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Master of Arts in Sustainable Urban Governance and Peace

Curriculum Development

Ika Lino

Sustainable Urban Peace

July 2012

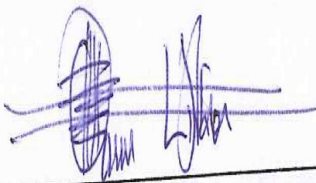
Abstract

The twenty first century has seen the urban population exceed fifty percent, and it is expected to increase as the world is becoming more urban. In this age of rapid globalization and urbanization occurring at a faster rate than the capacity and rate of urban growth of many countries, more so in developing countries, a lot of conflict potential has been exerted on the existing urban social, political, environmental, and economic structures that decrease basic services to citizens, thus thwarting peaceful development. This curriculum explores from an international, regional, and national context, specifically Uganda, the nature of urbanization as a matrix of environmental security, risk and resilience, social problems, crime and violence, human security and urban safety, planning and urban research, given that urban/cities command an increasingly dominant role in the global economy. Using a transformative educational approach and pedagogy in the exploration and delivery of the above urban issues, it is expected to provide a learning experience to both participants and instructor(s) and that participants develop the knowledge and skills to critical analyze and solve urban issues through do no harm and peaceful development oriented approaches for better inclusive and sustainable urban living. This curriculum, with emphasis on human development in urban areas, effectively fits in Uganda Martyrs University's Department of Good Governance and Peace's vision and mission.

**This research report is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master Sustainable Urban Governance and Peace.**

Declaration of Academic Honesty

I hereby declare that this research report is entirely my own work and that it has not been submitted as an exercise for a degree at any university.

Signed 

Ika Lino

Place: University for Peace, San José, Costa Rica

Date 25TH JUNE, 2012

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Full name of author: Ika Lino

Full name of curriculum: Sustainable Urban Peace

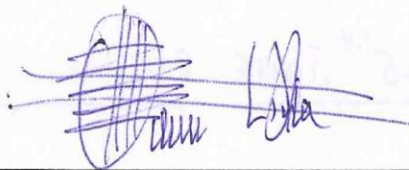
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My first utmost pleasure goes to the Almighty God for His continued and everlasting protection, wisdom and enlightenment showered upon me in my entire life, more so giving me the opportunity to pursue this masters programme, which subsequently led to the development of this curriculum. However, His protection during the demanding process of this curriculum is not forgotten.

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Lastly and more importantly, my family; you were in prayers for me. Thanks a lot for your trust and for believing in me; this is a dedication to you for your continuous support, trust and prayers when I was away from you. Daddy, Mummy, Brothers, Sisters, Nephews, Nieces and all others, God Bless you all!

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

CBD	Central Business District
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DFID	Department for International Development
EEA	European Environmental Agency
FUR	Functional Urban Region
GDP	Gross Domestic Products
GNP	Gross National Products
GTZ	German Technical Cooperation
HCCAS	Headline Climate Change Adaptation Strategy
HR	Human Rights
HS	Human Security
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
LGA	Local Government Act
LG	Local Government
MCPP	Municipal Climate Protection Programme
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MLHUD	Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development
MWHC	Ministry of Works, Housing and Communication

MWLE	Ministry of Water, Lands and Environment
NDP	National Development Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organizations
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
SER	State of Environmental Report
SWOT	Strength Weakness Opportunity and Threats
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Programme
UNFCCC	Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNHABITAT	United Nations Human Settlement Program

CHAPTER ONE

ACADEMIC CHAPTER

Introduction

Today, the liberal and neo liberal view of development has been significant and dominant approach to building peace, albeit other peace perspectives are also of significance to creating peaceful environment for development. Neoliberalism has not delivered on its promises to stimulate economic growth and poverty reduction through the market. However, these views have come under intense pressure in the 21st century especially under disguise of delivering the prospects amidst the rapid urbanizing world.

Urbanization has become a research concern amongst scholars in this and the last half of the past century following the externalities it owes the majority of the population amidst the liberal and neo liberal approach to create development and peace. On one hand, one factor may be attributed to failure of the liberalists' view in that globalization, the liberalization of international markets and the suppression of borders (Brennan-Galvin, 2002), privatization of the economy has added to the whole discourse of externalities. These included pressures for trade liberalization, the shift of the international monetary system from fixed to floating currencies, the explosion of international capital mobility and integration of global financial markets, the expansion of multinational corporations, the growth of transnational production chains and network forms of business organization, vast technological changes especially in information and communications technologies, and the like. They have become substantial factors driving the urbanization process today.

On the other hand it may be attributed to other factors, according to Cohen (2006), apart from technology and politics, rapid population change, high fertility rate and loss of institutional control over urban settlement and planning (Nchito, 2007) are other important factors characterizing the urbanization process.

Currently, the world population is projected to increase by 2.5 billion passing from 6.7 billion to 9.2 billion between 2007 and 2050 (United Nations, 2008), while having a large percentage living in the urban areas. This will invariably increase the population of urban areas of the world from 3.3 billion

in 2007 to 6.4 billion in 2050 (United Nations, 2008). It is thereby inferred that the world urbanization is growing faster than the total population of the world (United Nations, 2004).

It is stated that 90% of the entire global population growth, between 2000 and 2025 1.7 billion people, will take place in the urban areas of developing economies (Brockerhoff, 2000; Lundqvist, Appasamy & Nellyat, 2003).

The rapid process of urbanization poses both massive opportunities and challenges to urban development and human security, thus calling for urgent locally effective forms of institutional structures and policy frameworks to encounter the challenges. As Jenks and Burgess (2000, p.1) point out, to achieve sustainable urban forms, our efforts should be underpinned by a policy background that commits to global sustainability goals, while leaving room for local formation and implementation of solutions (Williams et al., 2000).

Additionally, well managed urban structure yield substantial benefits to urban dwellers. If well managed, cities offer important opportunities for economic and social development (Cohen, 2006). Cities have always been focal points for economic growth, innovation, and employment. Cohen (2006, p.64) noted that:

High population density may also be good for minimizing the effect of man on local ecosystems...Cities are also centers of modern living, where female labor force participation is greatest and where indicators of general health and wellbeing, literacy, women's status, and social mobility are typically highest. Finally, cities are also important social and cultural centers that house museums, art galleries, film industries, theaters, fashion houses, and other important cultural centers and despite the high rates of urban poverty that are found in many cities, urban residents, on average, enjoy better access to education and health care, as well as other basic public services such as electricity, water, and sanitation than people in rural areas.

Nevertheless, as cities grow, managing them becomes increasingly complex (Cohen, 2006). Of particular concern are the risks to the immediate and surrounding environment, to natural resources, to health conditions, to social cohesion, and to individual rights. For many observers, however, the greatest concern is surely the massive increase in the numbers of the urban poor.

Ultimately, this poses great challenge to peace in urban areas, apart from the risks mentioned above,

especially in terms of class difference, inequitable distribution of wealth -in hands of a few-, struggle for space and place herein referred to as compromised social peace (Ibeanu, 2006; Best, 2006) and structural violence (Galtung, 1990) are inevitable. Compounding these problems, the neoliberal free market and trade phenomenon has broadened and continues to create greater class difference.

Therefore urbanization and city growth are caused by a number of different factors and these rapid changes in production technologies and in trade and consumption patterns will lead to changes in urban spatial structures that, notwithstanding their nature, need to be addressed (The Habitat Agenda, 2010). Thence, multidisciplinary approach that look beyond providing the solution to looking out the structures that promote the externalities arising from urbanization and take the opportunities to counter act the externalities has been one of the key approaches because of its broadness of involving varied stakeholders such as public and private institutions, Nongovernmental and community based organizations, private sector etc.

Regionally, the speed and sheer scale of the urban transformation of the developing world presents formidable challenge to urban management. Available data suggest that in a large number of the world's poorest countries, the proportion of urban poor is increasing faster than the overall rate of urban population growth (UNHABITAT, 2004). And more so this will exacerbate if not address given that, "...up to half the populations of largest cities of developing world are in unplanned and often illegal squatter colonies" (Walter, 1998 as cited in Sanderson, 2000, p.93).

In Latin America, around 75 per cent of the population now lives in towns and cities. In contrast, Caribbean countries remain largely rural with rather scattered urban centers. The main challenge in Latin America is that economic development; infrastructure and services have not matched the high rate of urbanization (Sanderson, 2000). Some areas thus still experience emigration, inequality and insecurity. The protection of the natural environment and climate change readiness is a new challenge for authorities and city mayors.

Sanderson (2000, p.93) paradoxically noted, "Those born into poverty in urban areas and for newly arriving poor migrants from the countryside, cities are dangerous places". The need to be part of the city for opportunistic gains compounded by the socio economic differences means many poor urban dwellers live as squatters or on the risky and vulnerable places such as the worst quality land on the

edges of ravines, on flood-prone embankments, on slopes liable to mudslide or collapse, in densely packed areas where fires easily start, on roundabouts at busy intersections with the high (Sanderson, 2000). The Red Cross describes such unwanted demarcation as the “social geography” of many towns (Walter, 1998) and cities which “...reflects the vulnerability of different zones to natural hazards-often with disastrous consequences for the poor” (Sanderson, 2000, p.94).

This UN-HABITAT African report warns that the continent’s urban population stands to increase threefold over the next 40 years with most of that growth is to take place in slums. This is evident in Kampala, the capital of Uganda discussed in the later paragraphs. Africa is urbanizing faster than any other continent. In 2009, Africa’s total population exceeded one billion, of which some 40 per cent lived in urban areas. This urban population will grow to one billion in 2040, and to 1.23 billion in 2050, by that time 60 per cent of all Africans will be living in cities, according to the second edition of the biennial report.

To meet this daunting demographic challenge, the report (The state of African Cities, 2010) calls for “a people-centered perspective” to substitute for the trend that has prevailed so far -- whereby urbanization and cities are often considered more in terms of their physical attributes than as living environments for their residents. The State of African Cities (2010) explicitly provided that a people-centered perspective highlights the need for more appropriate, realistic planning and regulations that are affordable to the urban poor and facilitate, rather than restrict, sustainable livelihoods.

Thus as noted by Habitat (2011, p.15), there is need to:

Supporting programmes that increase the effectiveness and transparent utilization of public and private resources, reduce wasteful and untargeted expenditure and increase access to housing and services for all people, particularly those living in poverty.

This is crucial and means that, all directly and indirectly involved should be part of the response. Uganda is one of the developing countries, and is not excluded when we talk about urbanization, just like other countries in Africa. The local Government Act 2002 gazetted certain areas as urban and made Kampala the only city and other urban centers as municipalities or town councils, making a total of 75 urban areas irrespective of the population concentration. All district headquarters are urban areas by law because they are located in town councils and all town councils are urban areas. It is important to note that there are many centers with urban pattern that are not gazetted.

This seems likely to be problematic in the context of intervention, since it's not sure what constitutes urban, and the definition is changing in Uganda. For instance, the 2002 Census defined urban areas as gazetted cities, municipalities and town councils as in the Local Government Act 2000. On the other hand, earlier censuses included ungazetted trading centers with more than 1,000 people as part of the urban population (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2005[UBOS]). Yet, the act empowers the Minister for Local Government to declare an area urban when and if it satisfies the following criteria: minimum population size of 25,000 for a town, 100,000 for a municipality, and 500,000 for a city, it has a master plan for land use, it has its own offices, available water sources are available, is able to meet the costs of providing services and if an area is declared a district headquarter. Although, according to the State of Environmental Report (2007 [SER]), Uganda has slow urban urbanization growth rate, but taking proceeding measures is crucial to achieve sustainable urban peace. One important approach to this is to train the needed personnel in the field of urban and peace. That is proactive intervention, and this is achieved through the higher learning institutions, Uganda Martyrs University inclusive.

The introduction of this course at Uganda Martyrs University comes at the time when Uganda is currently one of the least urbanized countries in Africa (17 per cent), but with more than 50 per cent of national output produced in urban areas, cities and towns in Uganda are growing at the high rate of 5.2 per cent a year, thus urban population will likely have tripled by 2025, according to current trends, and some 60 per cent of Uganda's urban residents (Kampala city) live in slums (Cities Alliance, 2009). Therefore, the introduction of this course will provide an opportunity to build capacity of personnel needed in the rapid growing urban areas for effective interventions.

Looking at the situation in Uganda, no much urban strategy has been put in place for the management of urban development as evidences the recent developments especially during the June 2006 National Budget presentation, when the Government of Uganda announced the restructuring of Ministries effective FY 2006/07. This led to the creation of the Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MLHUD), integrating departments and functions from the then Ministry of Water, Lands and Environment (MWLE) and (former) Ministry of Works, Housing and Communication (MWHC). The Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development (MLHUD) consists of three sub sectors namely: Lands, Housing and Urban Development. The Ministry is responsible for providing policy direction, national standards and coordination *inter alia*, on all

matters concerning Lands, Housing and Urban development and thus, was mandated to develop the national policy (in process).

Most towns are unplanned (UNEP, 1989) and yet the growth continues to escalate since the colonial times (Mukwaya, 2004, p.6):

Kampala Township was created in 1902. African residence was restricted to an area outside the township on land that was under mailo tenure. The last boundaries were demarcated in 1968. The development of the land outside the 1902 township was left to the owners of the land. This had adverse effects on the urban planning of Kampala Buildings face different directions. There is great mixture of use, with great separation of residential from commercial and industrial uses. Most of the buildings are temporary or semi-permanent and many of the households live in overcrowded conditions.

Most of the urban growth in various places has exhibited the opportunities and negative externalities as noted earlier on; however, the externalities seem to outweigh the advantages given the policy and structural changes in Uganda receded by neoliberalism.

The increased rate of urbanization without proper planning has posed a challenge for government to ensure the provision of adequate housing, water and other public services to many low income urban dwellers. The level and quality of services does not proportionately match the needs of the population in many urban areas in the country (Lwasa, MWLE, 2002 & S.E.R, 2007), yet, the bulk of the labour is untrained, unskilled, semi-skilled and therefore unemployed and the few who are employed earn low wages/salaries and cannot avail a ready market for the goods and services (Nyakaana, Sengendo & Lwasa, 2007).

Compounding these issues, most of the settlements in Ugandan towns have sprung up without proper urban planning and development requirements. Consequently, the settlements are recognized by city authorities as illegal, and not conforming to regulations. The illegal status implies they are ignored in the provision of the necessary services such as water, solid waste collection, electricity and sewerage disposal.

