promote oil spillage, gas flaring and other heinous side-effects that incapacitate the environment and affect the health and livelihood of the people. The second accusation is that the oil companies care less about the welfare of the local people from where they drill oil. They only give a token to the communities, which do not improve their standards of living. The third allegation is that, oil companies often employ divide and rule tactics to cause disaffection and conflict among and within communities through a divisive strategy of compensation payment. The oil companies are quite selective in terms of who they give “informal compensation or gratis” (Sen, 1999). They may give to the traditional rulers in order to faceoff the youths in a community, or to one community as against the other.

The social injustice, neglect and poverty that constitute the lot of the Niger Delta people produced a series of contradictions. It led to the rise of ethnic and minority rights groups that demand for justice and fairness for their communities. From 1990 to 1999, there were no less than 24 of these minority rights pressure groups (Obi, 2002). The groups include the Movement for the Survival of the Ogoni People (MOSOP), Ijaw Youth Congress (IYC), Movement for Reparation to Ogbia (MORETO), Ijaw National Congress (INC), Egi National Congress (ENG), and Isoko National Youth Movement (INYM). Some of these groups have made various declarations and demands in order to call attention to the plight of their communities, and redirect public policy in order to promote fairness, justice and their fundamental rights and human dignity in the Nigerian federation (Obi, 2002). These declarations include the Ogoni Bill of Rights, the Kaiama Declaration, Akabuka Declaration of the Egi people, The Oron Bill of Rights, the Warri Accord, and the Resolutions of the First Urhobo Economic Summit (Ekine, 2001).

The reaction of the state to those activities has been largely to unleash repression on the leaders of these groups and their communities. These ranged from the militarization of those areas through military or police occupation, harsh laws to ban their activities, arrest and detention of activists, and harassment and intimidation of the people. Also, the state play communities against each other through its policies like the creation of local governments and the sitting of local government headquarters or secretariat. It is believed that the state is not alone in some of those activities.

The complicity of the oil multinational corporations is also alleged. All the actions of the government were seen to contradict most of the promises of the former President that his administration is out: To heal the wounds of the past and quickly put the ugly past behind us so as to continue to stretch our hands of fellowship and friendship to all Nigerians for complete reconciliation based on truth and knowledge of the truth in our land (Obasanjo, 1999). The President went to make his seriousness in moving the country forward through the maintenance of peace and genuine reconciliation by asserting that: to reconcile all those who feel alienated by past political events, heal wounds inflicted on our people and restore harmony in our country. The injured and the seemingly injured to be reconciled with their oppressors or seeming oppressors. That is the way to move forward (Obasanjo, 1999). The above is not only the background and context of human

rights violations, but the genesis of the protracted conflict in the Niger Delta region. These crises have become acute, insurmountable and intractable as it is being witnessed now in Nigeria.

The tragedy of the Niger Delta is already too well known to be recounted. In all history, every people under such inhuman oppression ultimately took up arms to fight for the wrongs. One of the fiercest social groups is the MEND, which has repeatedly and most eloquently articulated its demands for a well-meaning state, which should not hesitate to grant. Such contentious issues as adherence to the principles of federalism and resource control form the *raison d'être* for the struggle. The crisis in the region portends grave danger not just for Nigeria, but for Africa and probably the world. As the crisis escalates, the loss in human terms would aggregate a holocaust. Why have things been so in Nigeria after many years of independence? Why is she in apparent ruins? And, what could be done to rectify the paralysis that has characterized her dialectical history since her take-off as a nation? This disturbing trend has gained momentum since the genesis of the democratic experiment, a development which shows that, our political class has refused to free itself from the manacle of political intolerance and immaturity which, among other factors, made it a ready captive of the military oligarchy in the past and, which will continue to make it so, unless there is urgent and permanent change of philosophy through committed moral rearmament. When evaluated against the background of the wherewithal and rationale of acceptable democratic culture, it is clear that the current events in Nigeria's Niger Delta region appear less favorable to an environment where a generally, our politicians, majority of whom are "opportunists" and political-prostitutes", have not actually imbibed (as it should be) the spirit and etiquettes of democracy which has seen most polities to greatness and international prominence. Their stock-in-trade is antidemocratic, brinkmanship and wanton destruction of lives and properties as it is presently in the Niger Delta among others.

The Niger-Delta people of Nigeria have agitated for development in which they believed that they have been marginalized and neglected. They were forced into the then Eastern Region of Nigeria which they fought against and demanded the creation of Calabar-Ogoja-Rivers (COR) state (Region) without success. Nigeria earns almost all from the oil from the Niger-Delta, the area which continues to lack development and

investment from the government. They feel forgotten and ignored. Calabar, a highly populated city in the Niger-Delta was the first capital of Nigeria, while other ancient cities like Kano state, Kastina state, Sokoto state, Lagos state, Kaduna state and Enugu state are all individual states. Complaints were made against why oil money from the Niger-Delta should be used to build non-Niger Delta area and a city like Abuja. The Niger-Delta areas could not be proud of good roads among the Ijaws. They complained about lack of access to good water, health care, and road systems oil companies operating in the Niger-Delta have the head offices outside the Niger-Delta (Wikipedia, 2006). They lamented that, indigenes are not holding reputable positions in the oil companies and their indigenes are not given opportunity to participate in the Nigeria oil business. According to Okonta and Douglas (2001) the Niger-Delta region has a steadily growing population estimated to be over 30 million people as at 2005; accounting for more than 23% of Nigeria's total population.

The South-South Zone called the Niger-Delta includes: Akwa-Ibom State, Bayelsa State, Cross River State, Delta State, Edo State and Rivers State are two different entities. The Niger Delta has the oil producing region of the South-South Zone is a geo-political zone. The delta is an oil-rich region, and has been the centre of international controversy over devastating pollution and ecocide, kleptocracy (notably by the Abacha regime), and human rights violations in which Royal Dutch Shell has been implicated.

Western (or Northern) Niger Delta

Western Niger Delta consists of the western section of the coastal South-South Nigeria which includes Delta, and the southernmost parts of Edo, and Ondo States. The western (or Northern) Niger Delta is a heterogeneous society with several ethnic groups including the Urhobo, Delta Ibo, Isoko, Itsekiri, Ijaws (or Ezon) and Ukwuani groups in Delta State, along with Yoruba in Ondo State. Their livelihoods are primarily based on fishing and farming. History has it that the Western Niger Delta was controlled by chiefs of the five primary ethnic groups: the Itsekiri, Isoko, Ukwuani, Ijaws and Urhobo with whom the British government had to sign separate "Treaties of Protection" in their formation of "Protectorates" that later became southern Nigeria.

Central Niger Delta

Central Niger Delta consists of the central section of the coastal South-South Nigeria which includes Bayelsa and Rivers States. The Central Niger Delta region has the Ijaws (including the Nembe-Brass, Ogbia, Kalabari, Ibanis (Opobo, Bonny, etc.), Okrika, and Andoni clans, the Ogoni and other groups which consist of the Ekpeye, Ndoni, Etche, Ikwerre and Ndoki in Rivers State.

Eastern Niger Delta

Eastern Niger Delta Section consists of the Eastern (or Atlantic) section of the coastal South-South Nigeria which includes Akwa Ibom and Cross River States. The Eastern Niger Delta region has the Efik, Ibibio, Annang, Oron, Ogoja (including Ekoi and Bekwara) people, who are all related with a common language and ancestor.



Fig. 2.1: Map of Nigeria numerically showing states typically considered part of the Niger Delta region (CRS Report for Congress, Nigeria: Current Issues Updated January 30, 2008)

1. Abia, 2. Akwa Ibom, 3. Bayelsa, 4. Cross River, 5. Delta, 6. Edo, 7. Imo, 8. Ondo,
9. Rivers

History of ethnic and ethnicity conflict in the communities in Nigeria

The history of ethnicity and ethnic conflicts in Nigeria could also be traced back to the colonial transgressions that forced the ethnic groups of the northern and southern provinces to become an entity called Nigeria in 1914. Since the various ethnic groups living in these provinces were not consulted regardless to the merger, the British colonial

policy was autocratic and undemocratic, and thus led to conflict. This denied the people's basic needs of participation, equality and social wellbeing. An administration that endorses segregation for its people and does not have the unity of the country at heart. Rather, the separate governments introduced in the North and the South were designed to strengthen the colonial grip on Nigerian society and weaken the people's potentials for resistance. This era of provincial development, though relatively peaceful, also led to growing ethnocentrism. The introduction of "indirect rule" in Nigeria by Lord Fredrick Lugard, the chief administrator, was not the appropriate mechanism for managing tribal animosities in the colony. The system, not only reinforced ethnic divisions, "it also complicated the task of welding diverse elements into a Nigerian nation" (Coleman, 1958 as cited in Nnoli, 1980). This strategy of governance distanced ethnic groups from each other. Lugard gave power to the traditional rulers who corruptly used it in the villages to amass wealth, land and established patronage networks, which, in the long run, encouraged tribalism and nepotism.

The segregation of the Nigerian colony was also reinforced by the colonial laws that limited to the mobility of Christians South, North and the Muslims, created a separate settlement for non-indigenous citizens in the North (Ruben, 1978). Prejudice and hatred became rife in the provinces as different ethnic groups started looking at each other suspiciously in all spheres of contact and interactionism. Unequal and differential treatment of ethnic groups was responsible for the intense competition in Nigerian society. It created disparity in educational achievement and widened the political and economic gaps between northern and southern Nigeria. During this period, there was significant scarcity of all goods, "evident in the economic, social and political areas of life. It affected employment, education, political participation and the provision of social services to the population (Nnoli, 1980). The lack of such "basic needs" gave elites the ability to mobilize groups for intense competition, employing ethnocentrism to achieve their goals. In 1947, a colonial constitution divided Nigeria into three political regions: East, West and North. The North, which was predominately Hausa-Fulani, was the largest and eventually the most populous region. The Igbos dominated the East and Yorubas the West. With the three major ethnic groups in dominance, the minority groups

rebelled and Nigerians started fighting for ethnic dominance as the nation marched towards independence (Subaru, 1996).

The creation of the three ethnic regions did not take into account the needs of the ethnic minority groups for autonomy and self-determination. Instead, they were lost within the majority. This development was based on the “bogus theory of regionalism. That one should be loyal to and protect the interest of one’s region to the exclusion of the others.” (Eghosa, 1991). The years between 1952 and 1966 brought change in the political culture of the country, transforming the three regions into three political entities. Thus, the struggle for independence was reduced to the quest for ethnic dominance. At this time, ethnic and sub-ethnic loyalties threatened the survival of both East and West, while the North was divided religiously between Christianity and Islam. It was a period of politicized ethnicity and competition for resources that have worsened the relationships between ethnic groups? There was a high degree of corruption, nepotism and tribalism. The national interest was put aside while politicians used public money to build and maintain patronage networks. Since independence, the situation in Nigeria has been fraught with ethnic politics whereby the elite from different ethnic groups schemed to attract as many federal resources to their regions as possible, thus neglecting issues that could have united the country.

The anarchy, competition, and insecurity led to the demise of the first republic. Military intervention culminated in the gruesome ethnic war from 1967 to 1970, when the mistreated Igbos of eastern Nigeria (Biafrans) threatened to secede from the federation. The Igbos’ grievances were caused by the denial of their basic human needs (Burton, 1997) of equality, citizenship, autonomy and freedom. Wherever such basic needs are denied, conflict often follows as aggrieved groups use violent means to fight for their human rights. While the politicians tried to cope with the colonial legacy that lumped incompatible ethnic groups together into one country, the military elites staged coups, making a mockery of democracy in Africa’s most populous and promising country.

The corruption, ineptitude and confusion that marked the military era plunged Nigeria into economic problems, poverty, and ethno-religious conflicts until the 1990s, In Nigeria, where politics still follow ethnic lines; there is always disagreement about the rules of the game. The military intervened because they viewed the civilian leaders as

inept and indecisive. However, the southerners distrusted the military regime because they felt it was trying to maintain Hausa-Fulani hegemony in Nigeria. On June 12, 1993, Chief Moshood Abiola, a Yoruba from southwestern Nigeria, won Nigeria's presidential election, but his presidency was annulled by the military regime. In retaliation, southern Nigerians began to form militant organizations to protest unfair treatment and demand a democratically-elected government. During the authoritarian rule of General Sani Abacha, a Muslim from the North, Southerners increasingly feared political marginalization and demanded an end to the Hausa-Fulani domination of the political arena. This development signified the weakness of the government and their lack of effective mechanisms to manage ethnic conflict in Nigeria.

There have been reports of disparities in the distribution of the oil resources in Nigeria for many years. This contentious issue has fuelled most of the recent ethnic conflicts in the country. Though the constitution provided for a new system of resource allocation, ethnic groups from the oil and mineral producing areas see the new system as inadequate, arguing they are not receiving enough money for their own regional development. These are the dynamics behind the Ogoni crisis and the recent sporadic ethnic violence in the oil producing Niger Delta states.

Ethnic and Ethnicity Conflict in the Communities

Ethnic groups are defined as a community of people who share cultural and linguistic characteristics including history, tradition, myth, and origin. Scholars have been trying to develop a theoretical approach to ethnicity and ethnic conflict for a long time, such as Donald Horowitz, Gurr, Rothschild and Azar (1986) cited in Burton (1997) agree that the ethnic conflicts experienced today especially in Africa are deep rooted. These conflicts over race, religion, language and identity have become so complex that they are difficult to resolve or manage. Ethnicity has a strong influence on one's status in a community. Ethnic conflicts are therefore often caused by an attempt to secure more power or access more resources. The opinion of this study is that conflict in Africa is synonymous with inequality. Wherever such inequality manifests among groups, conflict is inevitable. Hence the question, how can we effectively manage ethnic conflict in Africa to avoid further human losses? Is there a blueprint for conflict management?

Causes of Ethnic Conflict in the Communities

Economic factors have been identified as one of the major causes of conflict in Africa. Theorists believe that competition for scarce resources is a common factor in almost all ethnic conflicts in Africa. In multi-ethnic societies like Nigeria and South Africa, ethnic communities violently compete for property, rights, jobs, education, language, social amenities and good health care facilities. In his study, Nnoli (1980) produced empirical examples linking socio-economic factors to ethnic conflict in Nigeria. According to Furnival cited in Nnoli (1980), “the working of economic forces makes for tension between groups with competing interests”. In the case of South Africa, Pinkley (1990) confirms that ethnicity and ethnic conflict appear to be a response to the uneven development in South Africa, which caused ethnic groups (Xhosas, Zulus and even Afrikaners) to mobilize to compete for resources along ethnic lines. It follows that multi-ethnic countries are likely to experience distributional conflicts. Another major cause of ethnic conflict is psychology, especially the fear and insecurity of ethnic groups during transition. It has been opined that extremists build upon these fears to polarize the society.

Additionally, memories of past traumas magnify these anxieties. These interactions produce a toxic brew of distrust and suspicion that leads to ethnic violence. The fear of white Afrikaners in South Africa on the eve of democratic elections was a good case in point. Gurr (1970) relative deprivation theory offers an explanation based on an ethnic groups’ access to power and economic resources. This is closely related to Harms (1992) who wrote that group worth is based on the results of economic and political competitions. According to Lake and Rothschild, (1996) ethnic conflict is a sign of a weak state or a state embroiled in ancient loyalties. In this case, states act with bias to favour a particular ethnic group or region, and behaviours such as preferential treatment fuel ethnic conflicts. Therefore, in critical or difficult political situations, the effectiveness of governance is dependent on its ability to address social issues and human needs.

Scholars have come out with different approaches to conceptualizing ethnicity. Faced with the proliferation of separatist conflicts in North America, the inadequacies underlying modernisation theory are being exposed. The notion that modernity would

result in smooth transition from *gemeinschaft* (community) to *gesellschaft* (association), with gradual dissolution of ethnic affiliations, simply did not work. Ethnicity has persisted in North America, Africa and elsewhere. This failure simply means ethnicity will remain, and that the stability of African states is threatened not by ethnicity per se, but the failure of national institutions to recognise and accommodate ethnic differences and interests. According to this argument, ethnic conflict management is that governments should not discriminate against groups which might result to conflict. The second theory is from the primordial school and stresses the uniqueness and the overriding importance of ethnic identity. From their point of view, ethnicity is a biological and fixed characteristic of individuals and communities. (Guetzkow & Gyr, 1954)

The third theoretical approach is the Instrumentalist argument. (Glazer and Moynihan, 1975; Jehn, 1995). In Africa where poverty and deprivation are becoming endemic, mostly as a result of distributive injustice, ethnicity remains an effective means of survival and mobilization. Ethnic groups that form for economic reasons, easily disband after achieving their objectives. This corresponds with Anderson (1991) that, ethnicity is a construct rather than a constant. Additionally, scholars' attention has also shifted to the nature of ethnic conflict and violence because the post Cold War era has been marked by the resurgence of ethnic conflict and even genocide in some societies like Rwanda, Bosnia, and Zaire. An important theory on conflict and conflict management is Burton's (1997) human needs theory. This approach to ethnic conflict explains that ethnic groups fight because they are denied not only their biological needs, but also psychological and social needs that relate to growth and development. These include peoples' need for identity, security, recognition, participation, and autonomy. This theory provides a plausible explanation of ethnic conflicts in Africa, where such needs are not easily met by undemocratic regimes.

It is necessary to emphasize that proper analysis of ethnic conflicts is very important in order to avoid prescribing a wrong medicine for the ailment. Failure to find solutions to Africa's ethnic will have devastating social and economic consequences on a continent that is already worn out by conflict, poverty and disease. According to theorists, conflict management means constructive handling of differences. It is an art of designing

appropriate institutions to guide inevitable conflict into peaceful channels. The importance of conflict management cannot be overemphasized. It is when leaders and states fail to address important issues and basic needs that violence brews. Nowhere is conflict management and peaceful resolution of conflict more important than in Africa. African leaders should take a second look at their behaviour and policy choices. Emphasis here should be on discouraging corruption, embracing transparency and good governance.

Concept of conflict in the society

Conflict is a word monotonically derived from the Latin word “confligere” meaning to strike together or to clash. Conflict is a state of discord caused by the actual or perceived opposition of needs, values, and interests (Wikipedia, 2006). Albert (2001) described conflict as a physical rather than a moral connotation. Wright (1999) views conflict as an opposition among social entities directed against one another. A conflict can be internal (within oneself) or external (between two or more individuals). In other words, it is a conscious phenomenon and a process by which entities function in line with service of one another. Albert (2001) states that conflict situation exists where there is little or no cooperation between or among social entities. Deutsch (1973) see conflict in terms of incompatibility interference and effectiveness. Pruitt and Jeffrey (1986) also described conflict as means perceived divergence of interest or a belief that the parties’ current aspirations cannot be achieved simultaneously. Folger, Poole and Stutman (1997) stated that conflict is the interaction of interdependent people who perceived incompatible goal and interference from each other.

According to Otite (1999) viewed conflict as serving positive ends in humans. He opined that conflict is a way of settling problems originating from opposing interests and for the continuity of the society. It is a part of human existence, which cannot be separated from men. Conflict is in terms of competitive situations whereby individuals, groups, parties, each having mutually inconsistent goals, undermine in the attempts to reach others. However, conflict can still occur in cooperative situations in which two or more parties have consistent goals, but due to the manner or means in which one party tries to reach their goals may be differences, and can still undermine the other. Conflict emanates from special relationship which groups reside in close proximity whether

physically or psychologically. It is of utmost fact that conflict emanates from different aspects, and groups of communities, which engulf the region of the Niger-Delta areas. Community conflicts often manifest in terms of host stranger face-offs in which a section of the community tag itself as the host (owners of the community) and some other groups as strangers.

A community conflicts could be over religious differences welfares, deprivation, ownership of land and its resources. Human goals and aspirations will always clash; it is therefore unreasonable to hold the vision of a word without conflict. Ross (2004) noted that, community conflict cause one to deny them of what sometimes is their most effective means for bringing about needed change. Though conflict when poorly managed and allowed to degenerate may lead, ultimately to communal wars, this does not connote them in the first instance. Rather, it can if well managed as competitive ideas and goals bring about better society.