In order to understand the characteristics exhibited in Ugandan urbanization, the need to use multi-disciplinary approach would help prepare Uganda before it enters the rapidly escalating process. One way is focusing on the educational institutions through which all (or majority) the next generation will pass through. Accordingly, Uganda Martyrs University stands to contribute to positive urbanization through this curriculum.

Course Description

There is an increasing perception that urbanization is problematic, but urbanization presents great opportunity for urban growth and development if managed well. For proper exploration of these issues, the need for multi faced approaches is required to anticipate the current trends and consolidating the developments.

As part of this strategy the need to use the already existing institutions is paramount because of their readiness and long life in the broader community. Uganda Martyrs University, as a higher learning institution is committed to contributing to this discourse of preparing Ugandan's for the challenges while consolidating the opportunities through this curriculum which is multi-disciplinary in focus.

To illicit the needed response for the sustainable urban peace and development, this course introduces the students to the main theories and concepts of urbanization, overview the interactions of human and natural processes, and of the social processes occurring in the urban environment that lead to the exposure of communities to multiple risks. The course will address urbanization and contemporary environmental trends at local, national, regional and global levels and examines the impacts these trends generate and the challenges they pose to urban peace and development at all levels.

Students during this course will be encouraged to explore and examine strategies to address urbanization impacts. Students are also encouraged to share experiences of urban environmental peace and security-building.

The course will investigate and make the connection between these themes and urban peace and security as well as relate them to the Foundation Course and other courses taught at Uganda Martyrs University. During this course, students will consolidate their human life perspective and experiences together with field experiences and expert lectures as the general framework which gives

guidance to sustainable urban peace.

The course's recurring theme will be that of planning for urban development through mitigation and adaptation initiatives and that transcends to exploring peace and conflict discourses, urbanization and environmental trends, urban social problems peace and human security linkages for attaining sustainable urban peace.

Main Goal

The main goal of sustainable urban peace is to build the capacity of the participants to critically develop understanding, analyze and explore the past and current urban issues in order to achieve a sustainable urban development through consideration of human needs in development (accountability, HR and freedom) and embracing the principles of sustainable development.

Objectives

This course seeks to achieve the following objectives:

- To understand the theoretical underpinnings of the urbanization process, environmental challenges, and social issues
- To analyze the complexities and opportunities of urbanization as a matrix of urban development and peace building
- To develop awareness of the complex and interconnected nature of peace and conflict to urbanization and analyze complex urbanization issues through exploration of methodological sound multidisciplinary and transdisciplinary modalities for future exploration of complex challenge to urban development and peace
- To engage the participants into participatory research about the challenges and opportunities posed by the rapid urbanizing world of today through community field trips in order to facilitate the joint efforts to cope and adapt while mitigating the adverse externalities of rapid urbanization in urban vicinity
- To provide participants with the knowledge and skills to critically analyze and synthesize not only existing theories alone but also existing key literature in urbanization and urban development.

Expected/Intended Learning Outcomes

- Be able to identify the theoretical approaches and apply concepts of urbanization, sustainability, adaptation, mitigation, social conflict, peace and associated issues in urban development with the view of providing solution and alternative approach to urban development (critical understanding)
- Through the knowledge gained from the field trip, class discussion and review of theories and literature, the participants are expected to be able to conduct research on the urban needs of today's world in their respective field of expertise and critically examine reality, through observation, analysis, interpretation and synthesis
- Develop a spirit of cooperation and capacity for teamwork through group. Coupled to this, leadership skills and art of public speaking through presentations or seminars Capacity to design and plan?

Contents

No	Session title	Time	Readings
1	Peace and social conflict • Defining peace and conflict in urban settings • Theories of peace and conflict studies • Need for peace and conflict studies in urbanizing world.	3hours	Required readings Ibeanu, O. (2007). Conceptualizing Peace. In G. B. Shedrack (Ed.), <i>Introduction to Peace and Conflict Studies in West Africa</i>. Ibadan: Spectrum Books. Kingsley, O. (2010). Traditional Education: A Viable Alternative for Peace Building Process in Modern African. <i>Journal of Alternative Perspectives in the Social Sciences</i>. 2 (1), 136-159 Sandole, D., & Sandole, I. (1987). <i>Conflict Management and Problem Solving: Interpersonal and International Applications</i>. New York: New York University Press. Recommended readings

			Abdalla, Amr. et al., (2002). Understanding C. R. SIPABIO: A Conflict Analysis Model. Pp. 44-51 Galtung, J. (1969). Violence, Peace and Peace Research. <i>Journal of Peace Research</i>, 6 (3), 167-191. Mitchell, C. R. (1981). <i>The Structure of International Conflict</i>. London: Macmillan Press Limited. pp. 15-68.
2	Urbanization • Theories and concepts of urbanization; urbanism, sub urbanization • Linking urbanization to peace and conflict • Sustainable urbanism	3hours	Required Readings Champion, T. (2001). ‘Urbanization, Suburbanization, Counter urbanization and Reurbanization’. In R. Padison (Ed.), <i>Handbook of Urban Studies</i>. London: SAGE Publication. Cohen, B. (2006). Urbanization in Developing Countries: Current Trends, Future Projections, and Key Challenges for Sustainability. <i>Technology in Society</i>. Elsevier Ltd. 28, 63 – 80. Van Den Berg, L. et al., (1982). <i>Urban Europe. A study of Growth and Decline</i>. A. Wheaton & Co. Ltd., Exeter p. 162. Recommended readings Miguel, R. (1999). <i>Ecourbanismo, Entornos Humanos Sostenibles: 60 proyectos, (Eco Urbanism, Sustainable Human Settlements: 60 Case Studies)</i>. Barcelona: Gustavo Gili. Monnet, J. (2000). Modernism, Cosmopolitanism and Catastrophism in Los Angeles and Mexico City. <i>European Journal of Geography</i>. Cybergeog. p.136.
3	Urbanization and	3hours	Required Reading

	environment • Urban metabolism and Ecosystem services • Environmental impacts of cities • Environmental quality of cities		Bolund, P., & Hunhammar, S. (1999). Ecosystem Services in Urban Areas. <i>Ecological Economics Stockholm Environment Institute</i>, Stockholm: Elsevier Science B.V. 29, 293–301 McGranahan, D., Marcotullio, P., Bai, X., Balk, D., Braga, T., Douglas, I., Elqvist, T., Rees, W., Satterthwaite, D., Songsore, J., & Zlotnik, H. (2005). <i>Urban Systems in Ecosystems and Human Well-being: Current State and Trends</i>. Washington D.C.: Island Press. pp. 795-825 Piracha, A. L., & Marcotullio, P. J. (2003). <i>Urban Ecosystem Analysis. Identifying Tools and Methods</i>. Tokyo, United Nations University /Institute of advanced studies. Recommended Readings Foster, G. D. (2005). A New Security Paradigm. New York, World watch.
4	Environmental and security management • Introduction to Cities, Climate Change, Urban Environmental Trends, Environmental Security • Contribution of urban areas to climate change	3hours	Required Readings Dodman, D. (2009). Blaming Cities for Climate Change? An Analysis of Urban Greenhouse Gas Emissions Inventories. <i>Environment & Urbanization</i>. SAGE Publication, 21(1), 185–201. Satterthwaite, D. (2009). The Implications of Population Growth and Urbanization for Climate Change. <i>Environment and Urbanization</i>, 21, 545 – 567, retrieved February 21, 2012 from http://eau.sagepub.com/content/21/2/545

	• Impacts of climate change on urban areas • Climate change adaptation and mitigation response in urban areas		Recommended readings Hunt, A., & Watkiss, P. (2011). Climate Change Impacts and Adaptation in Cities: A review of the literature on Climatic Change, <i>Environment and Urbanization</i>, 104, 13–49 Huxtable, J., & Yen, N. T. (2009). <i>Mainstreaming Climate Change Adaptation, Practitioner's Handbook</i>. CARE International Vietnam (1st Edition). London: International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED). UN-HABITAT. (2011). <i>Cities and climate change: global report on human settlements</i>. London: Earthscan Ltd. Video links What we know about climate change, up loaded by greenman3610 on Feb 27, 2010. Retrieved May 5, 2012 from http://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=endscreen&NR=1&v=w9SGw75pVas . Greenhouse effect, up loaded by veppie0 on Apr 2, 2008. Retrieved May 5, 2012 from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LFNKfWyGxHw&feature=related .
5	Urban risks and resilience • Risk and resilience • Disaster risk reduction at the	3hours	Required readings Godschalk, D. R. (2003). Urban Hazard Mitigation: Creating Resilient Cities. <i>Natural Hazards Review</i> 4, 136-143. Renner, M., & Chafe, Z. (2007). Beyond Disasters

	local level		Creating Opportunities for Peace. In M. Lisa (Ed.), <i>World Watch Report</i>. Washington DC, World watch Institute. Recommended readings Cardona O. D. (2003). The Need for Re-Thinking the Concepts of Vulnerability and Risk from a Holistic Perspective: A Necessary Review and Criticism for Effective Risk Management. In G. Bankoff, G. Frerks & D. Hilhorst (Eds.), <i>Mapping Vulnerability: Disasters, Development and People</i>. London: Earthscan. Henry, J. L. (1980). Urban Design and Hazards. <i>Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture</i>, 33(4), 9-20. Kulabako, N. R., Nalubega, M., & Thunvik, R. (2007) Study of The Impact of Land Use and Hydrogeological Settings on the Shallow Groundwater Quality in a Peri-Urban Area of Kampala, Uganda. <i>Science of the Total Environment</i>, 381, 180–199
6	Urban social problems • Slums and urban poverty • Causes of urban crime and gang culture • Challenges of urban crime and	3hours	Required readings Davis, M. (2004). Planet of Slums Urban Involution and the Informal Proletariat. <i>New Left Review</i>. No. 26, pp. 5-34. Potts, D. (1995). Shall we go home? Increasing Urban Poverty in African Cities and Migration Processes. <i>The Geographical Journal</i>, 161(3), 245-264.

	gang to urban development • Planning for safe urban		Wratten, E. (1995). Conceptualizing urban poverty. <i>Environment and Urbanization</i>, 7, 11-38. Recommended readings Davis, M. (2006). <i>Planet of Slums</i>. London: Verso, pp. 121-150. Global Urban Observatory. (2003). <i>Slums of the World: The face of urban poverty in the new millennium?</i>, New York. UN-Habitat. Hobsbawm, E. J. (2005). Cities and Insurrections. <i>Global Urban Development</i>, 1(1), 1-8.
7	Urbanization, crime and violence • Defining crime and violence • Theories of crime and violence • Factors causing urban crime and violence	3hours	Required reading Brennan-Galvin, E. (2002). Crime and Violence in an Urbanizing World, <i>Journal of International Affairs</i>, 56, 122 – 145. United Nation Human Settlement Programme. (2007). <i>Enhancing Urban Safety and Security: Crime and Violence</i>. London, Sterling, VA. Earthscan. pp. 43-108. Recommended Reading. Witte, A.D. (1996). <i>Urban crime: Issues and policies</i>. <i>Housing Policy Debate</i> 7(4). Fannie Mae Foundation. Eller, J. D. (2006). Violence and Culture: Across-cultural and interdisciplinary Approach, Chapter 5: Gender and Intimate Violence, pp. 115-147
8	Human security and urban safety	3hours	Required reading

	• Theories of human security • Impact of insecurity to cities' safety • Approaches to improving human security and urban safety		Tibaijuka, A. (2005). Urban Safety: A collective Challenge for Sustainable Human Settlements Development. In F. Dodds & T. Pippards (Eds.), <i>Human Security and Environmental Security: An Agenda for Change</i>. (pp. 182-196). London Sterling, VA: Earthscan. United Nations Development Program. (1994). <i>Human Development Report</i>. New York: Oxford University Press. Recommended Readings Human Security Report. (2007). Human Security for an Urban Century. Chapter 5: Safer Cities for an urban Century. Safer Cities Publication. pp. 85-111. United Nation Human Settlement Programme. (2007). <i>Enhancing Urban Safety and Security</i>: London, Sterling, VA. Earthscan. 1-41.
9	Urban planning • Urban Housing policies • Transport and infrastructure • Nature of urban development and planning • Contemporary challenges to urban planning	3hours	Required Archibugi, F. (2010). <i>Planning Theory: From the Political Debate to the Methodological Reconstruction</i>. Roma, Springer Verlag Italia. pp. 1-53 Jan Gehl. (2010). <i>Cities for People</i>. Washington, Island Press. pp. 61-115. Smith, M. E. (2007). Form and Meaning in the Earliest Cities: A New Approach to Ancient Urban Planning. <i>Journal of Planning History</i>, 6(1), 3-47.

			Recommended Brown, L. D. (1986). Participatory Research and community planning. In C. Barry (Ed.), <i>Strategic Perspectives on Planning Practice</i>. Toronto, Lexington books. Harata, N. (2008). Strategy for a Sustainable Transport System in City Regions: Strategic Approaches and Consensus Building. In T. Kidokoro, N. Harata, L.P. Subanu, J. Sessen, A. Motte & E. P. Seltzer (Eds.), <i>Sustainable city regions: space, place and governance</i>, (pp. 3-21). Tokyo, Japan: Springer Kitokoro, T., Murayama, A., Katayama, K. & Shima, N. (2008). New Directions in Urban Regeneration and Governance of City Regions. In T. Kidokoro, N. Harata, L.P. Subanu, J. Sessen, A. Motte & E. P. Seltzer (Eds.), <i>Sustainable city regions: space, place and governance</i>, (pp. 23-37). Tokyo, Japan: Springer
10 & 11	Basics of urban research methodologies • Defining research • Theoretical roots of research • Research design and approach • Methods and approaches to gathering information and	3hours	Required readings Corbetta, P. (2003). <i>Social Research: Theory, Methods and Techniques</i>. London: Sage Publications. pp. 117-163 Creswell, J. W. (1998). <i>Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Traditions</i>. Chapter 5: pp. 73-91. London: Sage Publications. Recommended readings. Gibbs, J. P. (1961). <i>Urban Research methods</i>. Princeton, Ney Jersey, D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc. Gray, E. D. (2004). <i>Doing Research in the Real World</i>.

	data.		Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc. Robert, K. Y. (2003). <i>Case Study Research: Design and Methods</i> , 3 rd Edition, London: Sage Publications.
12	Field trip to an urban area to observe urban social problems • Assignment of task to groups to research on • Guest lecture on the real problems facing the urban area visited by the urban authority (Planner or Community Development Officer)	3hours	Readings No readings required, however, referring to the following recommended readings would help easily understand the field trip better. Thus it's highly recommended. Refer to session 1, 5, 6, 7, 10/11, required readings.
13	Group presentations	3hours	No readings, however making referential readings to sessions 1, 6, 7, 8 required readings would be added advantage.
14	Final wrap up and Evaluation		No readings
15	Final Exams	3hours	No reading required during Exams. Its however, recommended that students revise their class lecture notes, readings prior to taking the exams.

Methodology

Four basic strategies of teaching and learning will be used during this course and these are based on the significance that participants actively participate and acquire knowledge, and create a learning environment to the lecture as well. They include the following:

Lecturing

During Lecturing, the instructor conveys the information on the basic concepts in the contents above to stimulate discussion. This is important to give insight of the subjects or new concepts during the sessions which encourage participants easily infer their own experience or field of expertise to elicit the needed discussion.

Part of this lecture will be carried out by guest speakers/lectures during the class and during the field trip. The instructor will be chosen based on qualification and experience; and the objectives; explicit clarification with the guest instructor is made in advance (Lyons, 2004). This provides opportunity to interact, learn through questions, discussion about the real problems students face as part of community and actions taken by decision makers (leaders).

Discussion

This strategy works hand in hand with the lecturing strategy. It involves clustering the students into groups depending on the number of participants, and instructor assigns key concepts or questions to generate discussion. This takes two approaches: the instructor being the facilitator (for this case no clustering requires) and group facilitated discussion and report back for general discussion. The crux is that it is very difficult to discuss an unfamiliar concept without knowing the principles and underpinnings of such strategies. This strategy therefore is preceded by the lecture notes on the key concept of a particular session. This further involves active engagement of students minds (Lyons, 2004) and the mental engagement during discussions is often superior to one-way lectures (Sousa, 2001) as this will enable students to analyze perspective of other students within class, synthesize material delivered from diverse source and evaluate the validity of their personal held beliefs (Lyons, 2004).

Critical thinking

Various activities such as the use of recorded concepts within the course content, and written literature will be part of the strategy to elicit the ability of participants to discern, infer, clarify, connect and judge the document.

Visual aids (Video and audio)

Related videos on urban crime and violence, war in the city, demonstration based on the right to services within urban centers will be part of the strategy to convey the needed information. This

adds to the slide presentations which are also part of the strategy to elucidate the contents of the course to the participants.

Role playing

Through this strategy, the students will discover personal meaning in a given subject area, and solve personal dilemmas with the aid of their peers during the role plays. This brings in them the development of understanding others' perspective, encourage students to work with others is solving and analyzing problems and offers forum for building self-esteem and confidence (Lyons, 2004).

Evaluation

List of expectations and fear at the start of the lectures and recorded to be evaluated t the last session whether all the expectations where achieved.

During the field trip students will be ask to identify a research topic that suits their interests in the assigned groups and work on the final research project which will be part of the final assessment.

Participation and attendance in terms of qualitative input to the lecture shall be a mode of evaluating students.

Animations and daily recap of the previous day, students will be group and each group assigned the either recap or animations and this is interchangeable through to the end of the course.

Synthesis and minute paper. Participants will be expected to take the last five minutes of every session to reflect and do a synthesis of what they learned based on either guided questions or not.

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Video links

What we know about climate change, up loaded by greenman3610 on Feb 27, 2010. Retrieved May 5, 2012 from

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=endscreen&NR=1&v=w9SGw75pVas>

Greenhouse effect, up loaded by veppie0 on Apr 2, 2008. Retrieved May 5, 2012 from

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LFNKfWyGxHw&feature=related> ,

CHAPTER TWO

ADMINISTRATIVE CHAPTER

Specific Course Title:

Sustainable Urban Peace

Course Code:

To be assigned by University Council

Prerequisites:

Accredited master

Course Length:

The course will be a semester-based course, which will cover the entire full semester of an academic year (period of four month) dispatched in three hours session each week throughout the semester.

Credits:

Three (3) credits

Course Meeting Times and Place:

The course meeting places will be decided before the semester begins at the departmental planning. This will be decided out of the available lecture rooms within the campus. However, during planning field trips will be discussed upon.

Intended Participants:

The students of Sustainable Peace and conflict management, under the department of Good Governance and Peace Studies at Uganda Martyrs University, Uganda will be the recipients of this course.

Other organization staff and staff willing to enhance capacity with the prerequisite for this course will also benefit from this course.

Where the Course fits within the General Programme of Studies:

Sustainable Peace and conflict management students of local governance and human rights under the department of Good Governance and Peace Studies at Uganda Martyrs University

Assessment of Student Performance:

University criterion of written assignment and course work tests accounting to 50% and final examination accounts for the remaining 50% shall be the mode of assessment.

Instructor's Biography:

Mr. Ika Lino (Uganda)

MA Sustainable Urban Governance, University for Peace, Costa Rica; BA in Development Studies Uganda Christian University, Uganda; 'Two years' experience in civil society programming, Research and Training He also conducted research on Food Security and worked under the component of Conflict Management with German Technical Cooperation (GTZ) project on Nutrition, Food Security for Peace in North Western Uganda which involved approaches that are rights-based and conflict sensitive approaches to development (do no harm approach).

CHAPTER THREE

TEACHER'S MANUAL

Session 1: Introduction to Peace and Conflict Concepts

Learning Objectives:

- Understand the theoretical background of peace and conflict in order to derive their own comprehension of the concepts.
- Establish the link between the concepts of peace and conflict in the context of rapid urbanization.

Content:

This session looks at the different concepts of peace and conflict and relates them to the scenarios of rapid urbanization. This session will further look into the broad field of peace and conflict in context of local setting and urbanization trends

Definitions of Peace.

Political dimension: politically peace relates to how institutions both formal and informal operates to ensure justice and social stability and according Miller, University for Peace (2005, p.29), to ensure such institutional practices and norms work well, the following conditions ought to be met for maintaining and reaching peace; “Balance of political power among the various groups, legitimacy for decision makers and implementers of decisions through transparency and accountability, recognized and valued interdependent relationships among groups, reliable and trusted institutions for resolving conflicts, sense of equality and respect, mutual understanding of rights, interests, intents, and flexibility despite incompatibilities”

Notoriously elusive, peace connotes more than a mere absence of war or hostilities; an absence of conflict is impossible. In addition, ways of creating a state of peace should be more comprehensive and be distinguished from techniques that simply avoid conflicts or employ violent or coercive approaches to engage in, manage, or resolve them.

Deriving from the Latin *pax*, peace in the Western world is generally considered a contractual relationship that implies mutual recognition and agreement (Miller, University for Peace, 2005). Understandings of peace throughout the world often disclose a much deeper comprehension of peace in relation to the human condition, which also includes inner peace. The comprehensive understanding of peace outlined above extends beyond what are referred to as positive conceptions of peace but acts in accordance with them as well. This contrasts with negative conceptions of peace, which are described most commonly as the mere absence of war or violent conflict. (Miller, University for Peace, 2005)

Instrumentalist and functionalist interpretations: These two concepts of instrumentalism and functionalism provide the two common interpretations of peace as converse of war argument. According to the instrumentalist view, peace is a means to an end. In this sense, the absence of war serves the end of social progress and development (Ibeanu, 2007). Meanwhile on the other hand, in the functionalist interpretation, peace is seen from two angles: (1) as playing a social function, and (2) as a product of the function of other social structures and institutions.

Consequently, peace is said to have the social function of integration and order. As such, for society and the state to function properly they need peace, otherwise there would be a lot of stress on the social and political systems and then they would break down. It further posited that, the central function of both the social and political systems is to create peace (Ibeanu, 2007).

Sociological definition of peace: This addresses the social context. While normative philosophy addresses what ought to be, the sociological definition addresses what is. Sociologically, peace refers to a condition of social harmony in which there is no social antagonisms. In simple terms, peace is a condition in which there is no social conflict and individuals and groups are able to meet their needs and expectations (Ibeanu, 2007).

Sociological concept is achieved through structural-functionalist and dialectical materialist responses; In Structural-Functionalism, peace refers to social analysis that sees society as a mosaic of functions and structures that perform them. For example, in order to survive, a society need to educate its children, produce goods, govern its affairs and provide security for its members (Ibeanu, 2007). These are functions and they necessitate a number of structures such as schools, industries, parliaments, courts, armed forces, etc. Consequently, from a structural-functionalist perspective,

peace is achieved where existing social structures perform their functions adequately, supported by the requisite culture, norms and values (Ibeanu, 2007).

On the other hand, dialectical materialism refers to social analysis which suggests that to understand society, what we should look at are the processes through which society produces and distributes the means of its material existence and the struggles, usually among social classes, that are integral to the process. In other words, it is about how human societies produce and how they distribute work and rewards. In context of class division, often the dominant classes do less work, but appropriate most of the rewards. This exploitative relation gives rise to the class struggle, which sometimes entails open/objective violence, such as violence by state agencies like the armed forces against underprivileged groups, but most times entails covert/structural violence. It is expressed in such conditions as poverty, inequality, psychological violence, oppression and social exclusion. The use of open or structural violence by dominant depends on the level of hegemony it has been able to establish.

This ideology depicts some of the challenges presented with urbanization today, especially the case of slums versus state agencies in terms of participation in decision making which often favour the minority wealthy. This is made worst under the current free market economy exaggerating the participation gap of most urban/cities in developing countries.

Philosophical definition of peace: However, philosophical traditions relate peace to the original inclinations and desires of human beings; they do not address the social context of peace beyond the state of nature. One of the earliest normative political philosophers (the focus in this session) to explore these issues in the social context is Plato albeit other philosophers such as Kant, Marx, Hobbes, Einstein among others are also influential. In his V-IV Century BC Republic (University for Peace, 2005), expressed justice as the social context basis of ordered social life, that is the basis of peaceful social existence. He defines justice as giving to each his/her due. He argues that every society requires three functions to achieve harmony (peace), namely: production, security and political rule (Ibeanu, 2007). These necessitate three aptitudes in the populace-appetite, courage and knowledge-and three roles-workers, soldiers and rulers. Justice entails that society systematically determines the endowment of each member and endures that they are placed in each of the three functions according to their endowments persons of appetite work and produce society's means of material existence, those with courage defend society, while the knowledgeable person-the

philosopher king-that person rules. Injustice occurs where this functional system is distorted, for instance, where the knowledgeable allow persons of appetite to rule. In such a context, there cannot be peace and social harmony (Ibeanu, 2007).

Michael Banks (Sandole & Sandole, 1987) negated the traditional understanding of peace as absence of war on the basis of its limitedness. However, he presents an extensive four perspectives of peace that contrasts with the extant concepts of peace.

Peace as harmony is equated to utopian understanding of peace as a life of harmony in which conflict does not exist. It goes beyond no violence to situations where even any disagreement whatsoever is absent. Just as the philosophical perspectives, this remains contested in terms of feasibility and reality for instance, the environment is contested especially in the rapid urbanizing world even in the case of natural hazards both human induced and natural this perspective remains contested. However, Conflicts are inevitable and important as they can act as catalysts for social change as they present issues for policy interventions. There exist different nature of conflicts which can either be physical or mental. Due to the desire for basic needs, clashing interests and values, conflicts are bound to be part of society. It is important that there is a need to understand and manage conflicts, and recognize the fact that they are inevitable.

Peace as order: Here, peace is seen as stability, which is result of political order. This is the perception of peace in international relations. Peace is considered the ability of states to maintain order in society; for example, strengthening of security instruments such as armies so as to maintain order both domestically and globally. There is the tendency of states to hide under the umbrella of international law to justify aggression. It is in the accumulation and use of power in international relations where order rests. Small amounts of conflict are overlooked, and only big amounts of violence are seen as worthy of attention.

Peace as Justice; basically presents that peace means presence of justice. Although, justice has different attributes and definition, its geared towards fulfilling the basic human rights of people. In context of justice, peace efforts seek to reduce what Galtung (1969) refers to indirect violence that is structural violence which include poverty hunger, discrimination, and social injustice based on ethnicity, tribalism, colour, race etc. especially in context of meeting peoples demands and needs. This means that democratic principles are geared towards achieving justice for the peaceful

development of the society. Boutros-Ghali's report (speech) to United Nations forty eight session summarizes the democracy part of it all (United Nation, 1993, no pagination), stating that, "without peace there can be no development and there can be no democracy. Without development, the basis for democracy will be lacking and societies will tend to fall into conflict. And without democracy, no sustainable development will occur; without such development, peace cannot long be maintained".

Peace as conflict management. From the word management, one thing that follows is process. Thus peace is not static or fixed; it is complex and dynamic state of affairs. Peace is not only about conflict prevention and management, but prevention of conditions that lead to the conflict.

Definitions of Conflict

Conflict means perceived divergence of interests, or a belief that the parties' current aspirations cannot be achieved simultaneously. (Rubin, Pruitt & Kim, 1994). Just as peace, conflict vary in context and nature, people perception vary greatly. In a related scenario, conflict is a struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power and resources in which the aims of the two opponents are to neutralize, injure, or eliminate the rivals (Coser, 1976). Depicting value for ones interest as main thrust behind conflict.

Perception also plays important role in conflict where conflict is an expressed struggle between at least two independent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce resources, and interference from the other party in achieving their goals (Hocker & Wilmot, 1991) and situation in which two or more social entities or parties perceive that they possess mutually incompatible goals (Mitchell, 1981). Given the definitions, what is very important is how we make the interests, perceptions and incompatible goals unified. Cities and other major urban centers stand the test of these circumstances which impact greatly on urban peace.

Understanding Conflict beyond Definition (Theoretical Perspectives)

Frustration Aggression Hypothesis: As individuals, our focus in life is to achieve our target or main thrust of existing and undertaking, when we encounter blockage in the pursuit of our set target, we accumulate excessive level of frustration. And this is precisely what frustration aggression theory explains. It stresses that human beings, as goal oriented organisms, naturally become

aggravated when they are prevented from achieving what they desires and as such a natural build-up of blocked energy seeks release, and aggressive action is directed to the source of one's frustration (Jeong, 2000). This reflects what may happen in the case of rapid urbanization today where societal violence can emerge out of frustrated expectations related to rapid urbanization or economic depression. Failure of slum dwellers to meet their goal in the opportunities yield by urbanization may result into incompatible actions like theft, robbery etc.