Sources of Community conflicts

Community conflicts are caused by four possible factors. These are:

1. Competition for inadequate (or perceived to be inadequate) resources. Human wants are generally said by economists to be insatiable. It is therefore common to find groups within a community competing sometimes aggressively for the resources in the locale. Burton (1997) stated that human needs theory of conflict provide an inclusive explanation of the spectrum of motives which under girds African conflicts. He stated that, theory of conflict begins with the hypothesis that in addition of biological needs of food and shelter, basic socio-psychological, human needs relates to growth and development which include identity, security, recognition, participation and autonomy. The competition assumes a more destructive dimension where what is competed for is short of the population in the competition. Milla (1989) opined that human nature is not a machine to be built after a model and set to do exactly the work prescribed for it, but a tolerant, which requires to grow and develop itself on all sides according to the tendency of inward forces which make it a living thing.
2. Contradicting value systems (relying on beliefs, ideological position and general (worldview) of the interacting parties.

3. Psychological needs of groups and individual self-actualization need for individual group, respect, attempt to project one's group to be better than the others. The psychological dispositions of people presume to be innately troublemakers must be considered and taken care of in community conflicts. The problems created by such people are most of the time; neither related to resources, they could be products of malfunctioned value systems.

4. Manipulation of information. The way information is circulated in a community could either cause conflict or build peace. Where information is used to stir up negative emotions, the result is destructive conflict. Sustainable peace results from situations where information is creatively used to bring people together. Conflict is rooted in people; as opposed to objective facts, such could be right or wrong, reasonable or jaundiced, facts-based or fictitious comment conflict naturally escalates upwards where people carry their (negative) beliefs and perception of others too far.

Theoretical Approach to Conflict in the Society

Social conflict theory

Social conflict theory is a Marxist-based social theory which argues that, individuals and groups (social classes) within society have differing amounts of material and non-material resources (the wealthy vs. the poor) and that, the more powerful groups use their power in order to exploit groups with less power. The two methods by which this exploitation is done are through brute force and economics. Social conflict theorists argued that, money is the mechanism which creates social disorder. The theory further states that, society is created from ongoing social conflict between various groups. There are other theories of deviance, the functionalist theory, the control theory and the strain theory. It also refers to various types of positive social interaction that may occur within social relationships (Barnes, 1995). The conflict theorist argues that, this relationship is unequal and favours the owners. Renters may pay rent for 50 years and still gain absolutely no right or economic interest with the property. It is this type of relationship which the conflict theorist uses to show that, social relationships are about power and exploitation. Marx argued that through dialectic, process, social evolution was directed by the result of class conflict. Marxism argues that, human history is all about this conflict, a result of the strong-rich exploiting the poor-weak. From such a perspective,

money is made through the exploitation of the worker. It is argued thus, that in order for a factory owner to make money, he/she must pay the workers less than they deserve.”

Thus, the social conflict theory states that, groups within a capitalist society tend to interact in a destructive way that allows no mutual benefit and little cooperation. The solution Marxism proposes to this problem is that, of an armed, violent revolution, and a radical change of the culture, customs and values of a society (in the manner of Mao’s Cultural Revolution). However, some would argue that, these changes would almost inevitably bring about the loss of individual freedoms and the creation of one despotic government present to impose Marxism at gunpoint. Other groups, such as the Social Democrats of Western Europe, deny the need for violence in order to bring about such Marxist ideals and have been politically active in various democratic institutes throughout the world. Padgitt (1997) cited by Banks (2007) states that, as long as there are social classes, there will inevitably be conflict.

Structural functionalism theory

Structural functionalism has historical affinity with the application of the scientific method in social theory and research. Sociological positivism also asserts that, one can study the social world in the same ways as one studies the physical world, and that, social laws are directly and objectively observable (Jehn, 1997). Certain contemporary functionalists have, in contrast, rejected empirical methods. Nevertheless, structural functionalists are broadly united in the view. Firstly, that rules and regulations (both informal norms and formal laws) are necessary to organise a society effectively. Secondly, that social institution (both traditional and governmental) forms the necessary constituent parts of the social structure (Barnes, 1995). Although Jehn (1997) may be defined as a structural-functionalist, the perspective was developed primarily through the work of Durkheim, who emphasized the central role that, moral consensus plays in maintaining social order and creating an equilibrium or a normal state of society. Durkheim was concerned with the question of how certain societies maintain internal stability and survive over time. He proposed that such societies tend to be segmented, with equivalent parts held together by shared values, common symbols or systems of exchanges. In modern and complicated societies, members perform very different tasks, resulting in a strong interdependence. Based on the metaphor above of an organism in

which many parts function together to sustain the whole, Durkheim argued that, complicated societies are held together by organic solidarity.

These views were upheld by Radcliffe-Brown, who, following Comte, believed that, society constitutes a separate level of reality, distinct from both biological and inorganic matter. Explanations of social phenomena had therefore to be constructed within this level of individuals being merely transient occupants of comparatively stable social roles (Gingrich, 1999). Durkheim proposed that, most stateless, primitive” societies, lacking strong centralised institutions, are based on an association of corporate-descent groups. Structural functionalism also took on Malinowski’s argument that the basic building block of society is the nuclear family, and that, the clan is an outgrowth, not vice versa. The central concern of structural functionalism is a continuation of the Durkheimian task of explaining the apparent stability and internal cohesion needed by societies to endure over time. “Societies are seen as coherent, bounded and fundamentally relational constructs that function like organisms, with their various parts (or social institutions) working together in an unconscious, quasi-automatic fashion towards achieving an overall social equilibrium. All social and cultural phenomena are therefore seen as functional in the sense of working together, and are effectively deemed to have lives of their own. They are primarily analyzed in terms of this function. The individual is significant, not in and out of himself, but rather in terms of his status, his position in patterns of social relations, and the behaviours associated with his status. The social structure, then, is the network of statuses connected by associated roles (Jonathan, 2005).

In the 1970s, political scientists introduced a structural-functionalist approach to compare political systems. They argued that, in order to understand a political system, it is necessary to understand, not only its institutions (or structures) but also their respective functions. They also insisted that these institutions, to be properly understood, must be placed in a meaningful and dynamic historical context. This idea stood in marked contrast to prevalent approaches in the field of comparative politics the state-society theory and the dependency theory. These were the descendants of David Easton’s system theory in international relations, a mechanistic view that saw all political systems as essentially the same, subject to the same laws of “stimulus and response’ or inputs and outputs while paying little attention to unique characteristics. The structural-functional approach is

based on the view that a political system is made up of several key components, including interest groups, political parties and branches of government.

In addition to structures, Almond and Powell (1999) showed that, a political system consists of various functions, chief among them political socialisation, recruitment and communication: socialisation refers to the way in which societies pass along their values and beliefs to succeeding generations, and in political terms describes the process by which a society inculcates civic virtues, or the habits of effective citizenship; recruitment denotes the process by which a political system generates interest, engagement and participation from citizens; and communication refers to the way that a system promulgates its values and information. Recent developments in evolutionary theory especially by biologist Wilson (1997). Boyd and Richerson (2002) have provided strong support for structural functionalism in the form of multilevel selection theory. In this theory, culture and social structure are seen as Darwinian (biological or cultural) adaptation at the group level.

Sources and Causes of Conflicts in the Niger-Delta Communities

Historically, conflict in the Niger Delta can be traced down to Federal system of government that had been practice since independent, which from the very beginning was at variance with that expectation of many minorities in the nation. It has been argued that the federal constitution that was drafted suffered from two fundamental and destabilizing setbacks. Conflict in the Niger Delta is synonymous with inequality and whenever it manifests among groups conflict becomes inevitable. Frederick (1991) argues that, conflict within a society may be created by many different factors. However, it is generally comprehended that recurring crisis in the Niger Delta region is the product of the deep-seated sense of neglect and marginalization by the government and oil companies in supporting critical human development, infrastructure, and provision of basic social amenities in the region. Competitions over resources have a bigger influence on advanced stages of conflict. It is often difficult to identify the underlying causes or motivations of the involved parties (Chinedu, 2004). He posited that, most conflicts are cloaked in ideological, racial or even religions overtones but the most fundamental level represents a contest of control over economic asset, resources and systems.

According to Brown (1996) who grouped the causes into two broad headings as underlying causes as well as proximate causes; he contends that, the underlying causes of conflict are those we see which includes structural, political, economical, social and cultural perceptual factors; while the proximate causes manifest through collapsing states, changing demographic patterns, political transitions, increasing influential exclusionary, ideologies, intensifying leadership struggle growing economic inequalities, intensifying patterns' of cultural discrimination, ethnic rivalry and propagandizing. Albert (2001) stated that, there are some useful and insightful tools for understanding the sources of conflicts which are: competition for inadequate resources, competition for value system, manipulation of information, Tedcur and Marshal cited in Irobi (2005) cited that most African conflicts are caused by the combination of poverty and weak states and institutions. This can be said of the Niger-Delta crisis of conflict which turned tribes, villages and ethnics to confusion of war and strife. In the course of examining the various definitions of conflicts insight have been gained into the major causes of conflicts which include the followings:

The structuralism explanations of the causes of conflict which include economic, political, sociological and psychological are the most articulated explanations for the sources of conflict.

Economic causes and community conflict

In any given community or nation, as well as individuals, there is scarcity of economic resources for which individuals and groups will be more competing for and the access to these economic resources will be more advantageous to some people, groups or individuals more than the others. This has led to economic class of the haves and have nots-in the words of Karl Marx. It is often "perceived" that, they have (rich) oppresses the have-nots (poor). Which result to class struggle conflict between the two groups, (the poor and the rich). However the access to economic resources and control of economic resources remain a major source of conflict as in the case of the Niger-Delta region. The dominance of corruption, illegal economy and a focus on short term financial gain by all levels in society are also significant conflict drivers in the Niger Delta. The vast wealth and impunity of those at the top and those associated with them through their patronage networks have resulted in a significant polarization of the society.

Political causes and community conflict

The historical legacy of military rule and oppression of the people has not changed since the supposed rise of democracy in 1999. The People's Democratic Party (PDP) control majority of all the seats at all tiers of government in the states and the federal level, received excess of 90% of the eligible vote across the region in 2003 (Argus, 2004). The political factor is very prominent among other causes of conflict. In plural society or states, there is always group contention for the access to the control of power or generally, political participation in terms of access to government (political institutions). In the Nigerian context, it is often said that, those who control the political power, also invariably controls the economic power. This is because enormous economic resources are concentrated in the hands of the government at every level, as the government controls the economy.

Ethnic groups especially the minorities often asked the reason carried on the campaign of marginalization (meaning deprived of access control) of government institution. Ultimately, they will be asking and fighting for autonomy or self determination, which is not usually attained on the platter of gold. Also, in political domain, conflicts do often result from electoral contests. This occurs frequently especially in African countries as an outcome of poor electoral processes or practices and attitude such as "winner takes-it-all"; poor losers, election riggings and lately of the tendencies of godfatherism, weak and underdeveloped political institutions as was the case of NECO and INEC presently nurturing a conflict ridden transition. The armed mobilization of the youths in the run-up to the 2003 elections across the Niger Delta states by empowering local youths with weaponry has significant conflict escalator in the region. Many youths now leading the militant groups agitating for changes, graduated to the use of violence in conflicts over political office.

Psychological causes and community conflict

Psychological causes of conflicts manifest especially in industrial sphere to conflict or the work place conflicts. To the psychologist, conflict exists when the reduction of one motivating stimulus involves an increase in another, so that a new adjustment is demanded. Also, in the realm of psychological factors in conflict is the theory of 'unmet' needs or frustration. It is often said that, frustration can lead to aggression, a product of

conflict. Likewise are such attitudes of fear, insecurity, low self esteem are among other psychological factors causing or which are sources of conflict. According to Bostock (1997) stated that, ethnic conflict is a breakdown of accommodation of ethnic minorities within a state.

Social causes and community conflict

The historical failure of all stakeholders, predominantly the states, to deliver even the most basic of developmental needs to a population living on one of the world's largest deposits of oil and gas has created serious resentment and frustration at all levels of society. Democracy has also failed to deliver, and the population has become further disenfranchised. This has created a situation where most citizens, even those who promote peace, can understand why some have turned to violence to bring about sustainable change. Violence is becoming an acceptable norm in the society.

Ethnic causes and community conflict

Conflicts in the Niger Delta have been ethnically charged, especially in Warri area, ethnicity has been used as a motivator for underlying political and monetary gains. Although, ethnicity is a secondary driver of conflict in the Niger Delta, even if it's used as a primary agent of violence.

Conflict Management and Group Outcomes in conflict communities

Laboratory and field studies suggest that, the impact of conflict on group outcomes such as: decision quality, consensus, and satisfaction with the decision depend on how the conflict is handled (Nicotera & Dorsey, 2006). Experiments by Wall, and Callister (1995); Sugden (2006) provided evidence that, surfacing conflict and confronting issues through open communication increased the quality of outcomes, the group's ability to achieve consensus, and satisfaction with the decision. Several laboratory studies of negotiations indicate that, collaborative approaches promote mutually beneficial outcomes (Brett, Shapiro, and Lytle 1998; DeDreu & Weingart, 2003; DeDreu, vanDierendonk & Dijkstra, 2004).

A number of recent studies of real world groups have found that conflicts that were (a) focused on substantive issues and (b) effectively resolved were positively related to group and individual performance (Kuhn & Poole, 2000). This effect was more pronounced in groups with high levels of interdependence (Jehn, Northcraft & Neale, 1999). Perhaps

because conflicts interfere with group effectiveness to a greater extent when there is greater need for coordination. Alper, Tjosvold, and Law (2000) found that, self-managed teams that took a cooperative approach to conflict characterized by an emphasis on understanding all points of view, orientation to joint benefit, and finding a solution acceptable to all had higher levels of effectiveness than those that were characterized by a win-lose orientation. In a study of new product development teams in organizations, Lovelace, Shapiro, and Weingart (2001) found that, collaborative communication as would occur in compromising and problem-solving conflict management styles was associated with a team's innovativeness. Kuhn and Poole (2000) studied quality management teams, found that, those that, developed patterns of collaborative conflict management in early meetings later made more effective decisions than those that developed patterns of avoiding or competing conflict management styles.

According to Tjosvold (2008) model of constructive controversy specifies how conflict handling relates to group effectiveness and member satisfaction. This model posits that open confrontation of issues, emphasis on achieving understanding among members, critical discussion of different points of view, a focus on mutual benefit, and integration of member positions increases group effectiveness and enhances group climate. These form a "virtuous circle," in which constructive controversy creates an open and trusting climate in the group, which in turn encourages members to confront decisions constructively, further enhancing climate, and so on. Tjosvold (2008) found that the degree to which workgroups engaged in constructive controversy accounted for 40% of the variance in decision-making effectiveness.

According to Sunwolf (2003) describes juries; however, they are not likely to enact these salutary approaches to conflict. He argues that juries are likely to adopt several faulty norms that are likely to result in ineffective conflict management. First, juries often tend to give the foreperson excessive power to set the discussion agenda, to decide when discussion should occur and to manage the discussion. If the foreperson leans to one side of an issue, he or she can use this power to slant the discussion towards the preferred direction. Second, juries may assume that "individual or small subgroup positions are presumptively less worthy than positions supported by many or by the majority". This tends to preclude the type of thorough, constructive discussion of all sides of the

conflicts. Third, juries sometimes regard “name-calling, yelling, and coercion” as appropriate influence measures. Fourth, juries may assume that “conflict over trial issues during deliberation will trigger relational/social conflict between jurors,” leading them to avoid conflict and attempt to resolve it as soon as possible, without careful consideration of the merits of the various positions. Finally, juries often assume that they must reach a verdict and if they cannot, then they have failed in their duty as jurors. This is reinforced by the judicial system’s practice of necessitating a retrial in the case of a hung jury (Sunwolf, 2003). As a result, when impasse seems to be occurring, jurors in the majority are more likely to try to force those in the minority to fall in behind them. This reinforces less effective responses to conflict and militates against critical consideration of evidence, interpretations, and alternative points of view that is important to effective decision-making. Whether these norms or more salutary ones prevail depends on the process of conflict management over the course of jury deliberations. Norms are invoked, enacted, and enforced via interaction processes. Understanding jury deliberative processes in juries and how they contribute to or impede conflict management is critical to assessing the impact of conflict on jury decision-making.

Communication Processes in Conflict Management in Communities

Most of the studies just reviewed conceptualize conflict in general terms, focusing on synoptic pictures of conflict management styles, such as integrating, competing, and constructive controversy. They portray conflict management as a process that is for the most part consistent throughout the discussion. However, we know from studies that have tracked the process of group decision making in greater detail that the actual path to a decision is often quite complex, with relatively few groups passing through the simple, logical sequence of phases posited by ideal decision-making models (Poole, Seibold & Mcphee, 1996). Instead, many groups follow more complex paths characterized by multiple short phases in which the group may reopen previous issues, revisit previous phases, take breaks and have to restart, become sidetracked by conflict or by unforeseen problems, and go off on tangents from which it must be recalled. For example, a group may discuss the problem, then move to solutions, then move back to reconsider the nature of the problem, then move to solutions, then to a period of off-topic joking, then back to the problem and so on, in a process in which progress resembles reach-testing as

described by Scheidel and Crowell 1964 cited in Poole, Seibold & Mcphee, 1996). Still other groups start by discussing solutions and only later (if at all) consider the problem or issue the solutions are meant to address. They found more than ten distinct decision paths, some relatively simple and some quite complex, in a sample of 47 groups. Sambamurthy and Poole (1992) cited in Sugden (2006) identified fifteen distinct patterns of conflict management processes that fell into four major types in a sample of 54 groups.

This variability suggests that deeper understanding of how conflict management figures injury decision-making will come from closer analysis of group processes (Poole, 2007). Such analysis will provide insight into the character of conflict management at the local level, and larger scale patterns can be identified by moving from the ground up. This approach explores the impact of local processes on the emergence of large scale conflict management practices. Kuhn and Poole (2000) study provided some evidence for a causal link between conflict management style and decision making effectiveness, and the lab studies cited previously support it as well, but more evidence from field research is certainly needed.

Conflict Resolution and Management Strategies in Crisis Communities

Conflict in whatever causes, and in whatever forms and between whichever parties, their ways and means will normally provide for some schemes for settlement of the conflicts. Amicable settlements can be arrived at through different methods, which researchers have advocated for in order to bring about con-existent among community affected. Boulding (1992) states that the biggest problem in developing the institution of conflict control is to develop an action plan to identify conflict at its initial stage. Luthans, Rubach and Marsnik (1995) advocated that managing conflict toward constructive action is the best approach in resolving conflict, while Parker and Sanna (1999) argued that, if conflict arises and are not managed properly, it will lead to delays of action for development in such areas or community. Kozan (1997) discussed several methods of ending conflicts among which include; avoidance, conquest and procedural resolution of some kind which include: reconciliation or compromise or award. Conflict situations are frequently allowed to develop to almost unmanageable proportions before anything is done about them. Knippen and Green (1999) argued that the best way to handle conflicts objectively should follow six processes that described the conflict situation to the other

community or person, and jointly deciding how to resolve the conflict. Graham and LeBron (1994) cited in Sugden (2006) described communication strategy as one way that can be used to resolve conflicts in many places by breaking down the resistance among community and increasing their trust in impending changes. Appelbaum, Abdullah and Shapiro (1999) also supported this stated that, one way to resolve the problem is via communication.

Means of Conflict Resolution in the Communities

The following are some of the means of resolving conflicts:

Conciliation or Mediation by a 3rd party intermediating to settle dispute

Conciliation is described as a process of peace making and is a human institution that comes into use in all human fields of activities including domestic, business, national and international political conflicts. Conciliation is sometimes referring to mediation or good office. A system of settling differences between disputing parties in which a third party intervenes to promote a voluntary settlement of dispute to reach the extent of differences and arrived at an agreed solution.

Arbitration

Situation in the conciliation fail and all the internal machineries for settlement have been exhausted, the matter can go to arbitration. Arbitration is like conciliation in that it has the purpose of facilitating agreements between the disputing parties. However it is different to conciliation in that the parties are no longer allowed to be involved in further negotiations but are requested to submit their claims to the arbitration and support the claims with the facts and arguments in their command.

Conflict resolution via Negotiation

Conflict can be confronted in two ways which include use of force or the deployment of negotiation or communication strategy.