Relative deprivation: Closely related to the concept of frustration aggression hypothesis above is the relative deprivation theory, this also depicts the crisis most urban and cities face today. Relative deprivation is a result of combined effect of rising expectations and a lack of progress towards demands for a better life. It is defined as actors' perception of discrepancy between their value expectations and their value capabilities. Any gap between value expectations which entail peoples' the believe that they are rightfully entitled to certain goods and conditions of life and the value capabilities which refers to goods and conditions they think they are capable of getting and keeping predetermines conditions of unrest (Gurr, 1970 as cited in Jeong, 2000).

Ubuntu: As a major concept of African social existence maintains that "the true nature of man can only be realized through social relationship with others" (Okoro, 2009, p.72) and this translate to the spirit of livelihood approach and having sense and responsibility to participate in community affairs or governance (Kingsley, 2010). The concept of Ubuntu creates a unified and interconnected conception of human existence, sense of collective solidarity characterized love, caring, tolerance respect empathy accountability and responsibility and a life force that helps to maintain equilibrium of forces, natural, spiritual and human in community of other persons in one's existence and as such discrimination on the basis of race, gender ability or handicapped were diminished in the traditional African societies. And this clearly brings out the question that; who has the right to the city? And what is governance? What constitutes it? Approaches that identify the elements raised herein looks to the approach that will yield success, especially in this epoch of decelerating neo-liberal approach to peace through market that seem to have distorted the urban systems making its governance problematic (Kingsley, 2010).

Basic and Key Concepts of Peace and Conflict Studies

Peacemaking

Peacemaking is a concept that deals with resolving conflicts. Peacemaking focuses on bringing armed conflicts to an end. In peacemaking, there are transformers of conflict, the measures used to end conflicts, which include negotiations, mediation and arbitration. Because war and its causes are destructive and expensive in terms of material resources and human lives, peaceful conflict resolution is ideal for ending conflicts. Nonviolent conflict resolution requires commitment from both sides. The concept of peaceful settlement of disputes is reflected in Chapter VI of the UN Charter. It involves the use of a variety of methods, including negotiations, arbitration, enquiry, conciliation and judicial settlement. The UN Secretary General uses his office for fact finding, arbitration and mediation in international disputes. The General Assembly serves as a place to hear grievances. There are also some international agencies that carry out investigations and make decisions on economic, environment and human rights issues. In cases where negotiation fails, other methods such as arbitration, adjudication, mediation and other third party methods have been employed (Jeong, 2000).

Peacekeeping: Peacekeeping is “the maintenance of public security, civil services and ceasefire agreements in war and conflict zones by UN or regional military, police, and civilian forces with the consent of the nation-state on whose territory those forces are deployed”(Miller, University for Peace, 2005, p. 55). Peacekeeping is a conflict resolution mechanism in which peacekeepers are deployed in an area where conflict is persistent and prevention of violence has failed there. “[...]Peacekeeping is appropriate in three points on the escalation scale: to contain violence and prevent it from escalating into war; to limit the intensity, geographical spread and duration of war once it has broken out; and to consolidate a ceasefire and create space for reconstruction after the end of a war” (Ramsbotham, 2005, p.133).

Peace Building: In the field of peace studies, the concept of peace building has been equated to the realization of positive peace. This attributed to attaining positive peace arise because peace building leads to the institutionalization of positive justice and freedom and the focuses on addressing root cause of conflict (Erim, 2007). As further noted by Karame (2004, p. 12), “peace building is a means of preventing the outbreak, reoccurrence or continuation of armed conflict as well as emergencies in

the wide range of political, developmental, humanitarian and human right mechanism”

Thus, the process of peace building encompasses all stages of conflict, from the preconflict stage to the post-conflict phases, with the aim of laying the basis for sustainable peace in conflict torn societies (Okoro, 2009, p. 78). Peace building project take into consideration the social, economic and psychological universe of the ordinary people at the grass root as they are variously affected by conflict (Karame, 2004, p.12; Kingsley, 2010)

Conflict Management: ensuring all parties develop approaches or behaviors against the hostile or violent behavior entails the management of conflicts. The thrust here must ensure adjusting conflict behavior, incompatibility to the extent needed to ensure that parties will avoid hostile or violent behavior are important. Such an approach is usually used to reduce contentious behavior until the situation is ripe for addressing conflict sources and issues.

Conflict Resolution. After managing a conflict, resolution follows which precisely entails bringing the perception of parties to values each other's interests, goals and aspirations with aim of unifying all the different perspectives. In urban context, evictions often happen whether legal or illegal, how to go help the warring factions to discuss their grievances and needs such access to resources over which they settled. Resolutions may include increasing health, education and employment opportunities to an underprivileged group.

Conflict Transformation. The need to maintain a state of well-being for now and future is crucial and conflict transformation looks towards that. Positively changing parties' relationship, conflict attitudes and behaviors are reminiscent to this concept to help parties to transform their relationship from a conflicted one to an amicable one, by addressing deep-rooted conflict sources and issues.

Positive and Negative Peace and Structural Violence Paradigms

The notion of positive and negative peace and structural violence is attributed to Galtung's Peace and violence theory and concepts. According Galtung (1969, p.168) violence occurs or is said to be “present when human beings are being influenced so that their actual somatic and mental realizations are below their potential realization”. This definition goes beyond looking at violence as somatic or direct thus encompassing structural violence (Grewal, 2003). Therefore, this extended definition of violence also leads to an extended definition of peace, thus, according to Galtung

(1969) peace is not merely absence of direct violence herein referred to as negative peace but also absence of structural violence which in this case is positive peace. This is clearly illustrated in the figure 1 below. Hence, structural violence is the result of structure of the society but not only personal and direct violence (Galtung, 1969)

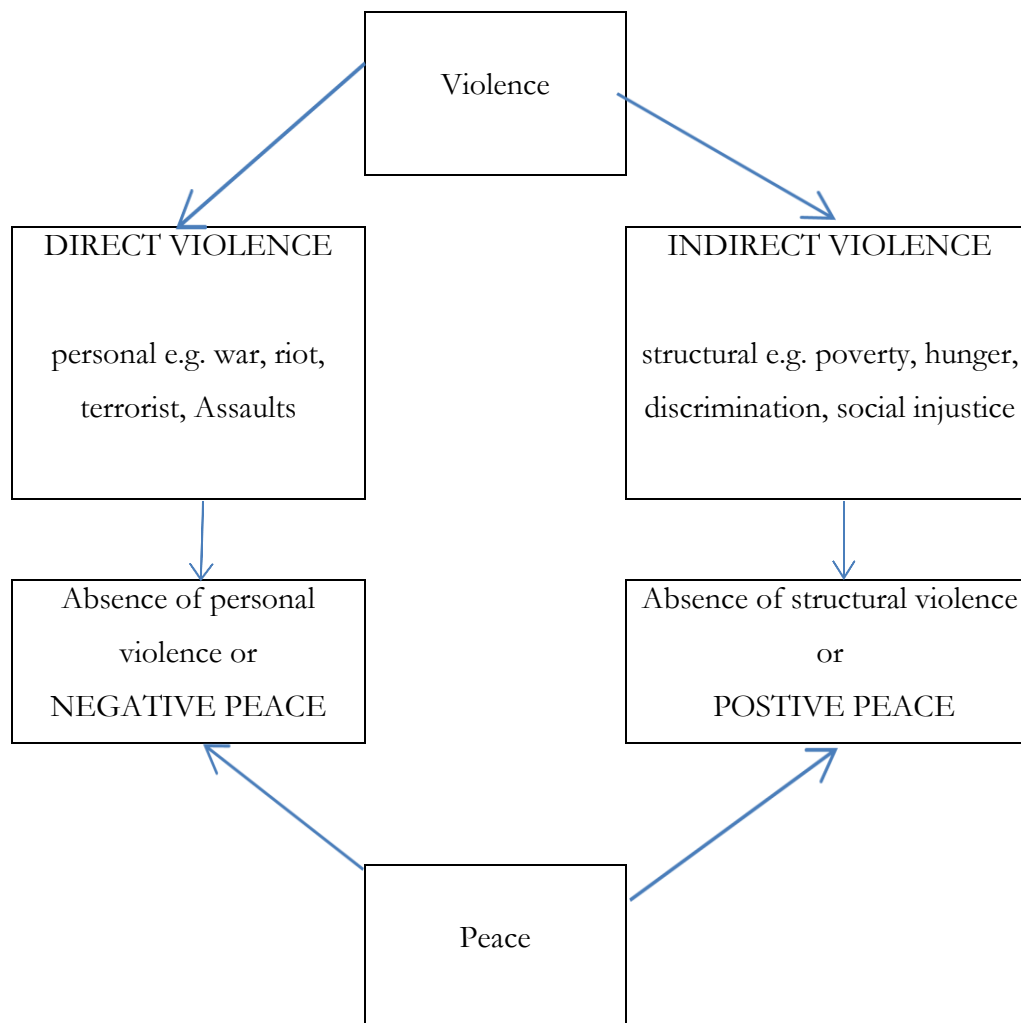


Figure 1. The Expanded Concept of Peace and Violence (Galtung, 1969)

In the figure above, Galtung created the connection between peace conflict and development research to explain the structural violence. This is relevant because of the social justice connotation and Galtung (1969) further argues that, as personal and direct violence are often the result of social structure, significant focus on the bigger picture exposed by structural violence is much more important since it reveals the causes and effects of violence and conditions for peace.

Expected Learning Outcome:

By the end of this session, participants are expected to demonstrate knowledge of key concepts and theoretical approaches that define peace and conflict agenda and identify the connection between the key concepts and theoretical approaches to peace and conflict and urbanization.

Session Methodology:

Methodology & Teaching/ facilitating strategies	Time	Resources	Activities
Discussion / interaction • Introduction	20mins		Students introduce themselves (Major in bachelors, what activities they are involved, motivation to take on the course
• Expectation & fears	10mins	Flip charts, manila papers, makers pens, cello tap.	Students write their expectations and fears on the manila paper and stick it on the flip chart. Briefing on the basic objectives to give feedback and in cooperate new expectation on to the course objectives
Brainstorming and discussion	30mins	Flip charts, maker pens	Students grouped and are ask to define in their own terms what peace and conflict refers to. And report back to plenary
Interactive Lecture	30mins	Audio visual aid (projector, laptop)	The instructor leads an interactive lecture in the form of question and answer strategy to explain the they concepts in peace and conflict field

Role Play	40mins	Flip charts and marker pens, copies of printed role play descriptions	In groups students are ask to act some of the key strategies of resolving, analyzing conflicts such as compromise, escalation, non-violent communication etc. this will be determined by the instructor.
Plenary discussion	30mins		Students discuss the lessons learnt and challenges. They also discuss the opportunities that can be utilized
Synthesis and take away	10mins		Students write down the key concepts learned as a synthesis and give them as take a way's of the day. Such synthesis involves personal reflection about striking concept (s). Allocating groups to recap the following lecture and another to animate during class

Session Evaluation:

- Minute paper and synthesis
- Take a way

Readings:

Required Readings

Ibeanu, O. (2007). Conceptualizing Peace. In G. B. Shedrack (Ed.), *Introduction to Peace and Conflict Studies in West Africa*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books.

Kingsley, O. (2010). Traditional Education: A Viable Alternative for Peace Building Process in Modern African. *Journal of Alternative Perspectives in the Social Sciences*. 2 (1), 136-159

Sandole, D., & Sandole, I. (1987). Conflict Management and Problem Solving: Interpersonal and International Applications. New York: New York University Press.

Recommended readings

Abdalla, Amr. et al., (2002). Understanding C. R. SIPABIO: A Conflict Analysis Model. Pp. 44-51

Galtung, J. (1969). Violence, Peace and Peace Research. *Journal of Peace Research*, 6 (3), 167-191.

Mitchell, C. R. (1981). *The Structure of International Conflict*. London: Macmillan Press Limited.
pp. 15-68.

Session 2: Introduction to Urbanization

Learning Objectives:

- Learn about the theories and concepts of urbanization and use them to identify the externalities.
- To understand the patterns, factors driving urbanization and their impact to urban development processes.
- To identify how urbanization relates to peace and conflict issues.

Content:

Patterns of Urbanization

Just as peace and conflict field, urbanization has been variedly used in the literature with prefixes attached to it thus taking care as we look into some of the pattern in which it has been used is very crucial.

The proportion of urban population has been the traditional way of measuring urbanization; today, the United Nation (UN) reports also reflect on the population shift as the concern. Indisputably, this indicates that urbanization is yet a continuing process and we must prepare to face it. However, population increase or decrease itself has both its advantages and disadvantages and should not be totally viewed from a negative perspective when we talk about urbanization.

Apart from the traditionally paradigm of measuring urbanization in terms of increasing population, many urban studies have conceived urbanization in terms of the increasing area of land being developed for urban use, while others view urbanization as a social process of people adopting the attitude and behavior traditionally associated with life in the cities and towns, irrespective of where they might be living (Champion, 2001). Similarly, globalization and civilization processes also adds to the current urbanization processes.

Regardless of how one defines and conceives it, urbanization is a continuing process. In other terms it is reflexive that is as we experience the changes at different levels, we get to experience a whole set of experiences as we advance technologically, physically, growth wise etc. that is why there is the demand for a shift from sprawling/spatial nature of urban growth to compact cities. Thus,

urbanization is a process that is, one that is long since over or one that is not currently very important but may undergo resurgence, perhaps in a cyclic fashion (Champion, 2001).

Defining Urbanisation and Theoretical Concepts

Defining urbanisation has taken various forms in most literature, in practice, national statistical agencies (governments) and multinational agencies or world bodies like UN indicate the use of population in classifying urbanisation, of which the current population is estimated to increase further to five-six by 2030 (Champion, 2001). Clearly evident is the strong growth in level of urbanisation since the 1950s. recent and anticipated increases have more to do with the reclassification of existing rural settlements as a result of the outward spread of cities or their populations than with further large-scale movements of people from rural to urban areas.

Focusing on urban change, it is valuable to measure urbanisation based on the distribution of the population between different sizes of urban places. Its central importance appeared in the literature more than half a century ago in Tisdale's 1942 description of urbanisation: "Urbanisation is a process of population concentration. It proceeds in two ways: the multiplication of the points of concentration and increase in size of individual concentration" (Jan de Vries, 1990, p.47; Champion, 2001, p.144). The latter relates to those countries where one leading city has outstripped all the others, producing a primate rank-size settlement pattern. It was seen in the high 'degree of urban concentration' found widely across the more developed world, with cities of a million inhabitants, however, developing countries have also show substantial degree of urban concentration with cities of a million inhabitants.

Fielding (1982) defined urbanisation as being; "...Where there exist a direct urban-system-wide relationship between the rate of net migratory growth of settlements and measures of their urban status. This reflects the interest of urbanisation arising largely because there seem to be the same unidirectional pattern of development as there is for the sample 'per cent measure'" (Champion, 2001, pp.144).

In history, this was exemplified in the degree of urban concentration, 1965-90 showing a widespread tendency for a reduction in the degree of urban concentration, with 15 of 19 advanced countries with data available for both years being estimated to have seen a fall in the proportion of their urban population living in cities of at least one million residents (Champion, 2001). Though the tendency

may have arisen from statistical underbounding, where the statistical boundaries of a city fails to keep pace with its lateral expansion (sprawling/spatial expansion in this case), the data are suggestive of a widespread process of population redistribution down the urban hierarchy, whether through the relative faster growth of smaller urban places or through the absolute decline of the largest cities.

This development was confirmed by a number of studies; for example Fielding's (1982) analysis of France showing Paris' migratory growth rate falling behind that of the next rank of cities and eventually turning negative, the studies which have shown the USA's medium-sized and smaller metropolitan areas overtaking the growth rate of the largest ones in the 1970s (E.g. Frey, 1990; Nucci & Long, 1995) and the current rate of Kampala city, the capital of Uganda falling in terms of population.

This switch in the incidence of the strongest population growth away from the largest cities was termed *polarization reversal* by Richardson (1977, 1980) and, along with observations of the revival of population growth in non-metropolitan America, spawned the notion of 'counter urbanisation' (Berry 1976a as cited in Champion, 2001). The former has been incorporated by Geyer and Kontuly (1993) into *theory of differential urbanisation*, where by patterns of gross migration alter over time and successively favour the primate city, the intermediate city level and ultimately the small-city level.

In this approach urbanisation is seen taking place as long as the population is becoming increasingly concentrated in the primate city category, before the intermediate-size city category takes over as the fastest-growing of the three categories.

The 'Stages of Urban Development' Model.

One key feature of this approach is the idea that a city has a life cycle which takes it from a 'youthful' growing phase through to an 'older' phase of stability or decline, as the initial investment are progressively exhausted or the original advantages of the site become less relevant and are changing (Roberts, 1991)

Second feature incorporated into this approach is the identification of phasing of development through an examination of the internal patterning of growth, distinguishing between the main built-up 'core' of the city and its 'ring' or commuting hinterland.

Hall (1971) devised this approach into four-staged model of metropolitan-area development. Starting with a period of centralisation with people concentrated in the core at the expense of the ring, continuing with periods of relative and then absolute decentralisation where the core grows less rapidly than the ring and experiences absolute loss of population to the ring, and ends up with a stage where metropolitan area as a whole moves into overall decline because the core's loss becomes greater than the ring's again.

Phases of Urbanization

In the contemporary sphere, urbanization has become global (Hosszú, 2009). The word 'urbanization' according to Enyedi (1988) has a double meaning. On one hand, it denounces the continuous increase of urban populations. In other hand, it means the spread of the urban lifestyle and infrastructure in the whole settlement system.

Following the work of Van Den Berg (1982), the phases of urbanization become well known and suggested a 4-phases-model of town development described below.

The Stages of Development in a Functional Urban Region (FUR)

According to Van Den Berg, L., Drewett, R., Klaassen, L. H., Rossi, A., & Vijverberg, C. H. T. (1982), a Functional Urban Region (FUR) pertains to urban centers with population around 200,000 people and surrounding areas dependent on those centers (having a commuting rate of over 15 per cent). In this concept, Van Den Berg, L. et al., argue that stages of development in the FUR occur in four stages of development as in the table below.

Stages of development	Classification type	Population change characteristics		
		Core	Ring	FUR
1. Urbanization	1. Absolute centralization	++	-	+
	2. Relative centralization	++	+	+++
2. Suburbanization	3. Relative decentralization	+	++	+++

	4. Absolute decentralization	-	++	+
3. Desurbanization	5. Absolute decentralization	--	+	-
	6. Relative decentralization	-	--	---
4. Reurbanisation	7. Relative centralization	-	--	---
	8. Absolute centralization	+	--	-

Source: Van Den Berg, L., et al., (1982) adapted from Hosszú, (2009)

Urbanization is the stage of fast expansion of cities. This stage is assumed to take place when a primarily agricultural country gradually becomes industrial and the agricultural labour becomes constrained due to use of improved technology or need to have modern technology, thus prompting the demand for increased labour in rural whose redundant labour force is forced to leave in search of new occupations. Migration from small towns and rural into rapidly centralized developing public, manufacturing, employment and industrialized sectors is also a characteristic of this stage.

The second stage of urbanization is the suburbanization stage and this can be seen as a 'qualitative improvement' of urbanization (Van Den Berg, et al., 1982). The features of this stage include dominance and importance of individual preference to locate to a greener and small town close to a big city, albeit they work in the urban center. Similarly, the migration pattern remains centralized, but within the FUR (Hosszú, 2009) with high tendency and dominance of decentralization of the population. In this stage the ring shows faster growth in number of people and economic activities than the city center (Timár, 1999) albeit the city gaining more population inflow from territories. According to Timár (1994, 1999) this stage is the result of economic restructuring, the increasing importance of the service sector, development of transport and service systems, new cultural trends, etc.

The third phase is the desurbanization or counterurbanization. When accessibility of the city center becomes 'non-acceptable' for those living in the suburbia this is referred to as desurbanisation (Van Den Berg, et al., 1986). The term suburbia herein refers to comparatively new settlements adjacent to, subordinate to, and functionally dependent upon, older, higher-density urban places (Wyly, 2005). Desurbanisation pertains to the shift of growth centres from the metropolitan regions to

outside of the urban agglomerations (Enyedi 1988). The result of this (redistribution of people and businesses) is the balanced settlement pattern (Hosszú, 2009) although counterurbanization is a '*chaotic concept*' Mitchell (2004, p. 21) and in comparison to counter urbanization, urbanization was '*quite a simple pattern to describe...*' (Halliday & Coombes, 1995, p. 435). However, this concept can be summarized in the definition by Berry (1976 p. 17.) as: "...counterurbanization is a process of population deconcentration; it implies a movement from a state of more concentration to a state of less concentration."

The fourth stage of urbanization is the reurbanization stage. This concept looks at the phenomenon of movement from the rural places or small towns back to the urban areas. Therefore this process is a repeated or a reiterated concentration process as noted by Enyedi (1988). In contemporary world, this phenomenon is observed most in developed world. For example, it can be observed in the Nordic countries (Panebianco & Kiehl, 2003). The main reason behind this is the restructuring of the city and the new interpretation of the downtown (Hosszú, 2009). This stage emphasizes the concepts of 'gentrification' and 'social downtown rehabilitation' which have become important features in modern urban planning policies (Hosszú, 2009).

Urbanisation in Developing Countries

Studying urbanisation in developing countries comes with the great challenge of classifying what constitutes an urban area, especially the parameters that determine what virtually is an urban from rural (Cohen, 2006). In recent years, urbanisation has become a globalised concept but the lack of globalised consensus on what it is, remains contested. As a result, most developing countries use different parameters to define their urban population and what it constitutes.

Urban population can be defined in a number of ways, most notably by population size, population density, administrative or political boundaries, or economic function. Some countries define their urban population as those people living within certain administrative boundaries such as in administrative centers or municipalities (as in El Salvador), municipality councils (as in Iraq), or in places having a municipality or a municipal corporation, a town committee, or a cantonment board (as in Bangladesh or Pakistan). Other countries prefer to classify their urban population using either population size or population density as the primary consideration (Cohen, 2006). The different approaches are reminiscent to country definitions and most international figures and projections

about urbanization merely reflect country estimates. Ironically, places classified in one country as urban may be rural in another; however, there is increased consensus on what to measure especially population.

In Uganda, the Local Government Act (2002[LGA]) gazetted certain areas as urban and made Kampala the only city and other urban centers as municipalities or town councils, making a total of 75 urban areas irrespective of the population concentration. All district headquarters are urban areas by law because they are located in town councils and all town councils are urban areas. It is important to note that there are many centers with urban tendencies that are not gazetted.

However, in Uganda the definition of urban areas has been changing over time. The 2002 Census defined urban areas as gazetted cities, municipalities and town councils as per the Local Government Act 2000, while the earlier censuses included ungazetted trading centers with more than 1,000 people as part of the urban population (UBOS, 2005).

Although Uganda is among the least urbanizing countries in Africa (17%), it has a high urban growth rate estimated at 5.2 per cent per year and given the growth of its secondary cities are likely to expand in the next decades and this provides an opportunity to plan for the unexpected and deal with the 60 per cent of Uganda's population (Kampala city) already in slums.

Opportunities and Threats of Urbanization

Rapid urbanization becomes an opportunity if we can only view it a positive phenomenon which we can manage to elucidate growth that minimizes its externalities. However, it is dependable on how it is managed. According to Cohen (2006), if well managed, cities offer important opportunities for economic and social development. As they are focal points for economic growth, innovation, and employment. Have some natural advantage in transport or raw material supply, particularly capital cities, are where the vast majority of modern productive activities are concentrated in the developing world, where the vast majority of paid employment opportunities are located

Urbanizing cities today signifies the modern living centers and most of these cities come with improved basic infrastructure and basic social and public services such as access to education and health care, electricity, water and sanitation better than the rural. Most participation of female labour force is associated with cities albeit the resurgence in rural women participation thanks to the capacity and empowerment programmes. Not only female participation but general social capital and

mobility is high mainly supported and exhibited by the existing social and cultural centers such as museums, cultural sites etc.

However, if not well managed, of particular concern are the risks to the immediate and surrounding environment, to natural resources, to health conditions, to social cohesion, and to individual rights. Unsurprisingly, the rapid number of growth of the urban poor and slums is of immediate concern yet as cities grow managing becomes complex (Cohen, 2006).

Expected Learning Outcome:

At the end of this session, participants are expected to; have become aware of the theories and concepts of urbanization, understand the patterns, factors driving urbanization and their impact to urban development processes and identify how urbanization relates to peace and conflict issues in their urban context.

Session Methodology:

Methodology & Teaching/ facilitating strategies	Time	Resources	Activities guidelines
Recap and animation	10mins	Audio visual or flip charts and marker pens	The students group of recap presents the recap of the last lecture and the animation group reminded of the animation during the class.
Interactive Lecture	40mins		Question and answer led discussion on the urbanization discourse.
Group discussion and presentations	40mins		Group discuss what urbanization means to their context and its discourses and present to class.
Plenary discussions and presentation (brainstorming)	50mins		General reflection on the presentations and action points.
Synthesis and takeaways	10mins		Students take a personal reflection and analysis of the most striking concepts.

Session Evaluation:

- Minute papers and synthesis
- Takeaways

Readings:**Required Readings**

Champion, T. (2001). 'Urbanization, Suburbanization, Counter urbanization and Reurbanization'. In R. Padison (Ed.), *Handbook of Urban Studies*. London: SAGE Publication.

Cohen, B. (2006). Urbanization in Developing Countries: Current Trends, Future Projections, and Key Challenges for Sustainability. *Technology in Society*. Elsevier Ltd. 28, 63 – 80.

Van Den Berg, L. et al., (1982). *Urban Europe: A study of Growth and Decline*. A. Wheaton & Co. Ltd., Exeter p. 162.

Recommended readings

Miguel, R. (1999). *Ecourbanismo, Entornos Humanos Sostenibles: 60 proyectos, (Eco Urbanism, Sustainable Human Settlements: 60 Case Studies)*. Barcelona: Gustavo Gili.

Monnet, J. (2000). Modernism, Cosmopolitanism and Catastrophism in Los Angeles and Mexico City. *European Journal of Geography*. Cybergeog. p.136.

Session 3: Urbanization and Environment

Learning Objectives:

- Synthesize the theoretical dimensions of urbanization and its consequences on the environment.
- Discover how urbanization influences and affects the environment.
- Develop consciousness and care for the environment in the rapid urbanizing world.

Content:

While urbanization is an important driver to environmental change, it is not the only urban-related influence. The conversion of land to urban uses, the extraction and depletion of natural resources and the disposal of urban wastes cities as well as urbanization in general are having global impacts (World Resources Institute, 1997).

It is very important to recognize that the earth system is natural and operates in a natural system that reinforces its modification and management in terms of temperature control, rainfall etc., however, human development is occurring rapidly and it is taking the form of humans idealizing the elements of its habitat and environment to accrue benefits to further the development and this interaction between humans and its ecosystem has led to change of the natural system, and that's the concern for ecosystem sensitive urbanization to maintain the natural system of our environment today.

All cities, however, are not impacting the environment in similar ways. While developed world cities have largely overcome their traditional environmental problems (waste water removal, sanitation, water supply, indoor air pollution, etc.), attention has turned to their impacts on ecosystems further away as well as those larger in scale (Low, Gleeson, Elander & Lidskog, 2000).

Cities in the developing world are more concerned with other issues. Urban environmental challenges in developing countries have been divided into two categories: inefficient modes of resource use, such as in the water supply, housing, or energy, and limited absorptive capacity of pollution and flooding (Sham, 1993; White, 1992). Brandon and Ramankutty (1993) classify the key urban environmental challenges in the Asian region as: water pollution; air pollution; solid waste management; and inappropriate land use. Studies of the consequences of urban activities suggest ever-increasing challenges to cities at all levels of development.