Negotiation has the following advantages over violence and litigation:

1. It affords a peaceful atmosphere to evaluate each others demands and claims
2. It prevents further overt and destructive conflicts
3. It allows the parties to maximize their desires in arriving at satisfactory terms and agreement
4. It encourages the parties to respect their procedural agreements

5. Agreements reached via negotiations enjoy a better record of observance than unilaterally determined conditions or rules
6. It helps to avoid the negative effects of overt conflict activities
7. It serves as a suitable springboard upon which future relationships can be strengthened

The numerous roles and advantages of dialogue and negotiations can only be realized and appreciated if and only they take place and effectively if at all, resolution is effective when;

1. Prolonged negotiations are involved
2. Impasses, violence and lockouts are avoided
3. Agreements reached are honoured by both parties
4. Ultimatum, litigation and disputes are minimized including the use of statutory procedures like litigation, mediation and arbitration.

Ways of Resolving Conflicts

To achieve amicable resolutions in conflicts, some practical steps are required to be taken by parties to conflict, such steps include:

1. Identify the problem
2. Allowed clarification about problems
3. Identify the ideal end result from each party's point of view
4. Figure out what can realistically be done to achieve individual's goals.

Concept of Sports and Value in the Society

Definition of Sports

In a development context the definition of sports usually includes a broad and inclusive spectrum of activities suitable to people of all ages and abilities, with an emphasis on the positive values of sport. UN Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace (2003) defined sport, for the purposes of development, as "all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction, such as play, recreation, organized or competitive sport, and indigenous sports and games."

This definition has been accepted by many proponents of Sport for Development and Peace. The right of access to and participation in sport has long been recognized in a number of international conventions. UNESCO (2000) described sport and physical

education as a fundamental right for all. But until today, the right to play and sport has been too often ignored or disrespected. Sport has a unique power to attract, mobilize and inspire. By its very nature, sport is about participation. It is about inclusion and citizenship. It stands for human values such as respect for the opponent, acceptance of binding rules, teamwork and fairness, all of which are principles which are also contained in the Charter of the United Nations.

The UN system draws on the unique convening power of sport as a cross-cutting tool for:

- Fundraising, advocacy, mobilization and raising public awareness: in particular by appointing celebrity athletes as ‘Ambassadors’ or ‘Spokespersons’ and leveraging the potential of sports events as outreach platforms. The mobilizing power of sport is often used as a “door-opener” to convey crucial messages about HIV/AIDS, child’s rights, the environment, education, etc.
- Development and peace promotion: in grassroots projects sport is used in an extremely wide range of situations – whether as an integrated tool in short-term emergency humanitarian aid activities, or in long-term development cooperation projects, on a local, regional or global scale.

Sport plays a significant role as a promoter of social integration and economic development in different geographical, cultural and political contexts. Sport is a powerful tool to strengthen social ties and networks, and to promote ideals of peace, fraternity, solidarity, non-violence, tolerance and justice. According to the Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group, sport is seen to have the most benefits in:

- Individual development
- Health promotion and disease prevention
- Promotion of gender equality
- Social integration and the development of social capital
- Peace building and conflict prevention/resolution
- Post-disaster/trauma relief and normalisation of life
- Economic development
- Communication and social mobilization.

From a development perspective, the focus is always on mass sport and not elite sport. Sport is used to reach out to those most in need including refugees, child soldiers, victims of conflict and natural catastrophes, the impoverished, persons with disabilities, victims of racism, stigmatization and discrimination, persons living with HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases.

Sports and the society

Sport has been a part of civilized society throughout history. In some cases as in Greece in the fifth century B.C., sports were of central importance to the culture. Sports also flourished in early America despite the puritan sanctions against it. According to Coakley (1990) defined sports as an institutionalized competitive activity that involves vigorous physical exertion on the use of relatively complex physical skills by individual whose participation is motivated by a combination of the intrinsic satisfaction associated with the activity itself and the external rewards gained through a set of specific competitive physical activities. Siedentop (1994) sports has been examined and analyzed recently to understand what it is from what human motivations it springs and what role it occupies in the culture and peaceful environment. Sport has been used to bring the world together since Circa 776 B.C, stopped war and opened barriers and other closed geo-politics. Sports if well managed can facilitate peace and understanding, creating life-long friendship and bringing nations together. For instance, Atlanta Olympic Games 1996 brought more nations up to one hundred and ninety seven (197) together on the field of competitions than the United Nation roll cell and also Sydney 2000 continued with this inclusive trend (Bucher & Kratic, 2000).

Sports remain the only platform that promotes togetherness, recreation and conflict solving and international relations. Its' importance has been realized in forgoing national world understanding peace and cohesion. Odejide (1992) cited in Onifade (2001) stated that sports can be described as a phenomenon that cut across many barriers whether it is political, religions, culture, ethnic traumatic and so on. Sango (2000) stated that the relative peace prevalent in the world today is predicated on mutual understanding and respect engendered by sports. Sports are more than running, jumping or kicking a ball round or hitting any object. Sports are more than playing fun and recreation, more than contesting to win medals or laurel. It is an aspect of education which caters for the whole

body, and helps also to build up a nation. A nation that intends to grow and viable must also involve its citizens in sports literacy. Awosika (2000) in support of the view's stated that sport taking in Nigeria is more than running, jumping or throwing after objects for scoring point.

Sporting culture has been very necessary as it is breaded up with the nation's history, tradition, geography, trade, politics, religion and even the nation's wealth. It has been discovered for long that nation's deviation to sports is one of the most powerful denominators to top national politics stability. Onifade (2001) stated that sport in Nigeria has been a veritable avenue for national cohesion and unity; it is also a fact that sports has become a pervasive social phenomenon whose influence is felt in all facets of life, the incredible popularity and growth in international levels. Sports have added an appreciable impact on the sporting interest and guidelines of Nigeria. Sports are now a worldwide social phenomenon with implications for the young and adult. Sports touch almost all institutions of the society and a significant aspect of contemporary society. Government of countries used sports for personal, ethnic-settlement and partisan ends, with the international participation in sports; it is universally accepted thus making sports unequal as a social phenomenon of modern times. Sport is a well developed form as an integral part of the total make up of the society. It is recognized by nations and government as a tool for national mobilization, cultural reorientation, national integration, peaceful coexistent and unity, youth development and socialization, national pride and prestige, a cultivation weapon and national expulsion and imperialisms (Ikhioya 1996).

Sports are a constituent part of the society, interest which provides the opportunity for interaction with many social institutional. The role play in contemporary society needs not be over emphasized, due to its inexorable part of the modern society with its influence being felt in all facets of national life, which has become a symbol of national and international unity. Onifade (1993) asserted that the overwhelming influence in sports in nations has led to the involvement of extensive bureaucracy to support and develop sports. Researchers in the sphere of sociology of sports stated that it is possible to plan for better sports programmes through an analysis and diagnosis of the societal. Sports in turn could lead to the overall development of the society.

Contemporary sports grew for the sake of excitement, amusement, strength and physical fitness. Sports have grown in economic and political dimensions, which countries have used as legitimate source of foreign policy and a vehicle to show a country's mood towards another. Individuals especially from a multi-national country could be merged through sports, since it will serve as a cohesive agent to bring about unity and national awareness; this has made sports to be organized at the local level in the Niger-Delta area from community to community engaging in sporting activities competing among one another before chosen the state athletes.

Sports Roles in the society

Sports contribute to the realization of a better society. It is no secret that millions of Nigerians engaged in competitive sports as participants, spectators and as managers. Lumpkin, Stoll and Beller (2003) cited Noah (2002) stated that sports are no doubt significant in national development, because recreation and leisure enhances productivity and healthful living. Sports bring about religious, social, national, ethnic, institutional and international relationships with its efficacy and success. Nwankwo (2001) opined that Nigeria is a country endowed in the field of sports. The rich endowment has been manifested through the various achievements recorded like, regional and international. However of recent, things have not been as it were before and the situation has damaged the enthusiasm of Nigerians. Okenla (2001) stated that sports embrace the democratic principle of dialogue and where religion and commerce had failed, sports remain the main unifying factor that propagates the Nigerian essence of unity and peace. Sport to the world over is a vehicle of recreation, mobilization, social integration and fostering of national ethnic and international understanding. Developing the human mind and physical well being, bring about socialization and harmony to human civilization. These over the years have given great impetus to the sporting activities.

Sport functions in the society

Emotional release which serves to release emotions and reduce stress, acts as a safety valve and provides a catharsis to relieve aggressive tendencies. Social control which provides a means of control and containment of people against social behaviour Socialization serves as a means of socializing those individuals especially youths who identify with it. Behavioural modification this result in social change and new

behavioural patterns and is a factor that contribute to changes in the course of history (e.g. interaction of classes, upward social-economic mobility based on ability, ping-pong diplomacy, gender equity, demise of apartheid, dispute settlement). Collective conscience creating a communal spirit that brings about togetherness in search of common goal, such as building community in unity and peaceful coexistent.

Potential of Sport in the society

There are, however, means which can facilitate the process and thus contribute to community development and peace-building. Sport plays a vital role in modern contemporary society. Its prominence in the media which devotes considerably more coverage to sport than politics or economics demonstrates its expansion during the last century. This phenomenon has had different impacts on the development of nations, cultures and communities. For the majority of people, sport forms an integral part of life whether as active participants or passive spectators. Sport is not only a physical activity but an area where people interact socially. Jarvie and Maguire (1994) stated that, sport and leisure activities form an integral part of social life in all communities and are intricately linked to society and politics.

Popular culture attaches numerous positive values to sport. This includes:

- improves health, fitness and education
- creates business opportunities and employment,
- fosters non-violence, fair competition, teamwork and respect
- bridges cultural and ethnic divides
- contributes to cross cultural dialogue, understanding, unity, tolerance and peaceful-coexistence

Sport is also praised for its important role in the era of the New Millennium Development Goals and globalization. It is seen as a tool for conflict prevention, peace building and development by United Nations agencies. Sport is seen by many as a more cost-effective approach for dealing with social problems than correcting the consequences of aggression, crime, violence, and abuse through police, correctional or social services.

1) Sport as so-called non-verbal means of communication

There is a widespread notion that linguistic and cultural barriers are more easily overcome in sport than in other areas of social life. Stüwe (1994) opined that sport is

marked by a simple and easily comprehensible form of symbolism, which makes it possible to eliminate linguistic barriers and other obstacles to interaction. Sport with its primarily non verbal and immediately comprehensible interactions, is therefore particularly suited as a medium for overcoming feelings of socio-cultural unfamiliarity and otherness. For this reason, sport is often referred to as the conveyor of culture of the most accessible symbolism (Stremlan, 1999). Multi-lingual coaches, trainers and teachers remain essential to the promotion of multi-culturalism within sport.

2) *Sports programmes as occasions of collective experience and direct physical contact*

Sport is also regarded as a possible tool of social interaction because it occasions collective experiences, as well as direct physical contact, between the participants. According to Harms (1992) people jointly participating in active sport, especially in team sports, enter into “direct physical contact” with one another, which practically provokes “the emergence of intensive interpersonal relationships. The logistic framework of the undertaking (selection of venue, coaches, age groups, schools) should ensure a kind of interaction and exchange which will enable the participants to generate mutual acceptance and tolerance, and to reduce the feeling of “bodily otherness.” In earlier studies, dance and traditional games were found to be effective media for overcoming initial obstacles or barriers to interaction. (Keim, 2003)

3) *Sport as a medium which transcends divisions of class*

Sport is often described as a medium which transcends class divisions, especially in childhood and youth. According to Heinemann (1992), class-specific differences in sport behaviour only emerge around the age of 20. Sport often accentuates class difference. Apart from the poor socio-economic conditions of the still disadvantaged population groups and the deficiencies, if not the total absence of sports facilities in many communities, class differences are apparent where sport is being practiced. Facilities, equipment and trained instructors are in short supply in poorer locations to this day.

4) *Sport as an instrument of culture*

Thanks to the benefit of a prescribed set of norms and rules governing all established codes, sport “displays the greatest number of common features, which transcend specific cultures.” As Harms (1992) points out, this commonality qualifies sport as a pre-eminent area for intercultural exchange and communication. Stüwe (1994) describes sport as an

“instrument of culture of international character” because of its world-wide presence, which ensures that its rules are known to members of practically all cultures. However, in South Africa obstacles to community development and peace building include ethnic prejudices, racism and Xenophobia, attitudes which were ingrained by apartheid, but which continue to exist even after the transition to democracy and undermine efforts for building more caring communities. The problem is compounded by the fact that success in team sports does not depend on personal contacts or friendships between team members. Matches between teams or players do not necessarily improve attitudes. Coakley and Lewis (1990) believe that normal contests quite frequently reinforce prejudices held by players and/or spectators. Bröskamp (1993) is of the opinion that a meeting of cultures on the sports field can lead to the hardening of persistent prejudices. Joint programmes of mass-based sport for all population groups, as suggested above, should therefore be established, and the cultural heritage of the various population groups should be included. In doing so, consideration should be given to socio-anthropological factors, (such as age, group membership, language, religion), as well as to the perception of any particular sport in a particular community (past experience, level of competence, significance of sport in the particular community). The above points illustrate the complexity of situation, and the problems inherent in creating sports opportunities that fail to consider the broader complexities and challenges of transformation, community development and peace building. Sport programmes can take us forward as a nation, but if not properly conceived and managed, can reinforce old prejudices, stereotypes and divisions.

Positive Effects of Sport Participation

Developmental theory and functionalist theory both have positive views of sport participation. The individualistic developmental theory focuses on “socialization via sport” (Videon 2002). From this perspective, sport instills participants with positive social norms and values such as character building, developing social skills, teamwork, hard work, and self-discipline (Videon 2002). Additionally, Fejgin (1994) notes that, the functionalists “advocate the positive, integrational effects of school sports. The view that sport participation is positive has received much empirical support over the years. Research centering on sport participation has generally included outcomes, such as

academic achievement, occupational aspirations, furthering educational aspirations, self-concept, educational attainment, and occupational attainment (Marsh 1993; Fejgin 1994). For example, Broh (2002) found that, participation in interscholastic sports positively related to student achievement within the classroom and in math scores. Fejgin (1994) found sport participation to have a positive effect upon student achievement, educational aspirations, and self-concept, while showing a negative relationship with discipline problems.

Sport participation is related to better attendance in school; less likely to be referred to the principal's office; a greater likelihood of wanting, enrolling, and graduating from school/college; and greater occupational prestige and income (Marsh 1993; Fejgin 1994). Other positive characteristics associated with sport participation include school safety, socio-emotional processes, and the physical well-being of participants. Langbein and Bess (2002) noted that, sports programmes might contribute to safer school environments by fostering "teamwork and cooperative norms, thereby enhancing social capital and sociable behaviours." They explain further that if a cooperative normative structure exists within a school and behaviour improves, then sports might actually be contributing to school safety (Langbein and Bess 2002).

Sports have also been linked to increasing the self-esteem and self-concept of participants. The socio-emotional benefits involving sport participation include increasing a student's self-concept (Fejgin 1994); a positive relationship with emotional and behavioural well-being (Donaldson & Ronan 2006); and lower rates of depression contrasted by higher rates of perceived competence (Donaldson & Ronan 2006). In addition, Erkut and Tracy (2002) found in their study of Latino subgroups that sport participation is positively related to self-esteem for Mexican American girls and boys, Puerto Rican girls, and Cuban American boys. Indeed, they confirmed that sport participation and self-esteem is "mediated by school attachment and physical well-being" (Erkut and Tracy 2002). Regarding the physical well-being of participants, sport participation, along with exercise, has been related to improving the physical health of participants, including such benefits as lowering blood pressure and decreasing obesity (Schiffman 1994). While numerous researchers have empirically demonstrated positive

aspects of sport participation, there are other views about sport's role in mediating deviant behaviour.

Negative Effects of Sport Participation

Zero-sum theory and conflict theory both have negative views of sport participation. The zero-sum theory proposes that participation in sport takes up a large amount of the participant's time, which negatively affects their academic preparation (Vermillion, 2005 citing Coleman 1961). Students have a finite amount of time available to them for activities. The more time that is spent on athletics, the less time there is available for studying, which adversely affects their academic achievement (Coleman 1961 cited by Vermillion, 2005). Additionally, Fejgin (1994) notes that, the conflict orientation argues "while participation in school teams may result in a variety of positive outcomes, school sport is often detrimental to those individuals who do not participate and to the school organization, since it has the potential of increasing tension and antagonism between groups within the school."

Furthermore, conflict theorists identify other negative aspects of sport participation. Minority and low economic youth are devoting more time to sport, which neglects their academic work, in an attempt to increase their social mobility and economic achievement (Sage 1990; Coakley 2006). The view that sport participation is negative has received mixed empirical support, but the media's coverage of high profile athletes engaging in deviant behaviour is nothing new to Nigeria culture and certainly influences popular perceptions of athletes, especially minority athletes, as being involved in criminal behaviour (Leonard 1998; Berry & Smith 2000). Recent research into the negative aspects of sports include: school safety, the hubris (i.e. pride driven arrogance, feelings of superiority and invulnerability) of elite athletes, and male athletes engaging in violence against women. Langbein and Bess (2002), as previously mentioned, noted "detractors argue that school sports are competitive, thus involve conflict that is often physical, and, especially when sports teams are regarded as an exclusive high school elite, which may even inspire hostility among those who are left out." Hanks and Eckland (1976) noted that, the exclusive nature of sports and the popularity of athletes can result in grade leniency from teachers. This unequal treatment of student athletes may help to polarize other social groups and can lead to school safety issues and tragedies, such as the

Columbine tragedy (Langbein & Bess 2002). Another negative characteristic of athletics is what Hughes and Coakley (1991) refer to as hubris in elite athletes. Coakley (2004) uses the Greek word hubris to describe elite athletes' "sense of being unique and extraordinary" and how "it may be expressed in terms of pride-driven arrogance, an inflated sense of power and importance, and a public personality that communicates superiority and even insolence."

In addition, Hughes and Coakley (1991) noted that, elite athletes subscribe to norms and values that are embodied in sport, not in the larger societal context, which contributes to the development of hubris. Hubris is an important idea for identifying how the underlying social dynamics of team sports contribute to deviant behaviour. For example, Peretti-Watel, Pruvost, Mignon, and Obadia (2004) examined risk-taking behaviours of elite student athletes in South-Eastern France. They found that elite student athletes that viewed sport for personal and social achievement were "more likely to engage in risky behaviors on the road" (Peretti-Watel et al. 2004). Additionally, they found that athletes that went on social outings with other athletes were more likely to drink. This conclusion is in line with Hughes and Coakley's (1991) assertion that the close bonding on elite teams often leads to negative deviance discussion of deviant over-conformity and under-conformity (Coakley's, 2006).

Previously mentioned negative aspects of sport are intriguing, a large amount of research illustrating the sport's negative impact upon participants involves male athletes and violence against women. Videon (2002) notes the previous sport participation literature identifies the unequal affect sport has upon participants, such as females participating less in sports. In relationship to violence, Crosset, Ptack, McDonald, and Benedict (1996) found that, male student athletes comprised only 3% of the student population, but accounted for 35% of battering (against women) reports on these campuses. Additionally, they found a statistically significant relationship between athletic membership and sexual assault. Crosset, Benedict, and McDonald (1995) used a similar approach and examined the police records of twenty Division I institutions in conjunction with the judicial affairs records of ten Division I institutions. They discovered that male student athletes were disproportionately represented in both sets of records. Male football and basketball players represented 30% of the student athletes in these cases, but

accounted for 67% of the reported sexual assaults. Finally, Benedict (1998) analyzed the subculture of professional athletes and noted the preferential treatment athletes receive is an important factor for developing their view of women. Women were seen as sport “groupies” and the sexual entitlement athletes feel contributes to athletes’ involvement in acquaintance or date rape. Empirical support can be found to illustrate both the positive and negative aspects of sport participation. As a result, an explicit theoretical orientation is needed to understand how sport relates to deviant behaviour, in particular adolescent deviant behaviour. The theoretical perspective take into account other mediating factors, such as individual, family, and school characteristics, which affect not only sport participation, but also adolescent deviant behaviour.

Theoretical Framework

According to Hirschi’s (1969) social bond theory which is the framework used for informing this research. It is used to examine sport participation’s relationship with different variables from institutionalized structures, such as school or family characteristics. In addition, a brief discussion of these factors provide the rationale for sport participation’s relationship to adolescent deviance.

The Social Bond

According to Huebner and Betts (2002) note Hirschi’s social bond theory as one of the most widely used theory to investigate adolescent deviance. Its usefulness in linking adolescent deviance and conventional activities as illustrated by Eccles and Barber (1999) that, participating in organized leisure activities is related to lower rates of adolescent delinquency. Weber, Miracles, Rosicky, and Crow (2001) stated that, it has been suggested that sport teams and other programmatic activities might reduce delinquency by providing the delinquent prone youth with an opportunity for social bonding.” They further explain that Hirschi’s social bond theory is one of the most influential explanatory models regarding adolescent deviance over the past three decades (Weber et al. 2001). Hirschi’s social bond theory is a form of social control theory stating adolescents are capable of both deviant and conformist behaviour (Weber et al. 2001). Conformity, however, is achieved by adolescents controlling their delinquent desires (Shoemaker 2000). As a result, Hirschi believed adolescents develop social bonds with

conventional institutionalized structures, such as schools, through participation in conventional activities.

Sport programmes are often cited as “conventional activities” that are time consuming, can potentially affect rates of adolescent deviance (Weber et al. 2001), and “reflect the interplay between multiple developmental contexts (e.g. family, school, peers, and community values and norms)” (Huebner and Betts 2002). Indeed, Weber et al. (2001) noted that, Hirschi’s social bond theory is still useful and “continues to generate research questions that need to be more fully explained.” Hirschi (1969) notes that, student attachment to institutions is correlated with adolescent deviance. Hirschi’s social bond theory attempts to understand how conformity is achieved in social control organizations (Shoemaker 2000). A student’s bond to conventional institutional arrangements is based on attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief. Hirschi believed that social bonds are stronger barriers to adolescent deviance compared to personality characteristics, and the social bond “refers to the connection between the individual and the society, usually through social institutions” (Shoemaker 2000).

Hirschi (1969) notes that, attachment involves the emotional connection between an adolescent and other groups and the extent the adolescent cares about the feelings of others. For example, Seagrave, Hasted, and Moreau (1985) found, in their study of ice hockey players, the less attached the adolescent was the more delinquency the adolescent exhibited. Commitment, conversely, is a cost-benefit analysis that analyzes the investment versus the cost of conformity. It has been hypothesized that maintaining athletic membership on a sports team not only reflects commitment (Schafer 1969), but also results in greater educational performance (Fejgin 1994). Feldman and Matjasko (2005) noted that, students involved in organized extracurricular activities become more attached to other students, family members, and school authorities by developing mutual trust and commitment with others.

Additionally, Coakley (2006) notes that, the potentially important role sport participation can play in developing a student’s commitment. According to Hirschi’s social bond theory, involvement involves adherence to “conventional rules” (Shoemaker 2000). Traditionally, involvement has been measured by the number of hours involved in a sport or organized activity (Weber et al. 2001). For this research, however, involvement

constitutes participation in organized, officially school sanctioned sport programmes. Indeed, as Feldman and Matjasko (2005) noted that, sports are the most popular extracurricular activity for adolescents. The last component of the social bond is belief, which is the acceptance of the current, prevailing system of norms and values (Hirschi 1969). Weber et al. (2001) noted that, sport programmes have “rules that allow for or exclude participation; these rules reinforce the social order.” As a result, adolescents that maintain their participation on sports teams believe in the current institutionalized norms and values and develop traits, e.g. cooperation, teamwork, and sportsmanship, which are socially valued (Landers and Landers 1978). For example, Coakley (2006) notes that, students maintain minimum grade point averages, thereby illustrating their belief in the current institutional arrangements of schools, as a way to stay on the team. Weber et al. (2001) note Hirschi’s social bond theory has received a “fair degree of empirical support,” and has been heavily tested, both empirically and theoretically, over the past thirty years. In particular, three major institutions have been focused on by social bond research: the family, religion, and education. Wright and Wright (1994) review the usefulness of social bond research in explaining adolescent delinquency. They noted that, Hirschi’s theory provides a sound theoretical rationale for the explanation of adolescent deviance.

Additionally, it has been noted that participation within organized extracurricular activities, such as sports, can be explained by social bond theory (Huebner and Betts 2002). In particular, Hirschi’s social bond theory can be applied to student-athletes in relationship to individual, family, and school-related variables. Shoemaker (2000) notes that, achievement, participation, and overall involvement in school-related activities has been connected with delinquency for a long time.” One example of this classic line of research is Empey and Lubeck (1971) cited in Shoemaker (2000), which showed in their research of delinquents and non-delinquents in Utah and California, both family and school variables (as directed by the four components of the social bond) positively associate with adolescent delinquency.

Regarding sport participation, most research has agreed that being involved in sports is associated with lower levels of deviant behaviour (Weber et al. 2001) and therefore illustrates a stronger social bond (Shoemaker 2000). Since the conclusions between social

bond theory, sport participation, and adolescent deviance have received mixed support, this research reexamine how social bond theory and adolescent deviance relate to sport participation. As Jessor, Turbin, and Costa (1998) noted that, the power of social bond theory in reducing deviant acts by “providing social controls against problem behaviour, by promoting activities that are alternatives to or incompatible with problem behaviour, and by strengthening orientations toward and commitments to conventional institutions, such as church, school or family or to the larger adult society.” The previous literature has utilized social bond theory primarily to explain adolescent deviance (Shoemaker 2000). While some research has applied this theory to examining sport participation and adolescent deviance, the conclusions are still ambiguous. The focus of this research, however, uses Hirschi’s social bond theory to inform an examination of a school population and whether sport participation positively relates to control adolescent deviance behaviour.

Path to Success through Sports

Sport is not a cure-all for development problems. As a cultural phenomenon, it is a mirror of society and is just as complex and contradictory. As such, sport can also have negative side effects such as violence, corruption, discrimination, hooliganism, nationalism, doping and fraud. To enable sport to unleash its full positive potential, emphasis must be placed on effective monitoring and guiding of sports activities. The positive potential of sport does not develop automatically. It requires a professional and socially responsible intervention which is tailored to the respective social and cultural context. Successful Sport for Development and Peace programmes work to realize the right of all members of society to participate in sport and leisure activities.

Effective programmes intentionally give priority to development objectives and are carefully designed to be inclusive. Effective Sport for Development and Peace programmes combine sport and play with other non-sport components to enhance their effectiveness. Such programmes embody the best values of sport while upholding the quality and integrity of the sport experience. They are delivered in an integrated manner with other local, regional and national development and peace initiatives so that they are mutually reinforcing. Programmes seek to empower participants and communities by engaging them in the design and delivery of activities, building local capacity, adhering

to generally accepted principles of transparency and accountability, and pursuing sustainability through collaboration, partnerships and coordinated action.

Sport for Development and Peace

Sport for Development and Peace refers to the intentional use of sport, physical activity and play to attain specific development and peace objectives, including, most notably, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Successful Sport for Development and Peace programmes work to realize the right of all members of the society to participate in sport and leisure activities. Effective programs intentionally give priority to development objectives and are carefully designed to be inclusive. These programs embody the best values of sport while upholding the quality and integrity of the sport experience. Strong Sport for Development and Peace programs combine sport and play with other non-sport components to enhance their effectiveness. They are delivered in an integrated manner with other local, regional and national development and peace initiatives so that they are mutually reinforcing. Programmes seek to empower participants and communities by engaging them in the design and delivery of activities, building local capacity, adhering to generally accepted principles of transparency and accountability, and pursuing sustainability through collaboration, partnerships and coordinated action. While Sport for Development and Peace is widely seen as an emerging field in the area of development, its antecedents can be traced back to antiquity when the Olympic Truce was first used to establish temporary peace between warring states, to allow for competition among their athletes. There is no doubt that sport has historically played important and diverse roles in virtually every society. However, formal recognition of the value of sport with regard to development and peace is far more recent. The timeline in Figure 2.2 illustrates the advancement of Sport for Development and Peace from the post-World War II period to the present, demonstrating growing international momentum in support of sport's development potential.

- 1978 ————— Sport and physical education is recognized as a fundamental human right
- 1979 ————— Right of women and girls to participate in sport is affirmed
- 1989 ————— Every child's right to play becomes a human right

- 1991——— The unique role of sport in eliminating poverty and promoting development is acknowledged by the Commonwealth Heads of Governments
- 1993——— UN General Assembly revives the tradition of the Olympic Truce
- 2001 { UN Secretary-General appoints a Special Adviser on Sport for Development and Peace, Mr. Adolf Ogi
- Subsequent appointment of the second Special Adviser Mr. W. Lemke in 2008
- 2003 { The UN Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace confirms sport as a tool for development and peace
First Magglingen Conference on Sport for Development and Peace (SDP)
brings together policymakers affirming their commitment to SDP
- Subsequent conference held in 2005
First International Next Step Conference brings together SDP experts and practitioners (The Netherlands)
- Subsequent conferences held in 2005 (Zambia) and 2007 (Namibia)
First UN General Assembly Resolution on SDP
- Subsequent Resolutions: A/Res/59/10 (2004); A/Res/60/8 (2005),
and A/Res/60/9 (2006)
- 2004 { SDP IWG is established
European Commission launches European Year of Education through Sport (EYES)
- 2005 { UN Proclaims International Year for Sport and Physical Education (IYSPE)
EU recognizes the role of sport to attain the MDGs
World Summit expresses its support to SDP
- 2006 { UN Secretary-General sets out the UN Action Plan on SDP
African Union launches the International Year of African Football
SDP IWG launches its Preliminary Report *Sport for Development and Peace: From Practice to Policy*
- 2007 { First African Convention recognizes the power of sport to contribute to education
EU White Paper on Sport acknowledges the increasing social and economic role of sport

2008 Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities enters into force, reinforcing the right of people with disabilities to participate on an equal basis with others in recreation, leisure and sporting activities
SDP IWG releases its final report *Harnessing the Power of Sport for Development and Peace: Recommendations to Governments*

Fig. 2.2: Sports for Development and Peace Timeline

Source: Sport for Development & Peace (2006) from Practice to Policy.

Sports Unique Contribution to Development and Peace

Support for Sport for Development and Peace is rooted in the recognition that sport possesses unique attributes that enable it to bring particular value to development and peace processes. These attributes are discussed below.

Sport's universal popularity

As participants, spectators, or volunteers, people are attracted to sport arguably more than to any other activity. This popularity transcends national, cultural, socio-economic and political boundaries and can be invoked with success in virtually any community in the world. Sport's popularity derives in large part from the fact that, when done right, it is fun and enjoyable for everyone participants and spectators alike. In contexts where people are faced with difficult and unrelenting challenges in their day-to-day lives, the value of this dimension of sport should not be underestimated.

Sport's ability to connect people and communities

Sport's value as a social connector is one of its most powerful development attributes. Sport is an inherently social process bringing together players, teams, coaches, volunteers and spectators. Sport creates extensive horizontal webs of relationships at the community level, and vertical links to national governments, sport federations, and international organizations for funding and other forms of support. These community sport networks, when inclusive, are an important source of social networking, helping to combat exclusion and fostering community capacity to work collectively to realize opportunities and address challenges. Programs that reflect the best values of sport; fair play, teamwork, cooperation, respect for opponents, and inclusion — reinforce this process by helping participants to acquire values and life skills consistent with positive social relationships, collaborative action, and mutual support. If the population involved is broadly inclusive, sport's connecting dimension can help to unify people from diverse

backgrounds and perspectives, establishing a shared bond that contributes positively to social cohesion. For this reason, sport has long been used as a means to promote national unity and harmony within and across nations.

Sport's as a communications platform

Over the past few decades, sport has emerged as global mass entertainment, and has become one of the most powerful and far-reaching communications platforms in the world. Because global sport events offer the capacity to reach vast numbers of people worldwide, they are effective platforms for public education and social mobilization. By extension, high-performance athletes have become global celebrities in their own right, enabling them to serve as powerful ambassadors, spokespeople and role-models for development and peace initiatives.

Sport's as a cross-cutting nature

Sport is one of the most cross-cutting of all development and peace tools. It is increasingly being used to promote health and prevent disease, strengthen child and youth development and education, foster social inclusion, prevent conflict and build peace, foster gender equity, enhance inclusion of persons with disabilities, and promote employment and economic development. There are few areas of development where sport cannot be used as a platform for public education and social mobilization, or as a program vehicle to strengthen individual capacity and improve lives. In this respect, Sport for Development and Peace initiatives can play a powerful role in both preventing and helping to address a broad range of social and economic challenges. They can be a highly effective and low-cost means of reducing the individual and public costs associated with development challenges costs which can be extremely high in some contexts and can significantly impede development.

Sport's as a potential to empower, motivate and inspire

Sport is inherently about drawing on, developing and showcasing people's strengths and capacities. By shining a light on what people can do, rather than what they cannot do, sport consistently empowers, motivates and inspires individuals and their communities in a way that promotes hope and a positive outlook for the future ingredients that are essential to the success of all development and peace endeavours. For this reason, sport is also an extremely powerful means of promoting physical and mental health. Sport can be

used to encourage people of all ages to become more physically active, providing opportunities for enjoyment and personal development, building self-esteem, and fostering positive social connection with others and all important factors in promoting and maintaining health and well-being.

Growing International Support for Sport Development and Peace

Sports have been increasingly recognized as an important factor in development and peace over the past decade. In recent years, the growing number of international and multilateral institutions have formally recognized the latent potential of sport, and the need for a more coordinated and systematic effort to exploit its tremendous energy and resources for broader gains. Figure 2.2 set out some of the key international milestones in the evolution of Sport for Development and Peace. In 2001, recognizing the development potential of sport, the UN Secretary-General appointed Mr. Adolf Ogi, former President of Switzerland, to serve as his Special Adviser on Sport for Development and Peace. In this capacity, Mr. Ogi has worked to promote sport as a means to promote health, education, development and peace within the UN system and to integrate sport in the efforts of the international community to achieve the MDGs. In April 2006, Mr. Ogi presented his report to the UN Secretary-General outlining the variety of initiatives undertaken as part of the International Year for Sport and Physical Education (IYSPE, 2005).

The IYSPE 2005 was critical for the worldwide promotion of Sport for Development and Peace. It provided a global platform for conferences, new initiatives and events organised by national governmental coordinators, NGOs, universities and United Nations agencies. The legacy of the IYSPE 2005 is being carried forward by the strengthened network of partners and a variety of initiatives which have a lasting impact on health, education, development and peace building. The Geneva and New York Offices of the Special Adviser to the UN Secretary-General on Sport for Development and Peace have been instrumental in gathering examples of UN-supported Sport for Development and Peace field projects and sharing them with governments, civil society and other UN agencies. The United Nations Fund for International Partnerships (UNFIP) works closely with these offices, promoting new partnerships and alliances in furtherance of the MDGs. These activities are also supported by the Group of Friends of IYSPE

2005, comprising various ambassadors to the United Nations active in supporting Sport for Development and Peace. Recognition of sport as a tool for development is also growing within other geopolitical venues. In 1991, the Commonwealth Heads of Government, the presidents and prime ministers of the Commonwealth's 72 member countries,³⁷ acknowledged the unique role of sport in fostering the Commonwealth's goal to eliminate poverty and promote people-centred development. They called on member countries to recognize the importance of sport as a vehicle for development. Sport and physical education are absent, however, from the agendas of the African Union and NEPAD. These two critical forums, as well as other regional cooperation bodies for the Americas, Europe, Asia, the Middle East, and Oceania, represent significant opportunities to broaden engagement and to promote more widespread use of Sport for Development and Peace in the context of national and regional development strategies. Most recently, the IYSPE concluded with the second Magglingen Conference on Sport for Development in December 2005, bringing together more than 400 participants from 70 countries. The conference culminated in the Magglingen Call to Action (Magglingen, 2005) urging governments, sport federations, athletes, development agencies, the private sector, and other stakeholders to promote Sport for Development and Peace in their respective fields. While this declaration and other similar calls to action are important outcomes in their own right, their implementation remains to be achieved. The Sport for Development and Peace community now looks to national governments for the concrete action necessary to see these commitments realized.

Elements of Sport and Sport for Development and Peace

None of the countries surveyed has a formal definition of Sport for Development and Peace; however, three (Sierra Leone, Tanzania, and Zambia) indicated that they plan to adopt one. Working understandings of what sport comprises varied, but all six of the countries that responded to this question viewed sport in a broad sense. Three (Brazil, Ghana, and Sierra Leone) emphasized that sport's definition should include accessibility to everyone. Elements that were highlighted by respondents are summarized in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Elements of sport included in working understanding of Sport for Development and Peace

Elements of Sport	Azerb'jan	Brazil	Ghana	Sierra-Leone	Tanzania	Zambia
Recreation/leisure sport	√	√	√	√	√	√
Physical education/activity	√	√	√		√	√
Competitive sport	√	√	√	√	√	
Indigenous sports	√	√	√			√
Play			√			

Elite sport and its role in Sport for Development and Peace were not mentioned.

However, in

Tanzania, the National Sport Policy pays special attention to professional sport as a means of employment.

Countries with the Policies and Programmes already

The countries surveyed are at various stages of policy and programme development and implementation. Where policy and programmes have yet to be developed, the government sees the potential of sport to address a number of issues of social importance. As indicated in Table 2.2, health promotion or disease prevention, building individual and social capital, and economic development were the most frequently cited policy or program objectives (six countries), followed closely by community development, conflict resolution or peace building, and gender equity (four countries).

Table 2.2: Sport for Development and Peace objectives

Policy/Programme Objectives	Azerb'jan	Brazil	Ghana	Sierra-Leone	Tanzania	Zambia
Health promotion or disease prevention	√		√	√	√	√
Building individual or social capital	√	√	√	√	√	
Economic development	√	√		√	√	√
Community development	√			√	√	√
Conflict resolution or peace building			√	√	√	√
Gender equity	√			√	√	
Advancement of human rights	√				√	√
Sport development		√	√		√	
Healthy human development	√				√	
Education		√			√	
Post-disaster or conflict normalization				√		
Improved quality of life		√				
Inclusion of people with a disability			√			

In Ghana and Tanzania, the primary focus of national policies seems to be the health and well-being of children and youth. In Ghana, a specially established Sport for Development and Peace Secretariat focuses on strengthening community fitness clubs and building local capacity. In Tanzania, sport and physical education are being integrated into the education system from primary school through university, while more targeted programs focus on HIV/disease prevention and poverty reduction among youth. However, Tanzania is also making efforts to promote physical activity among seniors and to improve the participation of girls and women. In Zambia, the chief priority is halting the spread of HIV/AIDS. Consequently, sport will be used for HIV/AIDS awareness and prevention, and efforts will focus primarily on children and adolescents, including HIV/AIDS orphans. Azerbaijan, Ghana, and Tanzania identified social cohesion as an important objective of their national sport policies and programs. The future Sport for Development and Peace policy and programs of Sierra Leone will attempt to address some issues related to the violent past of the country, and will primarily target children and adolescents involved in, or at risk of, conflict. Its policy and programs will also give special consideration to the MDGs and, in particular, education, gender equality, health, and HIV/AIDS prevention, in recognition of sport as a cost-effective way to contribute to development and peace. Although existing programs and policies generally incorporate the principle of “sport for all” the most popular target population for current or future programs and policies is youth cited by all six countries surveyed. More detailed information on target populations is set out in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Key target groups

Target groups	Azerb'jan	Brazil	Ghana	Sierra-Leone	Tanzania	Zambia
Youth	√	√	√	√	√	√
General Population	√		√		√	
Children		√		√		√
Women and girls			√			√
Athletes		√	√			
Refugees					√	
People living with HIV/AIDS	√				√	√
Low-income individuals and families		√				
Prison inmates		√				
Vulnerable populations						√
Sport agencies		√				
Community sport clubs		√				
Sport-oriented NGOs		√				

Target Groups: AZERBAIJAN, BRAZIL, GHANA, SIERRA-LEONE, TANZANIA and ZAMBIA

Two of the six countries (Sierra Leone, Zambia) surveyed do not have specific Sport for Development and Peace programs and policies in place. They are, however, in the process of establishing them. Brazil has the most established and varied portfolio of national Sport for Development and Peace programs. In addition to domestic implementation of these programs, in 2005 Brazil worked with the Angolan government to replicate Segundo Tempo (Second Half) and Pintando a Liberdade (Painting Freedom) in Luanda. Similar programs are being launched in Mozambique and Haiti with Brazilian support. Five other South American countries (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Paraguay,

and Uruguay) have also expressed interest in establishing a version of each program with technical assistance from Brazil.