According to the United Nations University, Institute of advance studies (Piracha & Marcotullio, 2003, p.3), a number of factors have added to this complexity;

- First, the impacts of contemporary industrial processes and the toxicity of many materials used are unknown. Sometimes, what was previously seen as an environmental benefit ended up as an ecological disaster.
- Second, cities within fast-growing economies are going through a socio-economic and cultural transition, and as such, are facing the environmental challenges of low, middle, and high-income societies simultaneously.
- Third, while the drive for decentralization is leading to the transfer of responsibilities for the urban environment from central agencies to local governments, in many cases decentralization has not been accompanied with greater financial empowerment of local governments. This situation has forced cash-starved local governments to look for other partners, such as those in the private sector, to address environmental issues. International development organizations have also become more active in the urban scene, relentlessly pushing for privatization of urban utilities.
- Fourth, more players are involved in, or desire to be involved in urban environmental decision making creating increasingly complex political situations. This includes, for example, both local voices and international utility companies offering their services in provision of urban environmental infrastructure and services.

In these increasingly complex circumstances, new concepts and approaches are needed to tackle environmental challenges.

Theoretical Dimension

Urban environmental transition theory suggests that wealth, in terms of GDP, can be used to distinguish the environmental performance of cities (McGranahan et al., 1994). According to McGranahan et al., (1996, p. 105):

Affluence is neither unambiguously harmful nor unambiguously beneficial to the physical environment". Their claims are that urban environmental burdens tend to be more dispersed and delayed in more affluent settings. Dividing cities into three income categories, they argue that the dominant environmental problems in low-income cities are localized, immediate, and health-threatening. The environmental challenges in middle-income cities are city-wide

or regional, somewhat more delayed, and a threat to both health and ecological sustainability. Finally, affluent cities must meet the challenges of global, inter-generational, and environmental threats to ecological sustainability.

Piracha and Marcotullio (2003) described in a simplified typology, of the shifting burdens above in three categories; “brown”, “gray”, and “green” as the environmental agenda issues for cities.

They noted that, historically, “brown agenda”, which encompasses the conventional environmental health agenda and includes a concern for poor quality, overcrowded housing, a lack of basic services, hazardous pollutants in urban air and waterways, and accumulation of solid waste are associated or are assumed to have been encountered by western cities (Piracha & Marcotullio, 2003). Once “brown” issues are solved, cities then have to struggle with the “gray agenda”, that is the impacts of industrialization and motorization such as chemical pollutants. This consequently leads to the “green agenda”, which is a result of increased development associated with high consumption patterns and waste generation that has disrupts the ecosystem, resource depletion and a key factor of global climate change (Piracha & Marcotullio, 2003).

However, the marketization and globalization, which is driven by industrial processes remains the concern for developing countries to overcome the stages, since much of their economic growth is anticipated through industrial growth. Similarly, overcoming the global pressure on industrialization enshrined in the economic policies bestowed under the structural adjustment policies also remains key to achieving the green agenda.

As cities became highly developed, activities within their borders prompted the emergence of “green agenda” issues, which followed increases in consumption and waste generation that disrupted ecosystems and has led to resource depletion and global climate change.

This presents one of the most demanding responses needed by the developing countries. Especially all types of waste generation in developing countries are urban based, such as polythene, plastic bottles etc. yet all these have long decomposing life cycle and to further, most of its raw material are imported and supplied under the disguise of promoting industrial development and meeting the agenda for global village. Looking at the whole process (production chain) it is a disaster.

This is not a description of a predisposed trajectory, however. Indeed, examples can be found of cities with different dominant environmental concerns at different levels of development than those described. Rather, empirical evidence suggests that the model holds historically and its power lies in

the ability to define a reasonable relationship between development and the urban environment that includes the issue of scales of impact (Bolund & Hunhammar 1999).

Urban ecosystems: An ecosystem can be defined as “a set of interacting species and their local, non-biological environment functioning together to sustain life” (Moll & Petit, 1994, p. 8). However, the borders between different ecosystems are often diffuse. In the case of the urban environment, it is both possible to define the city as one single ecosystem or to see the city as composed of several individual ecosystems, for example, parks and lakes (Rebele, 1994).

For simplicity, the term urban ecosystem refers to all natural green and blue areas in the city, including in this definition street trees and ponds (Bolund & Hunhammar, 1999). In reality according to Bolund and Hunhammar (1999), street trees are too small to be considered ecosystems in their own right, and should rather be regarded as elements of a larger system.

We look at some seven different urban ecosystems which are called natural, even if almost all areas in cities are manipulated and managed by man. The ecosystems are street trees, lawns: parks, urban forests, cultivated land, wetlands, lakes: sea, and streams (Bolund & Hunhammar, 1999).

- By street trees we mean, stand-alone trees, often surrounded by paved ground.
- Lawns: parks are managed green areas with a mixture of grass, larger trees, and other plants. Areas such as playgrounds and golf courses are also included in this group.
- Urban forests are less managed areas with a denser tree stand than parks.
- Cultivated land and gardens are used for growing various food items.
- Wetlands consist of various types of marshes and swamps.
- Lakes and seas include the open water areas while streams refer to flowing water. Other areas within the city, such as dumps and abandoned backyards, may also contain significant populations of plants and animals (Bolund & Hunhammar, 1999).

According to Bolund and Hunhammar (1999), it should be possible, however, to place most urban ecosystems or elements in one of the above mentioned categories. This may be subjective since it is based to site-specific conditions of Stockholm. Nevertheless, some of these features are non-existent in developing countries as of now, yet in general ecosystems are good environmental modifiers and will match other components of a good urban center such as aesthetics, green belts etc.

Important Processes Driving Change

In order to understand and intervene in any situation like the urban environment agenda, looking at the factors leading to the referent subject is significant and here we describe them drivers of change. Drivers can have either direct or indirect impacts on urban development.

By indirect drivers we may refer to those associated with globalization, technological change, political shifts (Including institutional and legal framework changes), and demographic shifts are of particular importance for urban systems. While direct drivers for urban centers include, among other things, changes in land use (the expansion of cities and urban areas) and user rights and structures (McGranahan et al., 2005).

In contemporary urban development, the fossil fuel economy; energy use and availability are primary urban drivers. Any economy without hydrocarbon based fuels and the transportation systems will really successful exist. The fossil economy greatly underpin, existing urban systems because they would be dysfunctional (Droege, 2004). More generally, energy underpins economic growth, globalization flows, and technological advances, all of which operate through urban centers. These are made worse under the globalization's structural advancement policies in which many nations have benefited economically. On the other hand, Friedman (1986; 1995) noted that, many nations have not benefited from contemporary trade and foreign direct investments flows, which underpin globalization, and therefore their urban centers are not considered "world cities".

Furthermore, such direct foreign investments are aggravated by macroeconomic conditions and national debt burdens especially when most developing economies are predominantly agricultural based with mineral trade and the lack of manufacturing creating more dependent on rural than on urban economic activity and more susceptible to changes in commodity market prices. The ever rising footprints and waste accumulations are reminiscent to these drivers.

All these function and influence the urban development processes and they further encompass the regulatory frameworks such as policy documents, laws, traditions, regulations, standards, and procedures. For example; one reason to the lack of provision of adequate shelter and the generation of slums themselves are often due in part to inappropriate regulatory frameworks (Payne & Majale, 2004). The lack of appropriate institutional structures helps drive ecological and environmental trends within and around cities.

Responding to the Environmental and Ecological Burdens of Urban Systems

Ecosystem services are defined as “the benefits human populations derive, directly or indirectly, from ecosystem functions” (Costanza, et al., 1997) and they also identify seventeen (17) major categories of ecosystem services. Ecological services provide urban with both direct and indirect benefits, whereas direct benefits equates to consumables while indirect are needed to sustain the ecosystems themselves. (Bolund & Hunhammar, 1999).

Air filtering: the fossil fuel transportation and heating of buildings, etc. often cause pollution within the urban centers which is a major environmental and public health problem in cities. Thus maintaining vegetation cover reduces air pollution, albeit to what level seems to depend on the local situation (Svensson & Eliasson, 1997). Related to this is the noise reduction, especially from the transport sector where noise from heavy traffic, industries creates health problems for people in urban areas. Though at individual level, building codes are crucial to reduce such. A technical solution is using insulated windows in houses.

Rainwater drainage: The built-up infrastructure, often with concrete and tarmac roads, concrete spaces covering the ground, results in alterations of water flow compared to an equivalent rural catchment. Aggravated by the poor waste disposal that block runoffs, high rainfall falls becomes surface-water run-off which results in flood discharges and degraded water quality through contamination e.g. urban street pollutants (Haughton & Hunter, 1994).

Sewage treatment: it is often costly to manage sewage in most cities where large amounts of money are required. Untreated sewerage are often directed to tunnels, streams and rivers within cities something when well treated, releases the nutrients that contribute to eutrophication of the surrounding water ecosystems.

Recreational and cultural values: in many developed countries, green building is an important aspect of urban design. The recreational aspects of all urban ecosystems, with possibilities to play and rest, are perhaps the highest valued ecosystem service in cities. The beauty of a modern city relies on maintaining ecosystems to provide the aesthetic and cultural values to the city and offer structure to the landscape. Botkin and Beveridge (1997, p.3) argue that “Vegetation is essential to achieving the quality of life that creates a great city and that makes it possible for people to live a reasonable life within an urban environment” (Bolund & Hunhammar, 1999, p.298).

Expected Learning Outcome:

- Recognize the theoretical dimensions of urbanization and environment in urban space.
- Isolate the environment challenges and opportunities reminiscent to urbanization.
- Investigate and deduce appropriate interventions to urbanization environmental related Externalities.

Session Methodology:

Methodology & Teaching/ facilitating strategies	Time	Resources	Activities guidelines
Recap and animation	10mins	Audio visual or flip charts and marker pens	The students group of recap presents the recap of the last lecture and the animation group reminded of the animation during the class.
Interactive Lecture and case study presentation (Uganda urban environmental challenges)	40mins		Question and answer led discussion on the urbanization and environment discourses.
Group discussion and presentations	40mins		Group discuss urbanization and environmental issues based on their local context and its discourses and present them to class
Plenary discussions and presentation (brainstorming and discussion)	50mins		General Reflection on the presentations and action points
Synthesis and takeaways	10mins		Students take a personal reflection and analysis of the most striking concepts. Mention what they learnt during the class as takeaway

Session Evaluation:

- Minute papers and synthesis
- Takeaways

Readings:**Required Reading**

Bolund, P., & Hunhammar, S. (1999). Ecosystem Services in Urban Areas. *Ecological Economics Stockholm Environment Institute*, Stockholm: Elsevier Science B.V. 29, 293–301

McGranahan, D., Marcotullio, P., Bai, X., Balk, D., Braga, T., Douglas, I., Elqvist, T., Rees, W., Satterthwaite, D., Songsore, J., & Zlotnik, H. (2005). *Urban Systems in Ecosystems and Human Well-being: Current State and Trends*. Washington D.C.: Island Press. pp. 795-825

Piracha, A. L., & Marcotullio, P. J. (2003). *Urban Ecosystem Analysis. Identifying Tools and Methods*. Tokyo, United Nations University /Institute of advanced studies.

Recommended Readings

Foster, G. D. (2005). A New Security Paradigm. New York, World watch.

Session 4: Urban Environmental Management and Security

Learning Objectives:

- Introduce theories and concepts of cities and climate change.
- To understand the urbanization and contemporary environmental trends.
- To explore and examine strategies to address cities and climate change impacts.
- To share experiences of urban environmental peace and security building.

Content:

This section looks at the environment security, environmental trends, more specifically, the contribution of urban areas to global climate change (climate change), the impacts of climate change in urban areas, climate change mitigation and adaptation responses, as well as urban ecosystem management and response to policy direction.

Cities and Climate Change in Urbanizing World.

Within the contemporary sphere, climate change is one of the most threatening problem cities face. Most of these threats present wide range concern on the environmental security within the cities. It is estimated that cities greatly contribute to this course of events and environmental trends and these effects come with unprecedented negative effects especially on humanity. More so, most of these effects are human-driven or induced by human activities, one example linked to the urbanization process is increased consumption in food, fossil fuel among others. Why this has become a concern for cities has been clearly put forward in the UNHABITAT's Global Report on Human Settlement (2011, p.1):

Humanity faces a very dangerous threat. Fuelled by two powerful human-induced forces that have been unleashed by development and manipulation of the environment in the industrial age, the effects of urbanization and climate change are converging in dangerous ways which threaten to have unprecedented negative impacts upon quality of life, and economic and social stability.

Thus, this statement clearly notifies how human search for better option in the urbanizing world through interfering with the environment adds to the problem of global climate change in not well managed thus for better life the threats above ought to be reduced. The advantages of such city-scale focus and assessments are likely to be strengthened as a number of potentially significant

climate change impacts are either unique to urban areas or exacerbated in urban areas (Lindley et al. 2006). As noted in the report, “Climate change can also be a source of opportunities to redirect the patterns of production and consumption of cities and individuals” (UNHABITAT, 2011, p.1).

The consideration of whether the climate change in this rapid urbanization, associated with population shift to cities, would provide opportunities to developing countries which are already trapped in slow economic growth, inadequate capacity and limited financial resources is very important and thus the need for substantial effort to make the potential opportunities become a reality, versus the need to counter the adverse effects and pressures imposed by rapid urbanization in terms of social service provision, poverty reduction, slum rehabilitation and improvements remain unequivocal. Below is the concept of climate change and cities for context based understanding of the two notions of climate change and the urban or city.

Climate change in regards to the IPCC (2007 p.30) refers to:

A change in the state of the climate that can be identified (e.g. using statistical tests) by changes in the mean and/or the variability of its properties, and that persists for an extended period, typically decades or longer. It refers to any change in climate over time, whether due to natural variability or as a result of human activity.

This to some extent is varied to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC,) definition which defines climate change as:

A change of climate that is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the composition of the global atmosphere and that is in addition to natural climate variability observed over comparable time periods.

As noted in the definition and earlier on, more human activities take place in the urban areas which at the same time has more infrastructural development which may affect land use change and thus they are places where substantial change can take place. This is more appropriate as we continue to witness the galloping processes of industrialization, urbanization and globalization (Imura, 2010).

Currently in developed countries, a majority of the population lives in cities, developing countries are also urbanizing rapidly with more living in cities as well. It is therefore likely that the future of

the earth will depend on the cities, which by definition according to Imura (2010, as cited in Fook & Gang 2010, p.30) are:

Places many people gather to live and engage in economic activities. They take in vast amounts of resources to sustain those activities and then discharge into the environment (atmosphere, water, soil) vast amounts of waste generated through those activities. In this sense, cities are likely eco-systems.

Thus the need to make urban areas or cities livable and sustainable is on the agenda in the contemporary discourse for better climate sensitive cities.