Linkages with Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

All countries viewed their Sport for Development and Peace initiatives as consistent with a focus on achieving the MDGs. Three of these (Azerbaijan, Brazil, and Ghana) mentioned that their programs and policies were specifically designed with the MDGs in mind. While Tanzania's current policy predates the MDGs, its contents can be linked to all eight MDGs. Finally, both Sierra Leone and Zambia, while still in the process of developing their national policies and programs, have emphasized the importance of aligning these with the MDGs. Similar to donor countries, surveyed countries identified linkages between sport and all eight MDGs (Table 2.4, below). Those specifically singled out most frequently (by four countries) were poverty reduction and disease prevention (including HIV/AIDS). These were followed by achieving universal primary education, improving maternal health and reducing child mortality each specifically cited by three countries.

Table 2.4: Linkage with Millennium Development Goals

MDGs	Azerb'jan	Brazil	Ghana	Sierra-Leone	Tanzania	Zambia
Goals taken into account in development of policies and programs	√	√	√	√		√
Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases			√	√	√	√
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger		√	√		√	√
Achieve universal primary education			√		√	√
Reduce child mortality			√		√	√
Improve maternal health			√		√	√
Promote gender equality and empower women			√		√	
Ensure environmental sustainability			√		√	
Develop a global partnership for development					√	

* Policy is still under development but MDGs are being taken into account in this process.

Sport and Peace Practice

The Sport for Development and Peace concept evolved from a growing recognition that, well designed sport-based initiatives that incorporate the best values of sport can be powerful, practical, and cost-effective tools to achieve development and peace objectives (United Nation Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace, 2003). Sport is viewed both as valuable in itself, and as a means to achieving broader aims for development and peace. In considering Sport for Development and Peace, sport has usually been defined in context to include a broad and inclusive spectrum of activities suitable to people of all ages and abilities, with an emphasis on the positive values of sport. UN Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace (2000) defined Sport for Development as “all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental wellbeing and social interaction, such as play, recreation, organized or competitive sport, and indigenous sports and games. This definition has been accepted by many proponents of Sport for Development and Peace and as the working definition of sport for the purposes of this study.

Access to sport and recreational activity has long been recognized as a fundamental right. The right of children, in particular, to engage in sport, play, physical education, and recreational activity, is an integral component of the international human rights framework. First recognized by the UN Declaration on the Rights of the Child (Declaration on the Rights of the Child, 1959) this was further embedded through the UNESCO International Charter of Physical Education and Sport (UNESCO, 2000) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child, (Conventions on the Rights of the Child, 1989) which specifically refers to the right of the child to rest and leisure, and to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child. This is echoed in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, which affirms that on a basis of equality of men and women. Women must be ensured opportunities to participate actively in sports and physical education (Conventions on the Rights of the Child, 1989). The status of sport as a right brings with it an obligation on

the part of governments, multilateral institutions, and other actors in civil society to ensure that opportunities exist for everyone to participate in sport and physical activity

Peace-Building and Conflict Prevention through Sports

Many of the values associated with sport are relevant to conflict prevention and resolution, and to peace building. Well-organized activities teach participants respect for one another, honesty, empathy, the importance of having rules, and effective communication and cooperation skills. These skills and values are all essential to both resolving conflict and preventing it from arising in the first place. Sport can also serve as a positive means of interaction between communities, people, and cultures, contributing to the maintenance of a dialogue between parties in open or latent conflict (United Nation, 2008). In conflict or post-conflict situations, sport can help to create a structured, constructive outlet for the affected people that is oriented toward peaceful resolution of aggression and tensions (United Nation, 2000). The tradition of Olympic Truce, the longest lasting peace accord in history, demonstrates the international potential of sport for peace. The UN General Assembly calls upon all member states every two years to express their resolve for peaceful competition unmarred by violent conflict, since 1992, through its resolution process. This truce has now been extended to the Paralympic games as well.

Social Integration and the Development of Social Capital through Sports

Sports can also contribute to enhanced integration of marginalized groups in society. In a development context, these may be people with disabilities, street children, out-of-school and unemployed youths, former child combatants, members of ethnic minority groups, migrants, refugees, and people living with HIV and AIDS. Sport can promote identity and solidarity within communities and increase the readiness of individuals to become involved in their community (United Nation, 2000). By bringing together disparate ethnic and political groups from the community to participate in a soccer match, researchers were able to facilitate social integration and the formation of community identity, contributing to social and psychological gains among both the host communities and the refugee and asylum-seeker groups. Sport was also shown to contribute significantly to fostering informal ties between people from both groups and helped them to establish links to official institutions two key factors in building social capital.

Communication and Social Mobilization through Sports

Sport's immense contribution to individual development makes it a logical partner to advance development objectives at the community level. It is also at the community level where the development potential of sport becomes most visible. Sport can bridge divides between generations engaging children and adults alike facilitate social inclusion, and contribute to building human and social capital. Its tremendous popularity and attractiveness make it an ideal social mobilization vehicle, not only for sport events themselves, but also for sport events linked to other development activities and objectives. The unparalleled reach and popularity of sport makes it ideally suited to carrying critical and often sensitive social, health, and peace messages. This carrying power has been used very effectively, particularly in relation to HIV/AIDS prevention and for vaccination campaigns.

Criticisms for sports and peace

Studies have reported the relationship between sport and peace, some scholars do not agree. In the former colonies, sport brought a clear division between the colonial powers and the indigenous populations, and sport such as rugby and cricket reinforced social divisions and ethnic segregation (Magglinagen, 2005). Sports activity may very well lead to a channeling of aggression and that there is a negative correlation between the amount of training and the tendency to use violence (Magglinagen, 2005). Sport may be a domain that suspends moral obligation or encourages unethical behaviour for strategic gain in competition particularly (United Nation, 2003). The analysis of sport's potential as a medium for securing peace is particularly problematic, as sport releases emotions that can lead to nationalism and xenophobia.

The theory of Olympics in the modern era has never quite achieved its peaceful ideals, as racism, politics or commercialism seem to get in the way. Evidence thus underneath an example arguing that the 1920 Antwerp Games were held soon after the World War 1 having a strong military influence and being highly nationalistic with countries strongly competing against one another (Magglingen, 2005). The modern Olympics encourage some origins of racially exclusive European humanism, while de Coubertin worked to bring about world peace, he was not a pacifist and de Coubertin like the rest of France wanted a powerful military in place to prevent another disastrous military defeat at the

hands of the Germans or anybody else for that matter (Kuhn & Poole, 2000). The Olympic Games of the twentieth century are a paradox; fundamental tenets of Olympics to initiate and sustain human centered peace movement, seems to be unclear (Poole, 2007). Arguing the moral reasoning within the context of Olympics, scholars have questioned the way things are and how they should be. For instance, there are two problems in the identification of fairplay as an aspiration of the philosophy of Olympism. The first is that the philosophy of Olympics allows for actions classified as both fairplay and bad sportpersonship. This is problematic in that all actions approximately labeled as bad sportpersonship are commonly judged to be morally wrong and undesirable, while actions judged to be fair play are seen as morally required. Secondly, Olympics exclude many morally praiseworthy actions classified as good sportpersonship. The development of moral character and attendant decorum was a critical component of Olympism. From these brief overviews, it is evident that sport and its claims to promote peace are a highly contested area dissemination and implementation of sport for development and peace.

Future Vision for Sport for Development and Peace

Key informants were asked to identify what must happen over the next five to ten years in order for Sport for Development and Peace to achieve its full potential. Their responses can be captured under the following themes:

- Capacity building
- National government support
- Resources
- Addressing negative aspects of sport
- Knowledge exchange
- Coordination
- Broadening base of support
- Strengthening network infrastructure
- Increased focus on gender and inclusion

Sport and Development in the communities

The emerging development paradigm in the Community is humanistic and places people (and in particular women, the disabled and youths) at the center of development efforts. It is underscored by values such as equity, democracy, human rights, civil society

participation and the right to basic health (CARICOM Charter for Civil Society, 1997). The Commonwealth Games of Canada and the Commonwealth Sport Development Program are among the agencies which have promoted the “added value” of sport in fostering the social and economic development of people, families and communities; and in addressing issues such as poverty, environment, human rights, gender equality, HIV/AIDS prevention and awareness, economic growth and sustainability and international pride and peace in the Caribbean, Cuba’s national development plan clearly identifies sport as a priority and a right for all citizens, regardless of ethnic/geographic origin, physical and mental health or age. Sport is delivered on comprehensive, systematic, evidence based and integrated basis and objectives encompass individual health, social well being and intellectual development; as well as the shaping of high performance athletes. Physical activity, sports and recreation programmes are delivered in many locations including homes from infancy; schools through the university; the work place; and communities.

The adult population engages in physical activity through the golden years for health, cultural and social purposes (CARICOM, 1997). The 1996 meeting of the Conference of CARICOM Heads of Government and the 2001 Special meeting of the COHSOD on Sport endorsed sport as an effective tool for social, personal, cultural and economic development. The policy framework for development through sport programmes includes the 2002 Caribbean Cooperation in Health through eleven initiative; and Regional strategies for youth (CARICOM, 2001), demand reduction (CARIOM/CAREC, 2002), HIV/AIDS (CARICOM, 2000) and Human Resource Development (CARICOM, 1997). However, a significant number of the region’s citizens, planners and policy makers fail to grasp the difference between sport, physical activity and recreations; and the power of sport to change lives, transform communities and shape the future of nations is largely unrecognized. A significant quantum of resources has to be mobilized to facilitate the implementation of the Draft Strategy for the Development of Sport once finalized. Definition of Terms in the Regional Survey of Development through Sport Programmes implemented at the country level.

- **Development:** Development is about providing people with opportunities to lead long and healthy lives, and to access the resources needed for a decent standard of living (Commonwealth games of Canada, 1998 – 2002).
- **Sport:** Sport transcends competition and medal-winning performances to encompass physical activity, active living and recreation; and invites a large realm of participation by the general population (Commonwealth games of Canada, 1998 – 2002).
- **Development through Sport:** In addition to health and personal development benefits there is compelling evidence that sport can be an effective vehicle for advancing sustainable human, social and economic development (Commonwealth games of Canada, 1998 – 2002)
- **Youth-at-risk:** Young people living in a negative environment and/or lacking the skills and values that help them to become responsible members of society (Collingwood, 1997)

Opportunities and Challenges through sports

Sport in this context is defined as “all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction, such as play, recreation, organized or competitive sport, and indigenous sports and games.” (United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace, 2003). SDP IWG recognized the strong linkage between sport and MDGs, and identified seven themes with sport in the ‘Toolkit Sport for Development’: Gender, HIV/AIDS, Poverty, Disability, Peace and Reconciliation, Health, and Trauma. According to the UN, sport has been considered as a means to provide benefits in the areas of: individual development, health promotion and disease prevention, gender equality, social integration, peace building and conflict prevention, post-disaster intervention and psycho-social nurture, economic development, and communication and social mobilization. Even though sport alone cannot achieve the objectives of development and peace, it can be a powerful means to contribute in a variety of approaches. Sport can create opportunities for youths to strengthen self-esteem, gain a sense of belonging, and learn responsibility with the constant inclusion of the teams and communities. It has been expressed in a number of reports that participating in sport activities prevents youths from being involved in gangs, drugs and other problems

including early pregnancy and HIV/AIDS infection, which is a significant problem in a number of developing countries. Furthermore, sport programmes that are combined with health education are efficient at improving health conditions and prevention of disease.

Gender equality is not a simple task to be accomplished due to the diversity of culture and religion in the world. Sport, however, is able to play a significant role in providing the opportunities for that socially excluded population; women and girls. Sport is originally male-dominated and the perception toward women in sport is still problematic in many societies. Girls and women should be exposed to sport in order to improve their well-being and gain equal rights. Not only gender equality, but also inclusion of minority populations such as disabled people, refugees, and indigenous communities can be achieved through sport. These initiatives for social integration are significant to develop and strengthen communities. Kidd and MacDonnell (2007) stated that, it is essential in peace building that conflicting groups be able to re-humanize their vision of each other as part of a reconciliation process that aims for sustainable co-existence.

Sport can unite people together and create mutual understanding regardless of nationality, ethnicity, gender, culture and religion. The Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (2005) states that, by teaching basic social values such as tolerance, teamwork, fairness and a constructive way of dealing with conflict, it contributes to a culture based on peaceful values and thus also reinforces civil structures. Thus, is clear that, sport has a significant ability to connect individuals and groups in the peace building process and transcend segregation and misconception. Moreover, sport allows people to learn important social skills such as conflict management. In the peace building process, sport can be utilized as a healing instrument for the traumatized victims of natural disasters or ex-combatants in post conflict situations. All these elements that are mentioned above are interconnected and sport can have multiple influences in both the individual and community level.

Sport is often seen only as a competition; however, it is vital to take into account that sport can have many more recreational aspects is more than solely a competitive activity. As Kidd and MacDonnell (2007) stated that, sport is full of discrimination that can be racist, divisive, and can breed intolerance and misunderstanding. The intrinsic

characteristic of sport can cause segregation, disconnection, and escalation of conflict. Although sport as a means for development and peace has been recognized by the UN, a number of governmental agencies, International Federations (IFs) and NGOs, cannot be denied that sport can be used to promote conflict and stimulate nationalism in a way to mobilize citizens and has been used to exploit and segregate people in terms of nationality, ethnicity, culture and religion in the past. While sport contains a number of positive aspects, there are also limitations and negative aspects. In order to implement successful sport programs for development and peace, careful and critical consideration of the utilization of sport should be required and we have to understand the complexity of the political, historical and cultural context.

Though some common sports such as football and basketball can contribute a significant effect, they cannot be applied to all communities due to such diversity in the world. Creative games or indigenous sport may be preferred in some cases. What kind of sport is effective in which society? What is the agenda? Is there a need for that program? We have to consider programs from not only our perspective, but through the eyes of the community that is going to benefit from the sport programs. As Galtung (1996) stated, “development is essentially self-development. Another cannot be the cause of development in self, without harming the autonomy of self. Autonomy is a development goal in his development theory; the intervention should not be based on outsiders. Spontaneous development will sustain the community and civilians’ well-being, and it enhances the advantage of initiatives through sport. Moreover, cooperation with schools, local community, NGOs and government is required since dialogue and communication with the local community is necessary to seek the needs and conduct successful sport programs’ implementation. Due to the diversity of every condition, sports for development and peace cannot be universally applied, but rather, needs to be taken in a holistic approach.

Benefits of Sport for Development and Peace

The Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (2005) report Sport for Development and Peace, notes that sport enters into the most varied spheres of life and has numerous social, economic, and cultural interfaces and points of contact. From a

development and peace perspective, sport is therefore the ideal cross-cutting instrument. Sport is widely viewed to offer benefits in the following areas:

- Individual development
- Health promotion and disease prevention
- Promotion of gender equality
- Social integration and the development of social capital
- Peace building and conflict prevention/resolution
- Post-disaster/trauma relief and normalization of life
- Economic development
- Communication and social mobilization.

The United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace (2003) published a landmark report, *Sport for Development and Peace: Towards Achieving the Millennium Development Goals*, which examined the evidence in support of sport as a development tool (United Nation, 2003). The report concluded that well designed sport-based initiatives are practical and cost-effective tools to achieve objectives in development and peace. Sport is a powerful vehicle that should be increasingly considered by the UN as complementary to existing activities (United Nation, 2003).

Table 2.5: The inherent and adopted benefits of Sport and Physical Activity Summary

Element	Objectives	Potential benefits
Disease prevention	To use sport and physical activity as forms of preventive medicine.	Reduction of a person's risk of life-threatening diseases, such as cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes, osteoporosis, obesity and mental health disorders.
Psychological Well-Being, Learning and Productivity	To use Sport and physical activity to promote psychological health and well-being; and > To eliminate stereotyping and social stigmatization of individuals who are differently able.	Reduction of anxiety, depression and tension; enhancement of self-esteem, self-confidence and perceived physical competence; an excellent antidote to stress; increased sense of community involvement and reintegration into the mainstream.

Social Cohesion	To use sport and physical activity as a unifying and integrating force in society.	Promotion of equality, participation and inclusion; reinforcement of social values and goals including hard work, fair play, character development and teamwork; leadership development; increased commitment to community, improved interpersonal relationships. Investing in the well being of women is one of the fastest ways to improve living conditions in entire communities.
Health promotion and Poverty Alleviation	To use Sport and physical activity to promote basic health; To gather people together for the purpose of playing a sport or being physically active, as well as discussing health and social issues such as AIDS, nutrition and family planning.	Raising awareness of health issues and engendering healthier life-long practices people who are healthy are better able to take care of themselves and their families, and to contribute to the economic, social and political lives of their nations. Direct and indirect provision of a range of Employment/self-employment opportunities.
Reaching out to youth at Risk	To use Sport and physical activity to offer positive alternatives to anti-social behaviours such as drug use and crime; and the problems that stem from a lack of self-esteem, boredom, idleness, alienation and poverty.	increased individual and community participation, ethical and democratic practices and racial tolerance; better family interactions and peer influence; behavioural standards and goals that contribute to positive social relations and the motivation to succeed; better use of free time. Individuals who are regularly active demonstrate improved academic performance and are more likely to stay in/return to school. Sport is an effective behaviour change methodology.
Identifying talented athletes	To identify and select individuals with the potential to become high performance athletes	Excellence in sport inspires athletes to try harder, and winning of medals inspires national pride.

Source: Unite Nation (2003)

Sports and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

In its report, Sport for Development and Peace: Towards Achieving the Millennium Development Goals, the UN Inter-Agency Task Force specifically concluded that the

fundamental elements of sport make it a viable and practical tool to support the achievement of the MDGs (United Nation, 2003). The MDGs were established by the international community at the UN Millennium Summit in September 2000 in an ambitious effort to focus world attention and resources on the eradication of global poverty (United Nations, 2003). They comprise eight benchmarks that include: poverty, hunger, maternal and child mortality, disease, and promote education, gender equality, environmental sustainability and global partnerships. Within this framework, 18 supporting targets were selected to provide tangible indicators by which to measure the world's progress.

The MDGs have been accepted by the UN, the World Bank and national governments as the primary framework for measuring development progress. In total, 191 nations and 147 heads of state and government have pledged their support. The MDGs now guide the international, assistance system. However, it has become evident that most countries will not be able to attain the eight goals by 2015. Common reasons for shortfalls in the attainment of the MDGs include poor governance, poverty traps with local and national economies unable to make investments, unequal distribution of economic development within countries, areas with multiple complex challenges that defy solutions, and the simultaneous occurrence of all or some of these factors (Sachs, 2005)..

Urgent action is needed to get the world's poorest countries on track. According to the UN Millennium Project, Sachs (2005) highlighted that the international community already possesses the practical knowledge and means and tools to attain the MDGs. Success now rests on the international community's willingness to make significant economic investments and, in many cases, policy and institutional improvements to allow implementation of practical measures that have already been shown to work. Although progress toward the MDGs is uneven, much can be done in a very short period of time if there is collaboration and strong commitment, and adequate resources and support are provided. While sport alone will not enable the world to achieve its millennium aims, sport's potential to be an extremely valuable component of a broader, more comprehensive, integrated approach is still largely untapped. Sport offers potential benefits with regard to each of the MDGs, however, it is most commonly linked to:

- The eradication of poverty and extreme hunger
- Achieving universal primary education
- Promoting gender equality and empowering women
- Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases.

Translating the MDGs into action requires an operational framework at the national level. For a large number of the poorest countries in the world, their national Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) are the primary vehicle to achieve the MDGs. PRSPs describes programs to promote growth and reduce poverty, and outline associated needs for external financing. They are prepared by governments through a participatory process involving civil society and development partners, such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (World Bank, online). Policies and programs embedded by national governments in these strategies enjoy high priority on their agendas.

The potential contribution sport can make to the achievement of the MDGs, combined with the fundamental urgency underlying the MDG targets, unites Sport for Development and Peace proponents in the current effort to engage and mobilize national governments. To this end, the UNDP, at the request of the SDP IWG Secretariat, undertook a preliminary examination of the potential to include Sport for Development and Peace in the poverty reduction strategies of developing nations, as expressed in their PRSPs. UNDP Focal Points on Sport for Development in 26 countries were asked to comment on how Sport for Development and Peace could be integrated into national development strategies. Preliminary responses provided some valuable insights (World Bank, online). First, Sport for Development and Peace must be positioned as a cross-cutting tool in national development strategies for achieving the MDGs. Second, many developing countries may not be aware of the ways in which Sport for Development and Peace can be employed to advance their development objectives. Third, UN advocacy and support for developing countries would be an asset in this process. The importance of a coordinated approach to advocacy and promotion of Sport for Development and Peace has been stressed. Similarly, it was thought to be necessary to ensure local ownership and an understanding of local contexts. Finally, some countries are already including Sport for Development and Peace in their PRSPs or other national development strategies (World Bank, online). While it may be too early to measure the impact that this will have

on development outcomes, national governments, the UN, and NGOs should be encouraged to capture and communicate regional examples and success stories, as these may be useful in engaging the attention of other countries.

The Contribution of Elite Sports

The inherent concern of Sport for Development and Peace with reducing social, economic, and health disparities requires a fundamental focus on, and commitment to, sport that is available and accessible to everyone. This focus is a critical factor in differentiating Sport for Development and Peace from professional and elite sport. However, high-performance athletes play a critical role within this context. The Sport for Development and Peace movement includes many high-performance sport federations, teams, and athletes among its advocates and practitioners. By virtue of their achievements and resulting celebrity, elite athletes can serve as powerful role models and highly effective advocates. The tremendous convening power of sport, athletes can also be remarkably effective in disseminating public health and education messages to hard-to-reach groups. Athletes have been particularly active in the fight against HIV/AIDS delivering critical prevention information while encouraging people to speak openly about HIV/AIDS issues, thereby helping to reduce the punishing stigma encountered by many people living with HIV/AIDS. Sport federations also play an important role in contributing to international development: running Sport for Development and Peace projects; participating in disaster-relief efforts (FIFA, 2005) promoting peaceful international relations; lending their infrastructure to other development efforts; and working to strengthen mainstream sport capacity in developing nations.

Limitations and Risks Associated with Sports

The positive values of sport and their careful application in well-designed Sport for Development and Peace programmes hold enormous potential to help drive the attainment of development goals, sport alone cannot ensure peace or solve complex social problems. Nevertheless, it is a highly underutilized tool in a broader kit of development practices that needs to be applied in a holistic and integrated manner to achieve results. It is also important to recognize that society's ills can be found in sport environments, as in all other social domains. These can have a negative impact on sport and must be guarded against if the full positive power of sport is to be realized. Examples

include the unfair exploitation of talent from developing countries for commercial gain, tolerance of violent rivalry among supporters of opposing teams, and an emphasis on winning at any cost that undermines the positive values of sport and offers negative role models to young people. These risks can be minimized by ensuring that Sport for Development and Peace initiatives is driven first and foremost by development objectives. Sport must be carefully incorporated with other components into a combined, holistic approach, eliciting the best that sport can offer. Successful Sport for Development and Peace initiatives are responsive to the challenges these dynamics pose and work consciously to ensure that they advance the best values of sport, protecting the integrity, inherent joyfulness and positive social value of the sport experience.

Psycho-social variables of Sports roles

Socialization through sports participation for peace and development in the communities

Socialization is the process by which the culture of a group or society is instilled or internalized in the individual. Socialization includes the training of individuals to accept a given culture to develop personality and to correctly play one's role in the society. Socialization is a form of teaching all the aspects of the cultural life of a society for continuity. The process of socially adjusting to the society and continuous process of socializing a community's members so that members could learn to be part of the society. Socializing through sports involves the learning of behavioural patterns, principles, norms, values and beliefs of a society which are transferred to other spheres of life so as to get fully integrated into the, society for a full and worth-while life. Sport is dynamic as a social three, which guarantees social relations. For example, there are acceptable ways of dressing and moving in sport. Sport also provides some learning situations in which athletes could also learn various roles that could transfer to other spheres of life.

Socialization process centre on the teaching of different means, methods and mechanisms by which individuals become acceptable into the larger society as a result of adapting to the norms, values, practices and attitudes of the society (Vandem, Malcolm & Meulders, 2006). Through this learning, the norms, values and attitudes in sports become internalized, which in turn would motivate the individual to adjust and adopt desirable sports behaviours. Sports as an element of the socialization process contribute to mental and social developments. In some cases, the sports that individuals participate are

reflections of the cultural values of a given society. wrestling, combating, and dancing are very popular sports in the eastern part of Nigeria, because of their beliefs in a strong man and this is a sport through which strength can easily be exhibited. Socialization through sports results in the development of generalized and diffused behaviours as well as the development of specific roles. Through sports cognitive abilities develop as a democratic citizen who will hold and practice the principle of equality of rights and opportunities. Sports by its nature, entails discipline because of its embodiment of rules and regulations which must be obeyed.

Cultural value through sports participation for peace and development in the communities

Culture depends on the existence of man's ability to read and manipulate symbols. Sports symbols stand to suggest something apart from others by reason of associations, hence sports symbol stand like the five interlocking of the Olympics which stand to represent the unity of the continents of the work and the touch of unity itself which signifies the oneness of global sports. Culture is highly instructive. Sports are a dynamic social force in culture. it has become an important part of the nation's social culture as well as other cultures throughout the world. For example, in Europe, German's interest in unity was reinforced when the spirit of internationalism became allied with the democratic aspiration of the common people. It was emphasized that sports and physical education be given attention as well as intellectual studies because such training was indispensable to a nation seeking to recover and maintain her independence.

According to Obasanjo (1999) stated that, sport is a unifying factor that bound the diverse people in unity as one. He further stated, in a goodwill message at the 8th All Africa Games that at a time when over continent is facing a lot of challenges in the new millennium and it is threatened by war, hunger and diseases, sports continue to present us with a unique opportunity to foster co-existence, good neighborliness, understanding and friendship among our diverse people and culture. Societies vary greatly in terms of how rich their cultures are measuring their cultural qualities over one another. However, the variation sometimes experienced at the levels of technological developments of the states of producing material artifacts. The aim of sporting activities in Swedish schools is to develop an understanding of physical activities as means to a healthy mind-set recreation

and to build a healthy population capable of working effectively in the modern society. From the above, it is evident that sports provides a medium for cultural intervention, diffusion and social change and makes important contributions to the development of a system of values which is one of the ingredients for unifying society. Sporting activities are promoted through local and national festivals and ceremonies in order to achieve national and international awareness as well as social stability in the youths.

Social Control through sports participation for peace and development in the communities

Social control is a means of promoting conformity with societal rules and regulations. Sports as means of social control either internal or external, as an internal social control agency. sports make it possible for individuals to realize that some behaviours are wrong and unacceptable in the society while as an external panel of social control, sport provide opportunities for sanctions or rewards and punishments designed to control behaviour. When individuals exhibit acceptable behaviours, they become internalized and the behaviours become part of them and these behaviours are carried to other spheres of life in the society, thus, becoming character.

According to Eitzen and Sage (1986) opines that sports are viewed as an environment for promoting attitudes and values about such things as the nature and purpose of competition, sportsmanship, discipline, authority and social relationships. As a tool of social control, sport ensures that the norms and values of the society are followed and when they are not followed, the individual concerned is regarded as a deviant. By acting as a social control mechanism, sports makes control internalized so that individuals are motivated always to do things that are acceptable in sports such as obeying sports rules and regulations even when nobody is internalized, the individual will accept sports norms and values and integrate such into personality which in turn become the character traits developed in sports and internalized. They are transferred to real life situations in the society with a lasting effect. A nation that aspired to greatness, her youths especially must have conditioned character that will evolve orderliness and self control in the society with conditioned character individuals in the society will obey the societal rules regulations, norms and values.

Nationalism and Integration through sports participation for peace and development in the communities

Cultural differences have continued to threaten the oneness of the communities. One important thing that has contributed to the integration of the country and communities is sports. In sports, most individuals, nations and regions becomes one; teams are never raised on ethnic, regional or quota basis. It is generally accepted that diverse tribes and tongues sink cultural differences to become one as international victories are achieved in sports (Ramadhami (2002) cited in Lumpkin, Stoll & Beller, 2003). The athletes flying the nation colours are not seen as belonging to any tribe rather are immensely proud to be associated as belonging to the country. There are hardly other areas of national life or endeavour that do not require that the state or tribal identify of an individual be seen as a factor to be considered. Bredemeiers & Shields (1995) remarked that, in such meeting (sports) lies tremendous possibilities for future closer associations, and understanding between the people. Many people wish that a nation cooperate to win international sports victory that would enhance cooperation for socio economic and political emancipation.

Sports as a vehicle of national integration did not gain prominence until after the civil war in 1970. Sports generally entail bringing participants, officials and spectators together at the level of organization. People are therefore brought together at the community, state, national and international levels. The federal government of Nigeria like any other national government realized the potentiality of sports in bringing together and uniting the people, hence, sport is organized at various levels especially at the national level. The various states are brought together regularly for sports in order to unite them and derive other benefits. Onifade (2001) opines that individual's especially those from the multinational countries could be merged through sports, since it serves as a cohesive agent to bring about unity and national awareness. Ramadhami (2002) cited by Lumpkin, Stoll & Beller, 2003 also on the other hand stated that, sports has a big impact on the lives of people which are so dynamic that can easily change million of people ideas in a broad ways. Thus, individuals or sports participants including the communities tend to develop consciousness of belonging to their nation and states. During sporting meeting, they develop their social pattern of readiness and discipline that are necessary for

a nation building, nationalism sports are major agents of bringing people and nation together.

Character Building through sports participation for peace and development in the communities

The growing movement across the country is to enhance the quality and availability of programmes that teach character. Children need to have many opportunities as possible to develop positive character. Bredemeiers & Shields (1995) quoted Goodsport (1996) defines character as values in action. Values in action are achieved through the development of cognitive, effective and behavioural abilities through the development of social and emotional skills, and always through the interaction of the individual with a social or environmental context. Values are the building blocks of character and there are many important values. Sports build character according to teamwork, respect, responsibility, perseverance and honesty (or honest fair play). If values are the building blocks of character, social and emotional skills are the mortar that holds the values together and ensures that they are consistently put into action. Sport presents a unique opportunity to make the values of character building. Bredemeiers & Shields (1995) quoted Goodsport (1996) asserted that members learn firsthand how each value looks in sports situations and then are encouraged to make connections with, and learn how they transfer it to life, at home and in the neighborhood. According to him this transfer of values and skills to other domains has been a stumbling block for character education. He further stated that proactively structures opportunities to think about, practice and commit to living out the values in all areas of a child's life and not just while they are in the program, putting values in action through an evolved repertoire of social and emotional skills are important.

Research suggests that antisocial and aggressive behaviour interferes with school learning and the development of positive peer relations. Goleman (1995) in his study stated that 25% of children who were rejected by their peers in elementary school had dropped out before completing high school, compared to a general rate of eight percent. Character building can be explained as the acquisition and acceptance of behaviour or mannerism and principles of life which an individual can follow and which served as a carryover value to the larger society. In building character through sports, an individual is

expected to behave in an orderly and predicable manner during and after participation in sports. Using sports as a vehicle for character development can be viewed as intrinsically and extrinsically molding the behaviours of individuals through sports. George (1988) stated that sports provide social environment whereby culturally valued, personal social attitudes values and behaviours are acquired which implied that what is learnt in the sports setting transfers to other sphere of an individual's life. Sports is a microcosm of the society, this conforming that it has a role to play especially in the development of behavioural patterns that are acceptable or required in the society.

Occupational mobility through sports participation for peace and development in the communities

Sports have been a supersonic progression of people from one social class to another. Social mobility means the movement of a person or a group of persons from one social class or occupational structure to another (Onifade, 2001). The social movement categories into horizontal social mobility moving from one occupation to another within the same social class structure and vertical social mobility movement up or down the social ladder from one rank to another. Social mobility through sports allowed Nigerian society unrestricted opportunities for virtually all who are interested in it. Sports facilitate both geographical and social mobility. No other human engagement promises fantastic acceleration of upward mobility of ages, sexes and races like sports. Blau and Duncan (1966) cited by Onifade (2001) opined that individuals have more education and brighter chance to work in a profession or technical capacity. Sports have transported many from under class nullity to national or global celebrity.

Social mobility through sports have given sports professionalism of individual which have brought development, employment and prestige to the community, families and friends of individuals and society at large. The profession gained through sports provides a special service to the community based on accumulated knowledge skill and wisdom. The opportunities have greatly aided an upward mobility which through the organisation of sports discovered many from the community with less privilege and exists area developed. With interest determination and discipline sportsman could rise to a national recognition within a couple of years. The result of conflict between sports and social role varied but for many it leads to what Eitzen (1999) refers to as positive deviance, involve

in taking the Sports ethic to [lie extreme or subordinating other interests for the sake of sports.

Social mobilization through sports participation for peace and development in the communities

Sports are particularly effective element to support social mobilization efforts. The conveying power of sports makes it a useful tool to gather communities for direct public initiatives. It allows for broad delivery of messages and programmes to a wide range of people at the local and national level, drawing diverse groups of people together in a fun and supportive environment. Whether as an additional element to an existing sports event or as a sports festival specially organized to support mobilization efforts, sports platforms provide practical and cost effective medium to get critical information and programme to reach group in a comfortable and familiar atmosphere. United Nation (UN) (2003) using sports as weapon gathering together over 1,000 street children, organizing a football league for homeless, young people at risk from prostitution, violence and HIV/AIDS, this offered an entry point for organizations to provide services and supports, highlighting the value of proving an enable environment for sports activities that can then be used as a vehicle for outreach and social mobilization. As a valuable supplement to health initiatives, particularly immunization campaign, sports platforms are an effective way to bring adults and young people together in a friendly environment. It can attract people into district centers from surrounding regions and increase the number of those reached with critical vaccines. In Ghana a sports festival was organized by government ministries to settle the dispute between two villages in the local area (UN, 2003).

Positive Attitude Development through sports participation for peace and development in the communities

Sports as being regarded as an integral element in the reproduction of the prevailing of society, promotes basic insights to sports practices and foster a sensitivity understanding and appreciation about sports (Lumpkin, Stoll & Beller, 2003). Sportsmanship is an attitude that strives for fairplay, courtesy toward team mates and opponents, ethical behaviour and integrity and grace in losing. Sportsmanship spirit expresses an aspiration that the activity will be enjoyed for its own sake. Grantland (2003) cited in Lumpkin, Stoll and Beller (2003) stated that it's not that you won or lost but how you played the

game and the modern Olympic creed expressed by its founder piere-de-coubertic. The most important thing is not winning but taking part as typical expressions of sentiment. The pressures of competition or an obsession with individual achievement as well as the instruction of technology can all work against enjoyment and fairplay by participants. Sportsmanship within any given game, how each competition acts before, and after the competition?. Not only is it important to have good sportsmanship if one wins but also if one loses. For example, in football, sportsmanship is considered like playing/kicking the ball out of play to allow treatment for an injured player on the other side. Reciprocally, the other team is expected to return the ball from the throwing/dropping kick. For a nation to aspire to greatness her youths especially must have conditioned character that will evolve orderliness and self control n the society.

Group dynamics through sports participation for peace and development in the communities

Membership and involvement in groups is a fundamental characteristic of the society. They are bound together in a large number and variety of groups for social reasons or to carry out mare effectively some task. The dramatic influence that groups can have on their member is served. Parker & Sannar (1999) stated that group is a collection or set of individuals who interact with and depend on one other. They allowed the sense of 'we'; and reduce the importance of 'I' in sport team or individuals life. Carroll (1998) defined group dynamics as a collective identity, a sense of shared purpose structured patterns of interaction, structure methods of communication, personal and task interdependence and interpersonal attraction. The sense of shared purpose or objectives readily develops from the strong task oriented nature of sport. Research has shown that some of the most important factors for developing a group out of a collection of individuals are proximity distinctiveness, similarity and the establishment of group goals and rewards. Individuals who are in close proximity, who are physically close to one another, have a greater tendency to bond together. Physical proximity by itself is not always sufficient, but being in close contact and having the opportunity for interaction in combination with distinctiveness, similarity and the establishment of group goals and rewards does hasten group development. In youths sport situations, games scheduling require the team travel together, eaten and working together as beneficial to the development. The important

point is that group members are placed in situations where interaction is inevitable. Another factor is distinctiveness which involves the set of individuals becomes more separate, more distinctive from others; its feelings of oneness and unity also increase. Traditionally, distinctiveness is achieved through team uniforms and mottos by having special imitation rates, providing special privileges or demanding special sacrifices.

Moreover the structured characteristic also is inevitable and essential to group functions effectively. This involves the group roles and norms. The roles are a set of behaviours that are expected from the occupants of specific positions within the group. Mabry and Bernes (1980) cited in Schriesheim (1995) quoted by Stacey (2003) identified two general categories of roles, formal and informal. The formal roles are explicitly set out by the group or organization. The sport team as an organization requires specific individuals to carry out each of these roles. Thus individuals are trained or recruited for these roles, and specific expectations are held for their behaviour. On the other hand, informal roles evolve as a result of the interactions that take place among group members. Research has consistently shown that when individual group members understand their roles (which is referred to as role clarity), accept their roles (role acceptance) and attempt to carry out their roles to the best of their ability (role performance), the groups effectiveness is improved (Stacey, 2003).

Furthermore, role clarity, role acceptance and perceived role other important group processes such as communication, cohesiveness, conformity and goal directed behaviour. The norm reflects the groups' consensus about behaviours that are considered acceptable. The treatment of team managers or trainers by the athletes is an example of task irrelevant norm. According to Jacobs and Campbell (1995) cited in Vanden, Malcolm & Maulders (2006) arbitrary norm can persist for four or five generations after the original members have been removed. Thus, if a sport team develops negative norms, such as abusive behaviour toward officials or other team members, a Laissez-faire attitude toward training a reliance on individual versus team goals, the norms can persist over a number of seasons unless steps are taken to terminate them. Groups are dynamic not static in nature, they exhibit life and vitality interaction activity. The vitality may be reflected in many ways (some positive, others negative). The dynamic nature brings about harmony of members at their times, conflict and tension may predominate or in some instances,

communication may be excellent between leaders and members. This produce commitment to the group's goals and purposes may vary sharply. According to Carroll (1998) stated that, cohesiveness as dynamic process which is reflected in the tendency for a group to stick together and remain united in pursuit of its goal and objectives. The reference to dynamic in this as acknowledgement that the way to individual group members feel about one another and about the group and its goals changes with time and experience. Generally, the longer the groups stay together, the stronger their boundary becomes, thus, assist in conflict or crisis resolved, whereby individual through this shared and protect one other for a common goal. According to Collingwood (1997) states that, when individuals work together in groups, communication, coordination and interaction are essential.

Appraisal of reviewed literature

Sports within the states and Nigeria have been a veritable avenue for national cohesion, peace and unity. It is also a fact that sports has become a pervasive social phenomenon whose influence is felt in all facets of life. The incredible popularity and growth of international sports has an appreciable impact on the sports interest and awareness of Nigerians. Governments and states uses sport both for personal and partisan ends. Thus, local and states participation in sports is universally accepted, thus making sports unequal as a social phenomenon of modern times in dispute solving. Sports in the past have served as bedrock of crisis solving in bringing people, young and old together, searching for common goals of developmental progress and peaceful co-existents in the communities and states. Therefore, this study investigates psycho-social roles of sports as predictors of peace and development among male in-school adolescents of the Niger-Delta communities, Nigeria. The review of related literature centered on concepts of conflict, value of sports, the theory and causes of conflict, sports and society, socialization, cultural value of sports, social control, character building occupation mobility, economic benefits and social mobilization of sport to conflict resolution. It is noteworthy to state that all these variables are very important determining the anticipation of sports influence. The review of related literature highlighted various variables related to the study. Also the researcher reviewed textbooks, journals, articles and other studies, and periodicals that had been carried out in relation to the variables of the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The chapter presents the research methods and procedure used under the following sub-headings:

1. Research design
2. Population
3. Sample and sampling techniques
4. Research instrument
5. Validity of the instrument
6. Field testing of the instrument
7. Reliability of the instrument
8. Procedure for data collection
9. Procedure for data analysis

Research Design

The study utilized descriptive survey research design. This rationale was based on seeking the relationship between variables of interest. Sometimes predictions are made on the basis of the relationships. Moreover, the study tends to find out the relationship between the predictive relations that exist among two or more variables. This supported Kerlinger and Lee (2000); Thomas and Nelson (2001); Adewuyi (2003) opinion that, descriptive survey research design is used to collect information in order to describe an existing phenomenon, to identify problems, to make comparisons and systematic evaluation for future decision making. This enables one to analyze, interpret and state categorically relationships that exist among the variables.

Population

The population used for this study was all male in-school adolescents from the crisis area of the Niger-Delta communities.