However, reminding and checking on the influence of rapidly growing pollution that ultimately influences both economic activity and consumption patterns contributing to climate change should be every ones responsibility. The blame game is over, as the need for what is call action is required to achieve a safe environment for development for now and the future.

Contribution of Urban Areas to Climate Change and the Resulting Climate Change Impact

Understanding the concept of sustainable city and city as an eco-system is crucial for in-depth analysis of the population, consumption and production patterns. This concept will help to elucidate a better understanding of the urbanizing population, and associated changes in urban consumption and production patterns.

The concept of sustainable development is defined as “...development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.” (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987, p. 43; UN Conference on Environment and Development, 1992). However this is not so different from what is meant by a sustainable city. But focusing on urban issues as ever more critical in the face of rapid urbanization over the recent decades should be the priority thus, setting out ourselves to answer the question of how we meet the needs of urban inhabitants while taking care of the effects of our actions to both the present and future inhabitants in cities remains the onus as we seek to counteract climate change.

We have seen climate change and urbanization converging with huge threats to humanity, how do we manage the equivocation posed by these twin phenomena? How do we build our cities to be more habitable without damaging our environment (or ecology) such as the green space and

swamps, how do we go about balancing the needs for resources? The latter question here I refer to as a city in the disguise of an eco-system.

Earlier we noted that urbanization is primarily taking the form of population shifting towards cities. This changes the pattern of urban form that become sprawling as a result of the unplanned settlement of land on the edge of the cities by the huge population movement, and which overwhelms the capacity of especially developing countries to meet the needs of the new urban dwellers. This situation also presents a great challenge in balancing the needs of the population with the possibilities of providing adequate primary social, educational and health services and other basic facilities. However, such populations do not only provide challenges to urban authorities but also introduce changes of living-styles from rural to urban, wherein the culture of 'westernization' or globalization presenting differential consumption patterns is also evident.

In the bid to contribute to the debate on drivers of urbanization to policy makers, the European Environmental Agency (2008, [EEA]) argues for the need to tackle underpinning consumption patterns noting that, ...urban sprawl is not driven principally by population growth but by changing lifestyles and consumption patterns as well as lenient, service-driven planning policies. We need action to address the three urban-related consumption areas that have been identified as having the highest environmental impacts during their lifecycle: housing, food and drink, and private transport which, together, are responsible for about 65% of material use and 70% of global warming potential, This means that when addressing population as a cause of environmental problems it is likely to address the symptoms rather than the real causes; therefore we must not lose sight of focusing on one factor and ignoring the other. Most of these factors are either related or have linkages thus covering them as drivers of climate change would be ideal. For instance, as population grows, food demand also grows. With increasing income and urbanization, demand for food not only increases, but changes with shifts in consumption patterns (Delisle, 1990). This is a clear linkage that understanding the population determines the pattern of consumption thus focus on both becomes superlative.

There is increased consumption and production and one account to this fact is the fact that increases in population accompanied by globalization and the market economy leads to the urban contribution to global greenhouse gases (GHGs). A typical example is the use of energy for lighting, the more the population the more the demand and supply of electricity yet inefficient electricity use

characterized in many developed and developing countries contributes to heating, an element of climate change. This further highlights the importance of determining the type of interventions based on particular contextual conditions.

The importance of applying a multidisciplinary approach to looking at the solution in mind assists the thinking in dissecting the need to plan for material consumed by the city and amounts produced from how it can be managed. In Japan for instance (Imura, as cited in Fook & Gang, 2010, p.31):

Variety of material are consumed each day to support the survival and activities of the average person today: 1.4 kilograms of food, 320 liters of water, and the equivalent of 2.4 kilograms of energy (crude oil equivalent; total includes household energy and automobile use; figures as of 2000). As a result, a variety of waste and pollutants are generated each day, water wastes and carbon-dioxide amounting to the equivalent of 8.8 kilograms of dry ice.

Interestingly to note here is how we can ensure safety of the adverse consumption pattern of resources without compromising the impacts of the consumption. Besides, the production will depend on the type of consumption determined by the population. The higher the population the higher the consumption and thus a need for more production. Thus to sustain these needs consumption and production activities within cities will depend heavily on the resources from outside the city (Imura, as cited in Fook & Gang, 2010). This is also referred to as ecological footprint which has a direct link to greenhouse gas emissions for instance in terms of transportation of the material to city, over exploitation of materials from site without replacing if this is nonrenewable, population shift in terms of migration and commuting etc.

UNHABITAT (2011, p.1) also exposed the role the population plays in enhancing production and consumption as contributors to climate change.

While some cities are shrinking, many urban centres are seeing rapid and largely uncontrolled population growth, creating a pattern of rapid urbanization. Most of this growth is now taking place in developing countries and is concentrated in informal settlements and slum areas. Therefore, the very urban areas that are growing fastest are also those that are least equipped to deal with the threat of climate change, as well as other environmental and socio-

economic challenges. These areas often have profound deficits in governance, infrastructure, and economic and social equity.

The need for capacity is crucial to take on the opportunities offered by climate change, therefore the need to enhance capability of developing countries to manage challenges and take opportunities postulated by climate change are very vital since it is noted that “People arriving in already overstressed urban centres are forced to live in dangerous areas” (UNHABITAT, 2011, p.1). it further emphasizes the implication as in this statement:

...that are unsuitable for real estate or industrial development, many constructing their own homes in informal settlements on floodplains, in swampy areas and on unstable hillsides, often with inadequate or completely lacking infrastructure and basic services to support human life, safety and development. Many of these slum residents are often blamed by their governments for their own poor living conditions. Even without additional weather-related stresses, such as higher-intensity or more frequent storms, these are dangerous living environments (UNHABITAT, 2011, p.1).

Similarly, the shifts in the population leads to pressure on already existing cities structures which have either being encroached or totally build up land. The case of Sydney’s rural lands exemplifies this and this also challenge the way our choice of planning also influences or contributes to the discourse of climate change.

The dangers of “Sydney’s rural lands being totally overwhelmed by urban development were noted as worthy of attention as far back as the County of Cumberland Plan (1948). This plan recognized the need to balance city and country” (County of Cumberland, 1948, p. 124).

It introduced a greenbelt “which defined how the city would be structured by zoning (land-use categories) and zones (urban/non-urban) (Bunker & Holloway, 2001). This greenbelt was lost when the second metropolitan strategy, the Sydney Region Outline Plan, was released in 1968 because of population growth and the successful lobbying of the housing and development industries” (Ashton & Freestone, 2008, as cited in Mason & Knowd, 2010, p. 64)

Population also interfaces with production functions, thus increased population entails the need for more production in terms of services, and more materials are required to meet the basic needs of the growing population.

Production itself is not bad as such but what type of production and how it is produced and used is the concern. For instance in the Japanese case the production of fuel and its usage generate the debate, even industries etc. as opposed to agricultural production which has advantages within urban areas.

One important resource is the adaptive capacity. Addressing the climate change using a multi sectorial approach that mandates all developmental actors to integrate issues of climate change in their local intervention is a great incentive in enhancing the adaptive capacity. Therefore planning at different scales for intervention, for example the strategic level and operational levels is a very important planning procedure. Wherein at strategic level, policies frameworks that ascertain the directions for interventions are crucial for the operational levels which is responsible to implement and translate the policies to reality.

While thinking of the mitigation and adaptation measures to address urban environmental problems contributing to global greenhouse gases, it is advisable to consider a wide range of both the symptoms and causes at the different scales and context in order to yield the much needed concerted effort as in the case of Japan and Sydney above. For instance, at household level, addressing the symptoms may be appropriate than the causes. In general what the paper suggests here is that the analysis of the symptoms – cause and effect relationship is very important in the discourse of combating climate change.

Expected Learning Outcome:

At the end of this session, participants are expected to; demonstrate knowledge of key concepts and theoretical approaches that define the cities and climate change agenda, critically reflect on and analyze the central literature on climate change as an urban environmental trends, describe urbanization and associated influence on climate change and general environmental trends at all levels and be able to describe strategies and policy approaches to address the challenges of climate change to rapidly urbanizing areas.

Session Methodology:

Methodology & Teaching/ facilitating strategies	Time	Resources	Activities guidelines
Recap and animation	10mins	Audio visual or flip charts and marker pens	The students group of recap presents the recap of the last lecture and the animation group reminded of the animation during the class.
Interactive Lecture and introduction to brainstorming session on climate change trends in cities through Video clips and pop culture on climate change.	40mins		Question and answer led discussion on the climate change and assign students to discuss how climate change affects urban and how urban contribute to it.
Plenary discussions and presentation (brainstorming and discussion)	120 mins		Groups present and discuss issues brainstormed above and present general Reflection on the topic of presentations and action points
Synthesis and takeaways	10mins		Students take a personal reflection and analysis of the most striking concepts. Mention what they learnt during the class as takeaway

Session Evaluation:

- Minute papers and synthesis
- Takeaways

Readings:

Required Readings

Dodman, D. (2009). Blaming Cities for Climate Change? An Analysis of Urban Greenhouse Gas Emissions Inventories. *Environment & Urbanization*. SAGE Publication, 21(1), 185–201.

Satterthwaite, D. (2009). The Implications of Population Growth and Urbanization for Climate Change. *Environment and Urbanization*, 21, 545 – 567, retrieved February 21, 2012 from <http://eau.sagepub.com/content/21/2/545>

Recommended Readings

Hunt, A., & Watkiss, P. (2011). Climate Change Impacts and Adaptation in Cities: A review of the literature on Climatic Change, *Environment and Urbanization*, 104, 13–49

Huxtable, J., & Yen, N. T. (2009). *Mainstreaming Climate Change Adaptation, Practitioner's Handbook*. CARE International Vietnam (1st Edition). London: International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED).

UN-HABITAT. (2011). *Cities and climate change: global report on human settlements*. London: Earthscan Ltd.

Video links

What we know about climate change, up loaded by greenman3610 on Feb 27, 2010. Retrieved May 5, 2012 from <http://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=endscreen&NR=1&v=w9SGw75pVas> .

Greenhouse effect, up loaded by veppie0 on Apr 2, 2008. Retrieved May 5, 2012 from <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LFNKfWyGxHw&feature=related>

Session 5: Urban Risks, Hazards, Disasters and Resilience

Learning Objectives:

- To understand the concepts of disaster risk reduction in respect to cities.
- To develop the capacity to analyze, synthesize and assess risk, hazards and vulnerability and their underlying social and economic dimensions to urban development.
- To explore the key actors in urban risk reduction and how they interact with urbanization trends.
- To develop solutions that can succeed to better implement pro-active risk policies in urban areas and identify what strategies to be adopted by cities of different context.

Content:

As the human population rises past 6.5 billion, putting greater pressure on the availability and cost of land, more people are being forced to live in riskier places and in higher concentrations. (United Nations Population Division, World Urbanization Prospects, 2005) and climate change, exemplified, in the case of drought, flooding, erratic weather, and extreme temperatures which on the rise. This is often followed by disasters as the phenomena changes. For instance, in 2006, long-term drought on the Greater Horn of Africa, including the worst drought in Somalia in a decade, led to food shortages that affected at least 11 million people. (UMO, 2006) That same area experienced its most severe flooding in 50 years. A 2007 report from the IPCC reinforces the fact that climate change will hit poor countries the hardest. (Revkin, 2007) Climate change will intensify coastal and weather-related hazards threatening these vulnerable communities.

Urban risk, hazards and vulnerability

These trends may be worse in the cities as cities like other systems such as humans are complex and interdependent systems, extremely vulnerable to threats from both natural and human induced hazards (Godschalk, 2003). There are certain features that make cities feasible and desirable and these include; their architectural structures including layoffs, aesthetics etc., population concentrations and density, places of assembly, and interconnected infrastructure systems however these features also put them at high risk to floods, earthquakes, hurricanes, and terrorist attacks.

The United Nations background paper on natural disasters and sustainable development (U.N. Commission on Sustainable Development, 2001, p.136) stated the issue clearly:

Can sustainable development, along with the international instruments aiming at poverty reduction and environmental protection, be successful without taking into account the risks of natural hazards and their impacts? Can the planet afford to take the increasing costs and losses due to natural disasters? The short answer is no. Disaster reduction policies and measures need to be implemented, with a two-fold aim: to enable societies to be resilient to natural hazards while ensuring that development efforts do not increase the vulnerability to these hazards.

Importantly to note is that cities have become 'modern' (agents of modernization), however, "Modern society has become a risk society in the sense that it is increasingly occupied with debating, preventing and managing risks that it itself has produced" (Beck, 2006, p.332). As Beck puts forward we live in the age of reflexive modernity which encompasses world of uncertainty where human control is increasingly diminishing as a result of capacity to predict and anticipate events determines the future. In the age of urban transformation (infrastructure, technology etc.) taking place reflects the future uncertainty and thus urban society represent risks that have been produced by modernity through technological advancements which is the result of human action. Therefore efforts to counteract the risk are necessary.

Hazard mitigation includes action taken to reduce or eliminate long-term risk to people and property from hazards and their effects. Urban hazard mitigation is a particular branch of hazard mitigation practice, and goaled to developing resilient cities. Composed of networked social communities and lifeline systems, resilient cities would become stronger by adapting and learning from disasters (Godschalk, 2003). Moor (2001 as cited in Godschalk, 2003, p.137) pointed out that:

Cities as the most complex of human creations are at great risk both from a wide range of hazards and from their own multiple vulnerabilities. Urban vulnerability are everywhere from infrastructure systems and buildings to telecommunications, transport, and energy and resource supply lines. And reduction of vulnerability at the city scale is not simply a matter of stronger structures. Urban risk reduction mechanisms include police and fire forces,

planning and building inspection departments, health services, families, schools, and the media.

What is a Resilient City?

Resilience as a concept can mean different thing altogether, however in urban studies, the concept can be precisely summarized in the statement below (Mileti, 1999, pp. 32):

Local resiliency with regard to disasters means that a locale is able to withstand an extreme natural event without suffering devastating losses, damage, diminished productivity, or quality of life and without a large amount of assistance from outside the community.

This means that a resilient city is a sustainable network of physical systems and human communities. Physical systems are the constructed and natural environmental components of the city. In lay language, systems that can be quantified, are visible and occupy space such as; built roads, buildings, infrastructure, communications, and energy facilities, and other natural systems. In sum, the physical systems act as the body of the city, its bones, arteries, and muscles (Godschalk, 2003). During a disaster, the physical systems must be able to survive and function under extreme stresses. If enough of them suffer breakdowns that cannot be repaired, losses escalate and recovery slows.