Sample and Sampling Techniques

Two thousand respondents was proposed for this study, but based on the afore mentioned limitations, one thousand, seven hundred respondents were accounted for in this study. The multistage sampling technique was used for the study, which involved six stages divided into non-probability and probability sampling techniques. The first stage

involved non-probability sampling technique of purposive sampling technique to select three states out of the nine states which are more volatile/trouble area that make up Niger-Delta communities, which are: Bayelsa, Delta, and Rivers states. In the second stages, this involved used of probability sampling techniques of simple random sampling (one senatorial district from three senatorial of each states, local government area and schools sampled), purposive sampling (select three local government areas from Bayelsa), and the systematic and stratified sampling techniques whereby 10% of the male in-school adolescents were selected using the class register in the chosen schools sampled in the local government area using class and level as stratum to group the respondents into SS1 to SS3. The number of respondents in the schools selected are as follows: Rivers State (Rivers-West), seven hundred (700); in Bayelsa state (Bayelsa-Central), five hundred and ten respondents (510), and Delta state (Delta central) four hundred and ninety respondents (490) from SS1 to SS3, the increase in the number of population sampled in Delta Central per school was due to the large population and few number of schools around the L.G.As, in which the researcher had to increase the percentage to 40% in these L.G.A's more than other areas used for the study. This owns to some areas that the researcher and his assistants have no access because of crisis in the areas/communities. While the systematic sampling technique through the class register was used to select 10 representatives from each school in each of the local government sampled for the focus group discussion, (FGD) making a total of 170 respondents for the study. This is shown below in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Showing the distribution of the senatorial districts and schools selection per local government areas

State	Senatorial Districts	L.G.A's	L.G.As Sampled	Number of Schools Sampled	Schools	Total
Rivers	Rivers-West	8	4	7	GSCS Mbiama Joinkrama Grammar School WACHS, Ahoada GSS Ogbo GSS Akabuka CSS Erema GSS Abua	105 96 120 96 90 96 97
Total						700
Bayelsa	Bayelsa Central	3	3	6	CSS Zarama CSS Opolo GSS Odi GSS Kaiama CSS Imiringi CSS Otueke	90 90 90 90 90 60
Total						510
Delta	Delta Central	6	3	4	Govt. College Ugheli Army Day Sec. Sch. Warri Urhobo College Warri Int. Sec. School Abraka	140 150 101 99
Total						490

Grand Total

17 Schools 1,700

Research Instruments

The instruments used for this study were structured validated questionnaire tagged Psycho-socio Roles of Sports Survey (PSRSS), which includes: Psychological Sports Roles Questionnaire (PSRQ); Social Sports Roles Questionnaire (SSRQ), and Sports Roles for Peace and Development Questionnaire (SRPDQ) with the psychometric properties validated, and also the reliability of the instruments before administered. Thomas and Nelson, (2001) are of the view that questionnaire enables respondents to express his or her feelings that can be measured objectively. Kerlinger and Lee (2000) also recommended questionnaires as a research instrument for survey research studies.

The layout of the questionnaire were in division as sections A, B and C. Section A contain information on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, while Section B and C consist of Psycho-Social Sports Roles Questionnaire (PSSRQ) on the independent variables using a likert-scale format (Strongly Agree, Agree, Strongly Disagree and Disagree) to elicit information from the respondents on sports roles for development and peace. While Appendix B consists of Sports for Peace and Development Questionnaire (SPDQ) with a likert-scale format (Strongly Agree, Agree, Strongly Disagree, and Disagree). Appendix C consists of Focus Group Discussion Questions (FGDQ). The focus group discussion involved ten (10) people who were systematically selected among various schools used for the study. This was conducted in order to gather more information that is related with their participation in sports. Questions that require an explanation rather than Yes or No answers were used.

Validity of the Instruments

To validate the instruments, the structured questionnaire was subjected to face, construct and content validation under experienced lecturers, supervisor and colleagues in the field of Human Kinetics and Health Education, University of Ibadan, also at the Centre for Peace and Conflict Management, their inputs in this regard helped the researcher to ensure a validated instrument for the study. And was also validated through items analysis using the statistical tool of Factor analysis and Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for the reliability. The ultimate aim of any research is to provide relevant and useful information basic to the validity of the questionnaire in asking the right questions. Adewuyi (2003) stated that an instrument has validity when it measures the qualities it is intended to measure. He stated further that an important characteristic of any research is the consistency of the results of its tools of measurement.

Reliability of the Instruments

The researcher administered the questionnaire items to twenty (20) respondents from Akwa-lbow state that are not part of the research area for the study. The data collected was subjected to Cronbach Alpha Coefficient to determine the internal consistency of the instruments, in which the sub-scales variable each yielded between the range of 0.50 to 0.83 for the independent variables (psychological and social variables). While the total of

the psycho-social variables together yielded 0.88 values. The Sports for Peace and Development Questionnaire (SPDQ) yielded 0.76.

Pre-testing of the Instruments

The field testing of the instruments was carried out on participants from one local government area of Akwa Ibom state that was not part of the study area. The field testing conducted was used for the reliability of the instrument of the study. The field testing involved twenty (20) respondents from part of the state that was not part of the study areas, to detect error and correct any ambiguous questions identified by the respondents.

Procedure for Data Collection

The researcher obtained a letter of introduction from the Head of Department of Human Kinetics and Health education, University of Ibadan for the purpose of identification and cooperation from the schools authority selected for the study. Twenty research assistants were employed for distribution of the questionnaires which was collected on the spot.

The researcher first contacted principals of each school in the chosen communities with the letter of identification collected for clarity of purpose in carrying out the research, due to the nature of the environment for the study. The researcher with the twenty research assistants then communicate with each of the class teacher in each school and the class captain given brief information about the study and their sincere cooperation, before the administration of the instruments to them during their break-time, and then the collection was done on the spot.

Procedure for Data Analysis

The completed questionnaire forms were collected, coded and analyzed using both descriptive statistics of frequency counts, percentage and mean, including standard deviation for section A of the questionnaire that deals with the demographic characteristics of the respondents, also the use of bar chart and pie-chart for graphic illustration of some results. While inferential statistics of multiple regression was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 alpha level.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The study was carried out to investigate psycho-social roles of sports as predictors of peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta communities in Nigeria. Data were collected using a structured questionnaire which was in two divisions: Section A, B and C. Section A required information on demographic characteristics of the respondents, while section B and C, and Appendix A and C involved information on the variables under study.

Table 4.1: Showing distribution of respondents by age

Age	Frequency	Percentage
14-17	1302	76.6
18-22	396	23.3
23-26	2	0.1
Total	1700	100.0

Table 4.1 showed the frequency and percentage distribution of respondents by age, 1302 (76.6%) of the respondents were within 14-17 years range, while 396 (23.3%) were within 18-22 years and 2 (0.1%) were within 23-26 years. The result revealed that majority of the male in-school adolescents respondents were in their prime-age bracket of adolescents. Thus, shows that those within these age group categories are susceptible to drug addiction, bad companionship, moral laxity, peer group influence and many other anti-social devices that may elude them at such stages in life.

Fig 4.1: Showing Bar chart of respondents by age.

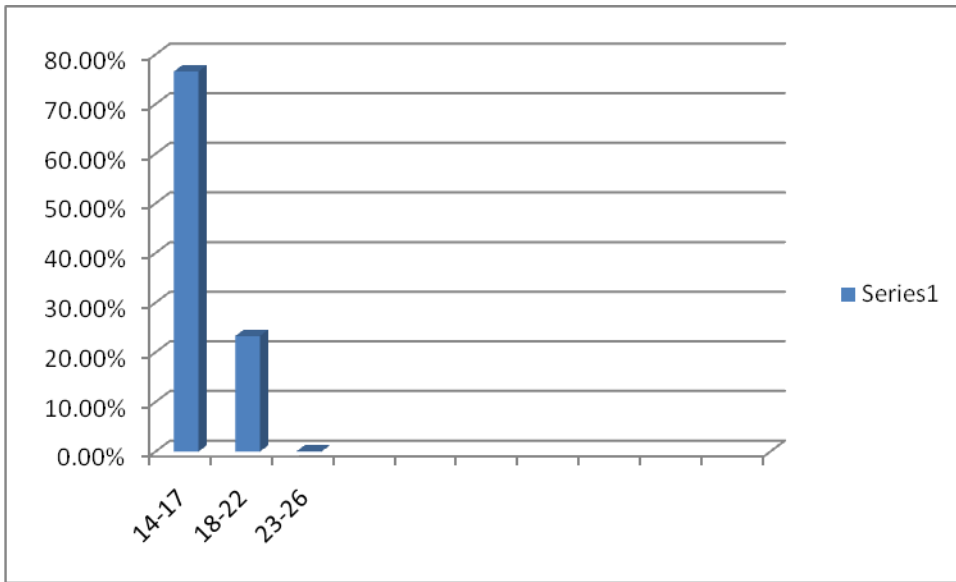


Fig. 4.1 showed that 76.6% of the respondents were within 14-17 years, while 23.3% were within 18-22 years, and 0.1% was within 23-26 years. The result revealed that male in-school adolescents between 14-17years used for this study have highest percentage, showing that they are within the prime-age bracket of adolescents.

Table 4.2: Showing distribution of respondents by birth within the communities

Valid	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	1306	76.8
No	394	28.2
Total	1700	100.0

Table 4.2 above showed the frequency and percentages of respondents by birth. Those given birth to within the communities were more with 1306 (76.8%) than those not given birth to within the communities which are 394 (28.2%). This revealed that majority of the respondents were given birth within the communities. Hence, this showed that, most crisis that occurred have more of those given birth to in the communities as initiators, and actors than those not born within the communities.

Fig 4.2: Showing the Pie chart showing of respondents by birth within the communities.

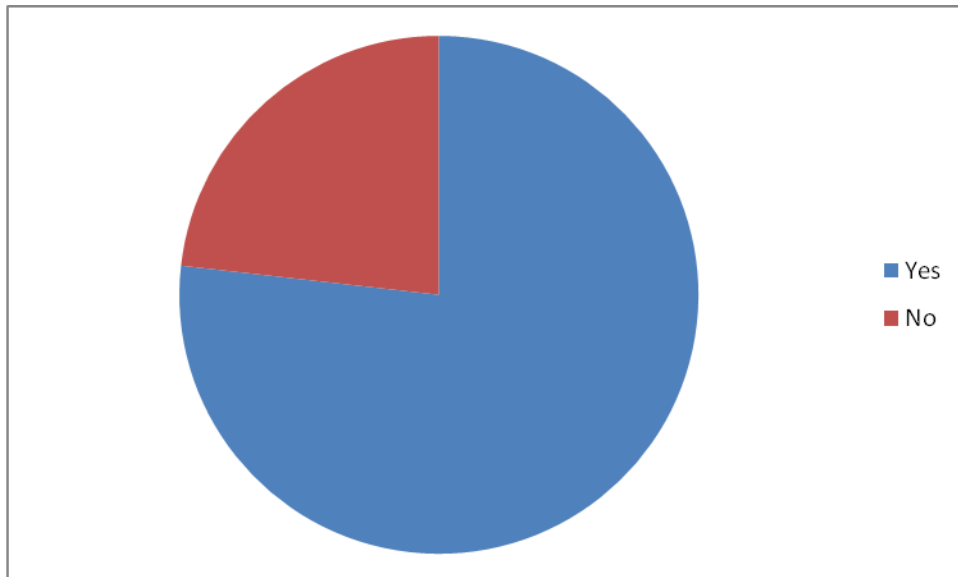


Fig.4.2 showed the pie-chart representation of the respondents by birth within the communities with 76.8% respondents that answered “Yes” more than those with “No” 28.2% that were not given birth to within the communities. This showed that the larger percentages of the respondents are actually born within the communities.

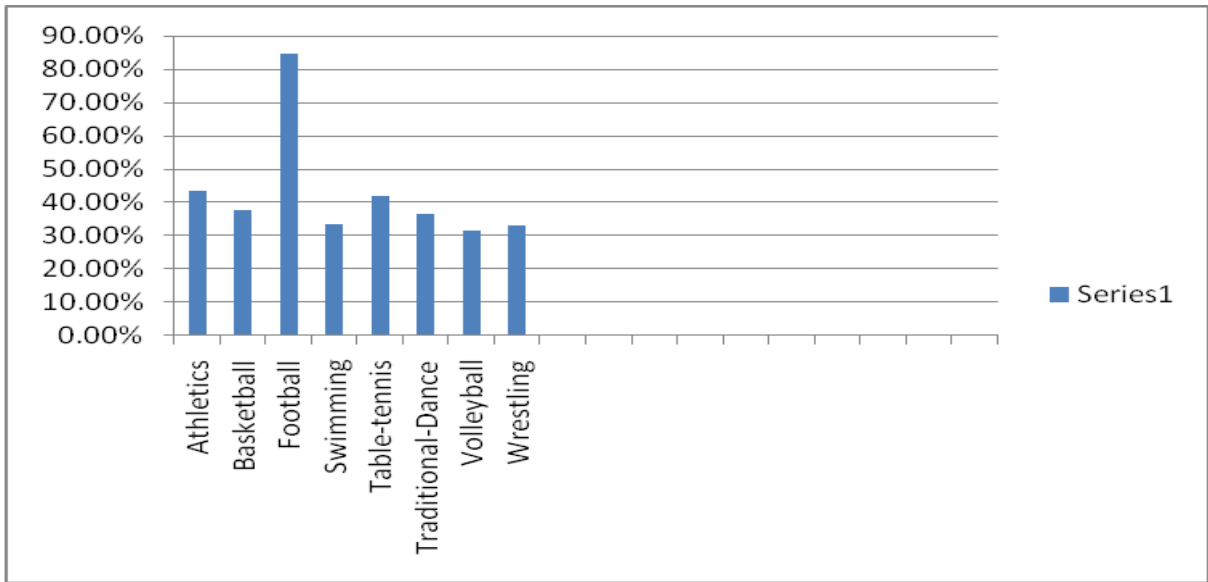
Table 4.3: Showing the distribution of sports played by participants

Sports	Frequency	Percent (%)
Athletics	741	43.6
Basketball	640	37.6
Football	1437	84.5
Swimming	567	33.4
Table-tennis	713	41.9
Traditional-Dance	622	36.6
Volleyball	538	31.6
Traditional Wrestling	560	32.9

Table 4.3 above showed the distribution of sports by respondents on the type of sports played in school which were multiple participation. Football have the highest participants 1437 (84.5%), followed by athletics with 741 (43.6%), table-tennis 713 (41.9%),

basketball 640 (37.6%), traditional-dance 622 (36.6%), Swimming 567 (33.4%), Traditional Wrestling 560 (32.9%) and volleyball 538 (31.6%). This was supported with the focus group discussion in which majority of the participants' used, submitted on sports played in school with football gaining the highest due to easy access of facilities and available playing area within the school, while on traditional wrestling and traditional-dance the participants emphasized that, it is part of their cultural value or heritage, in which they considered this as important for festive competition during traditional occasions. On the overall, the FGDs results revealed that sports are socially rich environment that provides these students with many opportunities to interact with others in ways that have moral important to nurture and practice capacities for role taking, empathy, conflict resolution and various sub-skills related to moral judgment. Further results from the FGDs indicated that the students from the communities in Bayelsa state believed that, these sport roles promote moral reasoning for peace and development more than other students from Rivers and Delta communities. While to an appreciable extent, these psychosocial sport roles have been able to curb youth restiveness more in Bayelsa and Delta communities than Rivers state. This implied that, the programme strategy should also differ by ethnic and communities.

Fig.4.3: Showing the Bar-Chart of sports played by respondents in schools



The bar-chart above showed distribution of respondents in the different types of sports played with Football having the highest 84.5% than others, while volleyball had the lowest participants.

Hypotheses Testing

Ho1: There will be no significant joint effect of independent variables (Psychosocial: socialization, nationalism, social control, culture/ethical value, character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth positive restiveness) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta communities in Nigeria.

Table 4.4: Analysis of Variance showing the joint effect of independent variables on dependent variable.

ANOVA					
Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	2420.924	8	302.616	67.146	.000
Residual	7621.085	1691	9.527		
Total	1004.009	1699			

$R = .491 \quad R^2 = .241 \quad \text{Adj } R^2 = .237$

Table 4.4 showed the relationship between psycho-social variables roles of sports for peace and development. The result showed that there is a significant relationship between

the independent variables (socialization, nationalism, social control, culture/ethical value, character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth positive restiveness) on peace and development ($F_{(8, 1691)} = 67.146$; $p < .05$). Therefore, the hypothesis raised was rejected. The result also indicates that $R = .491$; $R^2 = .241$; adjusted $R^2 = .237$. This revealed that the joint effect variables accounted for about 24% of the variance. This implied that psychosocial variables roles of sports are beneficiary if properly utilized to promote peace and development in crisis area.

Ho2: There will be no significant relative effect of independent variables (Psychosocial: socialization, nationalism, social control, culture/ethical value, character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth positive restiveness) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta communities in Nigeria.

Table 4.5: Showing the result of relative contribution of the independent variables (Psychosocial variables) on dependent variable.

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	B		
(Constant)	5.286	.557		9.498	.000
Socialization via Sport	5.002E-02	.024	.070	2.044	.041
Nationalism through sports	.145	.028	-.186	-5.245	.000
Social control	.266	.023	.333	11.625	.000
Cultural and Ethical value	-.183	.019	.217	9.730	.000
Character Building	.246	.036	.222	-6.878	.000
Occupational Mobility	.361	.040	.236	9.019	.000
Group Dynamics	-4.391E-03	.007	-.014	-.658	.510
Youth positive restiveness	8.870E-02	.018	.117	4.994	.000

The result above shows relative contribution of each of the independent variables on the dependent: Socialization through sport ($\beta = .070$, $p < .05$), Nationalism ($\beta = .186$, $p < .05$), Character building ($\beta = .222$, $p < .05$), Social control ($\beta = .333$, $p < .05$), Occupational mobility ($\beta = .236$, $p < .05$), Group dynamics ($\beta = .041$, $p > .05$), Cultural and Ethical value

($\beta = .087$ $p > .05$) and Youth positive restiveness ($\beta = .117$ $p < .05$) respectively. This showed that socialization, nationalism through sports, culture/ethical value, character building, occupational mobility and youth positive restiveness were all significant, with the exception of group dynamics that was not significant. This implied that the sub-variables if implemented would yield a positive impact in the life of the individual and society, thereby complimenting peaceful co-existence among different tribe and groups in the communities.

Ho3: There will be no significant joint effect of independent variables (Social variables: socialization, nationalism, social control and culture/ethical value) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta communities in Nigeria.

Table 4.6: Analysis of Variance showing the joint effect of Independent variables (Social variables: Socialization via sports, Nationalism through sports, Social Control and Cultural/Ethical value) on the dependent variable.

ANOVA

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1789.386	4	447.346	91.880	.000
Residual	8252.624	1695	4.869		
Total	10042.009	1699			

$R = .422$ $R^2 = .178$, $Adj R^2 = .176$

The table above showed that the joint effect of independent variables (socialization, nationalism, social control, culture/ethical value) for peace and development of male in-school adolescents was significant relationship ($F_{(4, 1695)} = 91.880$, $P < .05$). The null hypothesis is rejected. The result indicates that $R = .422$; $R^2 = .178$; $Adj R^2 = .176$. This showed that the joint effect variables accounted for about 18% of the variance. This implied that the independent variables of social variables has a relationship in promoting peace and development in crisis areas if properly tailored to the advantage of society well-being.

Ho4: There will be no significant relative effect of independent variables (socialization, nationalism, social control and culture/ethical value) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta communities in Nigeria.

Table 4.7: Showing result of relative contribution of the independent variables (Social variables) on sports of peace and development.

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	B		
(Constant)	5.685	.384		14.790	.000
Socialization through Sport	-2.354E-02	.024	-.033	-.988	.323
Nationalism through sports	-.109	.026	-.139	-4.238	.000
Social control	.300	.022	.376	13.858	.000
Cultural and Ethical value	.206	.019	.245	10.853	.000

Table 4.7 above showed the relative contribution of independent variables on the dependent: Socialization through sport ($\beta = -.033$, $p > .05$), Nationalism ($\beta = -.139$, $p < .05$), Social control ($\beta = .376$, $p < .05$) and Cultural and Ethical value ($\beta = .245$, $p < .05$) respectively. The result revealed that nationalism through sports, social control, and cultural/ethical value were all significant, but socialization was not significant. The result showed that nationalism through sports for peace and development has the highest contribution about 26% than the other variables of the variance. The implication of this result revealed that sports can in one way to promote peace and development through nationalism of been patriotic and promoting peaceful co-existence among each other in the society.

Ho5: There will be no significant joint effect of independent variables (Psychological variables: character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth restiveness) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta communities in Nigeria.

Table 4.8: Analysis of Variance showing the joint effect of Independent variables (Psychological variables: Character building, Occupational Mobility, Group Dynamics and Youth Positive Restiveness) on the dependent variable

ANOVA

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1201.591	4	300.398	57.596	.000
Residual	8540.419	1695	5.216		
Total	10042.009	1699			

$R = .346$, $R^2 = .120$, $Adj R^2 = .118$

Table 4.8 above revealed the joint effect of psychological variables (character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth positive restiveness) of peace and development of male in-school adolescents, this showed that it was significant ($F_{(4, 1695)} = 57.596$; $P < .05$). The null hypothesis is rejected. The result also indicates that $R = .346$; $R^2 = .120$; $Adj R^2 = .118$). This showed that the joint effect variables accounted for about 12% of the variance. This implied that sports through psychological variables have a way of improving, building, molding and changing behavior to a better individual within the society promoting good character and brotherly care for each order in the society for peace and development.

Ho6. There will be no significant relative effect of independent variables (Character building, occupational mobility, group dynamics and youth restiveness) on peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta communities in Nigeria.

Table 4.9: Showing the result of relative contribution of the independent variables (Psychological variables) on sports of peace and development.

Variables	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	B		
(Constant)	7.362	.551		13.365	.000
Character Building	-.133	.029	-.121	-4.608	.000
Occupational Mobility	.458	.040	.299	11.469	.000
Group Dynamics	-2.336E-03	.007	-.007	-.326	.745
Youth positive restiveness	.145	.018	.192	8.158	.000

Table 4.9 above showed the relative contribution of the psychological variables on the dependent variable: Character building ($\beta = -.121$, $p < .05$), Occupational mobility ($\beta = .229$, $p < .05$), Group dynamics ($\beta = .745$, $p > .05$), and Youth positive restiveness ($\beta = .192$, $p < .05$) respectively. The result from the table above revealed that character building, occupational mobility and youth positive restiveness were significantly, while group dynamics was not significant. The result indicates that occupational mobility variable accounted for about 30% of the variance. This implied that sports played a major role in the economy of the society and nation at large, by generating employment for the

individuals' and providing an avenue for income generation for the development of the society.

Discussion of Findings

Sports as a function of peace and development have a very big impact on the lives of people and the society in general. Its strong emotional power is so dynamic that can easily change millions of peoples' ideas in a second. The result of hypothesis on joint effect of the independent variables (psychosocial variables) on the dependent variables revealed a significant relationship. This agreed with International Working Group for Sports and Development assertion (2008) pointing to the Derby Bosnia-Herzegovina community association and the Zimbabwean Association Football team both provides opportunities for members of their national communities to participate in regular team sports. So doing, built stronger bonds within their own communities with greater opportunity for mutual social support. Stakeholders in both programmes indicated that, bonding had overcome some of the ethnic, political, and religious divides which were endemic in their country of origin. This also consistent with the national Republic of Tanzania's Sports Development Department report that has been particularly successful in using sports to address conflict among Tanzania's refugee population (International Working Group for Sport and Development, 2008).

The findings psychosocial variables also agreed with researchers (Obasanjo, 1999; Onifade, 2001; Lumpkin, Stoll & Beller, 2003; Vandem, Malcolm & Meulders, 2006) findings that, sports is a unifying factors, element of socialization process contributing to mental and social development, ways of integration of communities and positive development of character in the society. While, the hypothesis on the contribution of the sub-variables showed a positive contribution of the variables with the exception of the group dynamics that did not show significant relationship. The results did not consent with Amara's (2002) assertion on sports participation as potential to foster individual empathy, tolerance, cooperation, social skills and team work.

The results on nationalism through sports showed that, significant relationship exists. This support the UN Inter agency Task Force on Sports for Development and Peace which identified that, well designed sports based initiatives that can incorporate the best values of sport can be powerful, practical and cost effective tools to achieve

development and peace objectives (United Nations. 2003). The report of the Magglingen Declaration highlights the link between sport and physical, mental and social development expressed in the field of sports and peace, sport and health and sports and education (Magglingen, 2005). This also agreed with the Brazzaville Declaration (2007) in El Salvador of the Scotiabank Salud Escolar that, Integral programme used sports, play and physical activities to teach life skills. This programme is in particular for crisis prevention and non-violent conflict resolution for primary and secondary school children have equipped them to make healthy choices in their lives.

The findings on social variables of sports roles showed significant relationship between peace and development. This agreed with Vandem, Malcolm and Meulders (2006) findings that socialization process result in adapting to the norms values, practices and attitudes in the society through sports. While the findings on the sub-variables showed significant relationship exist with the exception of socialization through sports that was not significant. The finding agrees with a number of International frameworks as reported on the relationship between sports and peace. This evidently supports the Brazzaville Declaration (2007) that, sports offers particular benefits to the society that uses it to their advantage. Accordingly, Australian sports carnivals organised by local indigenous communities have been described as pivotal events for social and traditional cohesion. This is largely because they were organised and managed by indigenous communities themselves.

This also agrees with Coalter, Allison, & Taylor, (2000) that, the role of sports in diverting young people from criminal activities or rehabilitating them and reducing the amount of crime in local areas are most effective when combined with programmes addressing wider social development. Hence, sports are not only a physical activity, but also an area where people interact socially (Keim, 2003). This also agrees with the European Commission white paper on sports which articulate that, sports makes an important contribution to the European Union economic, social cohesion and more integrated societies (The European Commission White Paper on Sports, 2009). The commission believes that sports promotes a great sense of belonging and participation and is an important tool for the integration of immigrants. Sports acts as a positive vehicle for addressing issues of social inclusion for asylum seekers and refugees largely

in the United Kingdom because of its capacity to bring people together from different cultural backgrounds (Amara, 2002). Projects involved mixing refugee children from different groups in supervised sport and play activities, encouraging them to form friendships across ethnic and cultural boundaries and building in conflict prevention messages and skill building.

The result on roles of sports through psychological variables revealed that there was significant relationship. Thus, this agreed with Lumpkin, Stoll and Beller (2003) assertion that sports roles through the psychological influence has a big impact on the lives of people which are so dynamic that can easily change million of people ideas/perception in a broader ways. The findings on the sub-variables showed that there was significant relative contribution on character building, occupational mobility and youth positive restiveness. This consistent with Coalter (2005) that, the roles of sports in building and facilitating social and community inclusion and active citizenship in peace development. This body of literature, as interpreted and reported by him, links sport to Putnam (2000) notion of social capital. This agrees that, communities with good social capital have strong community networks, a good sense of local identity and solidarity as well as high levels of trust and support among members. With this in mind, there is evidence to suggest that, developing sports in the community may not only contribute to developing communities through sports (Ogi, 2004; Coalter, 2005), but also including non-traditional approaches taken if such results are to be realized.

The result on the youth positive restiveness through sports revealed agrees with Cameron and MacDougall (2006) quoting the Australian Institute of Criminology report that, the use of sports for youth crime prevention show that sports and physical activity can combine with other interventions to reduce crime in particular groups and communities. The focus group discussion (FGD) was valuable to this study, primarily because they provided an understanding of the male in-school adolescents of the Niger-Delta communities' participation sports promoting peace and development. The focus groups discussion revealed that poor development due to lack of sports facilities within the communities' result frequently to crises and conflicts within the communities. This showed that there is a similar dichotomy in all groups. The social variables were seeing as the most credible source about psycho-social roles of sports for peace and development among youth participating in general. This supported the result of

hypotheses on social and psychological variables of sports roles, this consistent with findings of other researchers' earlier mention. Their participation and attitudes presented major barriers to crisis continuation in the Niger-Delta. However, the factors causing these problems differed between ethnics groups and the communities.

The overall FGDs results revealed that sports are socially rich environment that provides students with many opportunities to interact with one another in ways that have moral values to nurture and practice capacities for role taking, empathy, conflict resolution and various sub-skills related to moral judgment. Moreover, allowed positive character building and curbing youth restiveness in the society. The FGDs results further, indicated that the students from the communities in Bayelsa believed that these sport roles promote moral reasoning for peace and development more than other students from Rivers and Delta communities. While to an appreciable extent the psycho-social sports roles has been able to curb youth restiveness more in Bayelsa and Delta communities than Rivers state. This supported the hypothesis of psychological variables contribution results on character building and youth positive restiveness. This implied that, the programme strategy should also differ by ethnic/community.

The following were also gathered from the focus group discussion:

Firstly, most of the people tend to participate in sports because they like the sports and accomplishing their friends to the venue. While, some of them participated in sports because they want to express their feelings. Very few of them expressed that they participated to promote their own band or their friend's band. This supported the roles of sports through social variables. Secondly, majority of the people were not affected by the high cost to get sports materials or equipment. The cost affected only few of them. Moreover, most of them choose the sports because they wanted to express their feelings. Majority of the people choose the popular sports. Finally, majority of the respondents revealed that they were not affected by advertising for their decision. Only few of them got affected. The report also found that, male in-school adolescents and youths participated in sports in the Niger-Delta, not only as athletes but also as volunteers and officials. This mean that, male in-school adolescents and youths are experiencing and learning the values of citizenship and leadership as they take on more responsibly position for their sporting experiences and for the future administration of sports in their communities (Douglas, 2005). Coakley

(2002) and Donnelly & Coakley (2002) have also carried out broadly based reviews of research evidences regarding the potential of sports programmes to contribute to child and youth development and the social inclusion of children and youths. Based on this view of a wide range of research regarding youths development, they concluded that, in exemplary programmes, participants should feel physically safe, personally valued, socially connected, morally and economically supported, personally and politically empowered as well as hopeful about the future. Thus, Coakley and Donnelly (2004) pointed out that, where such programmes are not available, youth gangs may actually meet some of these needs.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The importance of peace promotion through sports has not only been emphasized by the summit of the United Nation Agencies in its meeting as they cited the importance of sports and physical activities in promoting world public health and peace, but also research in various ways and means have provided support to the acclaimed importance of sports' roles to peace and development, hence, the various values of sports for peace and development. Sports and physical activities have the capacity to touch the lives of all people, regardless of gender, age, language, economic as well as social strata, geographic location, or cultural differences. When integrated into the broader framework of development goals, sports constitutes an additional vehicle, mechanism or tool for advancing sustainable development.

Sports in the states and Nigeria have been a veritable avenue for national cohesion, peace and unity. It is also a fact that, sports has become a social phenomenon, whose influence is felt in all facets of life. The incredible popularity and growth of international sports has had an appreciable impact on sports interest and awareness of Nigerians. Various Governments and states use sports both for personal and partisan end. Local and state participation in sports is universally accepted, thus making sports unequal as a social phenomenon of modern times in conflict situations.

Sports have served as the bedrock of crisis solving, by bringing people both young and old together searching for common goals of developmental progress and peaceful co-existents in the society. Thus, the study investigated on psycho-social roles of sports as predictors of peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta communities in Nigeria. The review of related literature centered on concepts of conflict, value of sports, the theory and causes of conflict, sports and society, socialization, cultural value of sports, social control, character building, occupational mobility and social mobilization of sports to peace and development in the Niger-Delta communities.

It is noteworthy to state that, all these variables are very important for determining the anticipation of sports influence in Nigeria.

Conclusion

Sports are certainly a significant tool in order to achieve MDGs as well as tackle social issues in numerous contexts. However, it is indispensable to consider the complexity of sports and implementation in diverse cultural and social contexts while taking into account the negative aspects of sports. The universal application of sports for peace is not practical; however, the sports concept of peace and development should be acknowledged more in the local and international community, since it has not been recognized enough and there is the need for a framework which addresses the general principles. Sports functions must therefore develop the fundamental elements of sports promotions geared towards the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals which is one among U.N. endeavours to face the challenges of the Millennium. This stems from the perception that, sports should serve as a door to conflicts transformation between states, regions, societies and families, ethnics and nations. Moreover, sports should serve as a door to development promotions, tourism attraction and holistic fitness. Therefore, the needs for psycho-social roles of sports as a means in the promotion of peace and development are imperative to crisis solving in the society and the world at large.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, it was established that, time is ripe to develop a coherent and systematic strategy for increasing the use of sports within our communities and states as a way for crisis solving. Hence, the need to come up with a common framework that draws together sports-related initiatives and actors across the different sectors. Therefore, the following recommendations were made:

1. The states should endeavour to include sports and physical activities in their development policy and to promote initiatives to increase participation and access to sports, with particular emphasis on young people.
2. The Federal government should give priority to the provision of resources for the establishment of sports facilities which should include at the community level to bridge social barriers and foster national peace and development.
3. State and Federal government should give priority to sports as a tool for development and peace, taking into account the economic, social, cultural, educational, political and environmental dimensions.

4. The sports portfolio in government should be accorded high standing in keeping with it's potential to contribute to national peace and development.
5. Introducing sports education as a subject in the primary school curriculum in the crisis regions/countries would be a valuable tool to enhance the peace process for the next generation.
6. Socialisation through sports, ethical value, character building and social control variables that could strengthen positive behaviour of students to enhance peace and development should be pursued in all ramifications.
7. Sports should be implemented in a way that is equity-driven and culturally relevant.
8. Sports programmes must be based upon the sports for all models, ensuring that all groups are given the opportunity to participate, particularly those who gain additional benefits such as women, persons with disabilities and young people.
9. Sports programmes must be designed explicitly to draw out the core skills and values that can be learned through sports.

Contributions to Knowledge/ Society

The study contributes to a large extent that sports can help to facilitate personal and social development in young people, thus would encourage male in-school adolescents to actively participate in sports. It is believed that participating in sports would promote education values that make for the development of character and right social relations among youths in the communities. Finally, it would contribute to increase investment in sports facilities, thereby helping the society and environment in terms of development of sports infrastructure facilities for the adolescents and adults in the communities. Furthermore, it would generate income and create employment opportunities in the society and communities especially for the youth.

Further Research study

Research study should be carried out on the precise circumstances under which sports may be served as positive outcomes for gender relations, disabilities inclusion, youth development, mental health, peace and development resolution in the community and other areas of interest.

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APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE

ON

PSYCHOSOCIAL ROLES OF SPORTS OF PEACE AND DEVELOPMENT
INVENTORY (PSRSDPI)

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is designed to carry out a survey on “Sports roles as predictors of peace and development among male in-school adolescents in the Niger-Delta Communities, Nigeria. You are not expected to write your name on the questionnaire; hence your honest answers to these questions will be highly appreciated and shall be used strictly for research purpose only.

Thank you for your anticipated co-operation.

Yours truly

B.G. Akuru

SECTION A

INSTRUCTION: Please tick (✓) the appropriate answer where applicable.

1. Sex: Male() 2. Marital status: i single () ii. Married ()
3. Class: i. SS1 () ii SS2 () iii. SS3 ()
4. Age: i. 14-17 () ii. 18-22 () iii. 23-26
5. Religion: i. Christianity () ii. Islam () iii. Tradition () iv. Others
6. Nationality: Nigerian () Others
7. Are you born in your State? i. Yes () ii. No ()
8. Your local government of origin
9. Do you participate in sports? i. Yes () ii. No ()
10. Tick any of these sports played in the school.
 - i. Soccer/Football ()
 - ii. Volleyball ()
 - iii. Handball ()

- iv. Cricket ()
- v. Swimming ()
- vi. Basketball ()
- vii. Traditional Wrestling ()
- viii. Athletic (Track and Field) ()
- ix. Table Tennis ()
- x. Gymnastic ()
- xi. Traditional dance ()

SECTION B

PSYCHO-SOCIAL SPORTS ROLES QUESTIONNAIRE (PSSRQ)

INSTRUCTION: Please tick (√) the appropriate answer where applicable.

S/N	Section A	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE
1.	Sports participation enables socialization with member(s) in the society/environment				
2.	Participation in sports allows conforming with the norms of the society to good behaviorual patterns among the youths.				
3.	Sports participation changes the youth's views in the society to better beings.				
4.	Socialization in sports ensures equalization with peer in the society				
5.	Sports participation engage in tends to bringing re-union of friends and family in the society.				
	Section B				
6.	Sports participation develops good health through physical fitness.				
7.	Sports participation provides ability to fulfill needs for recreational competition and career of life.				

8.	Sports participation act as a preventive medicine for managing life.				
9.	Sports participation allows the cultural values of the people to be expressed freely.				
10.	Sports participation maintains and build individual in cultural value of the community.				
	Section C				
	Sports participation allows the understanding of society rules and regulations through sports.				
	Sports participation helps to realize that some behaviours are wrong and unacceptable in the society.				
	Sports participation set standard for sanction or rewards and punishment to control behaviour.				
	Sports participation allows acquisition and acceptance of behaviour or mannerism and principles of life.				
	Sports participation internalizes individual's motivation to do things acceptable.				
	Section D				
	Sports participation creates employment for youths and adults in the society.				
	Participation in sports creates financial support for unemployed youths.				
	Sports participation act as a good and relevant avenue for youth's benefits of subsidy from the government.				
	Sports participation encourages entrepreneurship establishment in the society for youths gain.				

	Section E				
	Sports participation is an avenue to foster personal social attitudes and values behaviours.				
	Sports participation allows exhibition of good behaviour in specific situation in the culture.				
	Sports participation encourages tolerance with individuals' and groups within the society.				
	Sports participation helps to exercise courage, perseverance and self-discipline in the society.				
	Sports participation enables one's ability to express good human self-expression with members in the community/society.				
	Section F				
	Sports participation creates an environment in which individual move from one place to another.				
	Having faith in innovative ability of one's subordinates through sports.				
27.	Ability to involve in sports emancipation in other environment/ society as shield.				
28.	Ability to access opportunities aiding upward (promotion) mobility.				

	Section G				
29.	Ability to mobilize youth participation in sports for meaningful engagement.				
30.	Sport participation allows youth's to strive for positive well being.				
31.	Sport participation allows youths to understand their meaningfulness in society to growth and development.				
32.	Encourages exchange of good communication and interaction with other people in the society.				

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APPENDIX B

Sports for Peace and Development Questionnaire (SPDQ)

Instruction: Please tick (√) the appropriate answer where applicable.

The understanding of sports participation:

S/N	ITEMS	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE
1.	Promote and support the integration and mainstreaming of sports for development and peace programmes and policies				
2.	Promote innovation funding mechanisms and multi-stakeholders arrangements at all levels, on a voluntary basis: engagement of sport organizations, civil society, athletes and the private sector.				
3.	Promote and facilitate common evaluation and monitoring tools indicators and benchmarks based on commonly agreed standards.				
4.	Encourages communities to designate focal points for sports for development and peace within the society.				
5.	Provide institutional structures appropriates quality standards; competencies and promote academic				

	expertise in the field to enable ongoing, capacity-building and education of physical education teachers, coaches and communities leaders in sports for development and peace programmes.				
6.	Act as a vehicle to foster development and strengthen education for young people within the society.				
7.	Preventing disease and promote health, foster the inclusion and well-being of persons with disability and facilitating social inclusions, conflict prevention and peace building in the society.				
8.	Encourages the use of mass sports events to promote and support sports for developing and peace initiatives in the communities of conflict.				
9.	Enact relationship between participant's ethnical values.				
10.	Brings about understanding of co-existence as significant for the developing and peace resolution				

	within the society.				
11.	Promotes the development of sport locally and globally for peace keeping resolution.				
12.	Makes the task of bridging cultural or ethnic divides easy.				
13.	Identify sports as potential catalyst for economic development and peace promotion easy.				
14.	Teaches core values such as cooperation and respect in the society.				
15.	Provides employment and contribute to local development.				

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APPENDIX C

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

The following questions were asked during the focus group discussion:

1. Why do you participate in sports? Give reason (s).
2. How do you choose your sports you participate in?
3. Does high cost of purchasing equipment/material affect your participation?
4. How did you see your participation to your psychological and social relation in your community/society?
5. How did you see your participation to your psychological and social relation to friends?
6. Do you think the roles of sports (psychologically and socially) help for development and peace in your society/community?
7. What do you think about sports contribution to your society/community?