On the other hand, human communities are the social and institutional components of the city. They include the formal and informal, stable and adhoc human associations that operate in an urban area: schools, neighborhoods, agencies, organizations, enterprises, task forces, and the like. In sum, the communities act as the brain of the city, directing its activities, responding to its needs, and learning from its experience. During a disaster, the community networks must be able to survive and function under extreme and unique conditions. If they break down, decision making falters and response drags. Social and institutional networks exhibit varying degrees of organization, identity, and cohesion. (Godschalk, 2003) therefore, a city without resilient physical systems and human communities will be extremely vulnerable to disasters.

Disaster Resilience Principles

As a social phenomenon that can be investigated, Hazards researchers and system theorists have identified a number of characteristics found in complex, resilient systems, such as cities, in which technological components and social components interact. In order for effective resilience, the city requires combinations of apparent opposites, but, encompassing redundancy and efficiency,

diversity and interdependence, strength and flexibility, autonomy and collaboration, and planning and adaptability (Zimmerman, 2001; Bell, 2002; Tierney, 2002; Godschalk, 2003).

Futurist theorist Foster (1997) proposed thirty one (31) principles for achieving resilience organized into several categories such as: general systems, physical, operational, timing, social, economic, and environmental.

This implies resilient systems having attributes such as independent, diverse, renewable, and functionally redundant, with reserve capacity achieved through duplication, interchangeability, and interconnections. Looking at the resilience from the perspective of human beings also translate this phenomenon put forward by Foster (1997).

Researchers, who have studied the response of resilient systems to disasters such as Foster (1997), find they tend to be;

- *Redundant* with a number of functionally similar components so that the entire system does not fail when one component fails.
 - *Diverse* with a number of functionally different components in order to protect the system against various threats.
 - *Efficient* with a positive ratio of energy supplied to energy delivered by a dynamic system.
 - *Autonomous* with the capability to operate independently of outside control.
 - *Strong* with the power to resist attack or other outside force.
 - *Interdependent* with system components connected so that they support each other.
 - *Adaptable* with the capacity to learn from experience and the flexibility to change.
 - *Collaborative* with multiple opportunities and incentives for broad stakeholder participation.
- (Godschalk, 2003)

Hazard Mitigation Practices

Continues research and literature has shown wide range of hazard mitigation strategies in urban or city settings. It is always interesting to acknowledge and be aware of the issues of resilience and capacity when we talk of mitigation. Below are some of the mitigation approaches that have been used in the field.

Traditional Hazard Mitigation (Godschalk, 2003): Traditional hazard mitigation protects people, property, and the environment from the destructive impacts of hazards in a number of ways

(Godschalk et al., 1999). This mitigation include activities such as planning which encompasses the identification of hazards and vulnerability and implementation of proactive interventions before disasters occur, and avoiding hazard areas. This process entails a lot of other things such as related to policy for example land uses policies building codes and engineering design, and conserving natural areas are some of the issues needed.

Community Mitigation Capacity (Godschalk, 2003): the more you know, the greater you become resilient therefore access to information(information network) is crucial and building a disaster resilient city goes beyond changing land use and physical facilities as noted in the traditional approaches. The need to build the capacity of the multiple involved communities to anticipate and respond to disasters also determines the success of mitigation. Based on her decade-long study of 11 earthquakes in nine countries, Comfort (1999 as cited in Godschalk, 2003, p.140) argues that:

Because all those in a risk-prone community share both risk exposure and mitigation responsibility, effective threat reduction and disaster response require collective action. [...] advances in information processing and dissemination will facilitate collective learning and self-organization. By linking information technology to organizational learning, we can create a sociotechnical system able to solve shared risk problems.

In this view, disasters develop out of the interaction of extreme event forces with human settlements. Their impacts are mitigated through the capacities of the people in those settlements to anticipate disasters, adjust appropriately, and deal with the consequences of those disasters that occur. (Godschalk, 2003) The most vulnerable are those whose lives are the most constrained, such as the poor, who have the least access to coping resources.

Thus, Bolin and Stanford (1998) perceived disasters as fundamentally social phenomena and to reduce vulnerability, the need to expand society understanding of the unevenly allocate environmental risks are important as do the social and political commitments to promote greater economic equity and environmental justice.

Mitigating for Social and Institutional Resilience: As noted earlier interaction at policies levels between stakeholders of a city is fundamental. To achieve the goal of a resilient city, urban hazard mitigation best practices must include both technical and social approaches. For instance, use of local knowledge or empowering local knowledge could be a best mitigation practice which also

reflects the principles of resilience such as autonomy, interdependence, and adaptability (Godschalk, 2003)

Monitor Vulnerability Reduction: Trailing and obtaining information are part of creating resilient cities. This involves tracking and disseminating the level of progress toward resiliency, such processes inform level of preparedness and capacity consequently allowing room for adjustments. Coupled to this building capacity is enhanced especially with the provision of hazard awareness information, and training to enable them to develop capable leaders and carry out hazard mitigation as one element of their program activities.

Develop Broad Hazard Mitigation Commitment: Commitment requires collaboration and integrated approach that will allow sharing of the work burden or reduce overload on few stakeholders. The need to work (city staff and leaders) with public and private decision makers, nongovernmental organizations, neighborhoods, and households to develop a hazard mitigation ethic yields aggregative results. They would use incentives and sanctions to move mitigation onto the public agenda, keeping hazards issues before the community and holding leaders accountable for hazard mitigation actions.

Drivers to Vulnerability

Most of the disaster problems in developing countries are intertwined and tend to reinforce other existing problems for instance; disasters easily exacerbate problems of poverty and indebtedness by sucking away scarce financial resources from social programs and contributing to food insecurity (Godschalk, 2003).

In urban areas, disasters mostly target the poor, where poor residents are often forced to live in the most undesirable neighborhoods such as slums, dangerous hill slopes and flood prone places and this also to some extent reminiscent to some rural areas. Natural hazards often expose existing vulnerabilities. This in turn is aggravated by human-related activities like, population growth and urbanization, land degradation, and climate change.

The degree of severity varies greatly among the different population characteristics and this puts certain segment of the population at higher risk for injury or death. Women in particular are disproportionately affected by disasters, given their economic situations and roles in the home, as are children and the elderly. Taking the special vulnerabilities and capacities of these groups into

consideration when designing disaster response plans can minimize the physical, social, and economic consequences.

Impacts of Disasters

Disasters present complex challenges, beyond the obvious tasks of improving early warning systems or mobilizing quick relief. They are connected in important ways to a range of social, environmental, and ultimately political challenges faced by humanity, they include the following:

Environmental degradation: Human-induced changes in ecological systems and cycles make certain types of disasters more likely and increase their destructive power. Deforestation heightens the danger of flooding and landslides; inappropriate land use contributes to droughts and desertification; and the destruction of coral reefs, mangroves, and wetlands increases coastal areas' exposure to storms (Godschalk, 2003).

Climate change: The release of massive amounts of carbon into the atmosphere from fossil fuel burning and deforestation further aggravates many of these problems. River deltas and other low-lying areas will be forced to contend with the specter of sea-level rise. Populations already living in areas prone to drought or extreme weather patterns, many of them with limited capacity to adapt and cope will face even greater challenges.

Population and housing: Population growth translates into larger numbers of people potentially living in harm's way, particularly in areas where houses are poorly built (and thus less likely to withstand natural forces). Many people settle, by choice or necessity, in disaster-prone places. With more frequent natural hazards, certain areas are likely to become less habitable or economically viable. This is expected to contribute to more involuntary population movements.

Poverty and inequality: Poorer residents often have little choice about where to live and work. Marginalized by economic and political structures that cater to the more powerful, they may settle in the most vulnerable places on steep hillsides or at low elevations likely to be hit by landslides, floods, or other disasters (Godschalk, 2003). After a disaster happens, the poor are often unable to purchase clean food or water. They will also suffer when money for social programs is diverted for disaster relief and recovery efforts. Disaster can derail progress on international targets for well-being, such as the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals.

Human security and peacemaking: The heavy economic toll and sudden stress imposed by disasters can easily reinforce existing inequalities and may even trigger disputes. On the other hand, when disasters strike in conflict zones, the shared suffering offers an unprecedented opportunity for “humanitarian peacemaking”: a chance to overcome the divisive issues at the heart of long-lasting conflicts. For example, in the days after the 2004 tsunami struck, there was hope among residents of conflict torn Sri Lanka and in Indonesia’s Aceh province that the fateful shift of tectonic plates might translate into a political realignment conducive to making peace (Renner & Chafe, 2007). But this is just one of many possible outcomes when disaster and conflict overlap. Ultimately, the thoughts and actions of the individuals and groups involved in coordinating relief and recovery efforts have a profound effect on the way forward.

Urban Management

When we talk about management, we focus on unique relationship that surrounds the planning process in the real world situations such as politics, and in planning there are varied referent objects for example planning is at the heart of the people, land, infrastructure etc. with the view of eliminating the potentials of vulnerability, risks and other adverse effects (Hazards) that may be expected within the urban environment (Godschalk, 2003). The poor management of urban areas or cities will always result into the hazards, risks and vulnerabilities issues for example sewage systems which causes environmental pollution that in turn affects the healthy living of the surrounding community. It is therefore important to ensure effective measures to reduce expected dangers or our actions within the city.

Hazard risk reduction in cities varies in nature and magnitude and thus, the first and foremost requirement for cities is good holistic urban management. The holistic nature implies that hazard management in cities needs to be seen as an integral part of urban planning and management, not as a separate activity (Renner & Chafe, 2007).

Renner and Chafe (2007) further noted that, while enforcement of zoning laws may limit development in hazardous locations, it can cut poor people off from labor market opportunities by forcing them onto cheaper land far from the city’s economic center. Complementary demand side policies such as reforming land use regulations for higher density growth, rent vouchers or improving access to housing finance can help informal sector residents move into better quality

dwelling. Investments in affordable transport integrate lower cost residential areas and expand a city's economic reach creating a larger integrated labor and housing market.

With good transport services, households do not need to locate in informal settlements in hazard-prone parts of the city. However, it depends on the nature of growth a city takes. For instance proponents of compact city who advocate for eco city paradigms that promote what Gehl (2010) describes as; lively city, safe city, sustainable city and healthy city in order to strengthen the concern for pedestrians, cyclists and city life in general may be limited.

Local governments must develop the capacity to balance the need for flexible land use management with the enforcement of zoning and building standards.

Expected Learning Outcome:

At the end of the course, the students will have strengthened their: capacity to analyze, synthesize and assess risk, hazards and vulnerability and their underlying social and economic dimensions to urban development, Comprehension and application of the main tools of prevention, mitigation and adaptation and understanding of the relationship between disasters and conflicts, as well as the peace processes linked to disaster and urbanization. The students will also be motivated to replicate in their future activities the values consistent with several principles of sustainability: maintain and enhance quality of life; enhance economic vitality; ensure social and intergenerational equity; use a consensus-building, participatory process when making decisions; and develop a culture of solidarity.

Session Methodology:

Methodology & Teaching/ facilitating strategies	Time	Resources	Activities guidelines
Recap and animation	10mins	Audio visual or flip charts and marker pens	The students group of recap presents the recap of the last lecture and the animation group reminded of the animation during the class.
Interactive Lecture and case study presentation (Uganda associated resilient, risk,	60mins		Question and answer led discussion on the key resiliency issues and interventions.

hazard and disaster concerns and interventions)			Challenges and Uganda's preparedness
Plenary discussions and presentation (brainstorming and discussion)	100mins		General Reflection on the presentations and action points
Synthesis and takeaways	10mins		Students take a personal reflection and analysis of the most striking concepts. Mention what they learnt during the class as takeaway

Session Evaluation:

- Takeaways
- Daily synthesis

Readings:

Required Readings

Godschalk, D. R. (2003). Urban Hazard Mitigation: Creating Resilient Cities. *Natural Hazards Review* 4, 136-143.

Renner, M., & Chafe, Z. (2007). Beyond Disasters Creating Opportunities for Peace. In M. Lisa (Ed.), *World Watch Report*. Washington DC, World watch Institute.

Recommended Readings

Cardona O. D. (2003). The Need for Re-Thinking the Concepts of Vulnerability and Risk from a Holistic Perspective: A Necessary Review and Criticism for Effective Risk Management. In G. Bankoff, G. Frerks & D. Hilhorst (Eds.), *Mapping Vulnerability: Disasters, Development and People*. London: Earthscan.

Henry, J. L. (1980). Urban Design and Hazards. *Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture*, 33(4), 9-20.

Kulabako, N. R., Nalubega, M., & Thunvik, R. (2007) Study of The Impact of Land Use and Hydrogeological Settings on the Shallow Groundwater Quality in a Peri-Urban Area of Kampala, Uganda. *Science of the Total Environment*, 381, 180–199

Session 6: Urban Social Problems

Learning Objectives:

- To understand the root causes of urban poverty and role of urbanization in exacerbating poverty.
- To critically investigate the theories behind urban poverty and slums.
- To identify and construct self-knowledge on urban poverty and slums.

Content:

Urbanization comes with both great opportunities and threats or challenges especially to the urban growth and development. The challenges herein referred to as the social problems have tested and continue to test the potentiality of most urban management especially more of concern is the developing countries. Unlike before the 1980's and early 1990's, poverty as a social problem was known to be a rural phenomenon but today, more poverty concerns are becoming urban situated. Given the complexity of urban growth brought about by rapid urbanization, poverty will remain and continue to become concerns of our management processes.

However, there arise and continues to be, a controversy in defining urban social problems in general. For instance, what poverty is all about and how the concept of poverty can be looked at to influence decision making.

Poverty

There are varied ways poverty has been defined but most of the definitions associate poverty with terms such as a lack of or inadequacy or deficiency of the requirements for human survival and welfare or wellbeing (Wratten, 2005). There are different approaches advanced to defining poverty and the different ways of defining poverty according to Wratten (2005, p.12) include; “conventional economic definitions and alternative interpretations developed largely by rural anthropologists and social planners working with poor rural communities in the Third World, and expand the definition to encompass perceptions of non-material deprivation and social differentiation”.

Conventionally, poverty has been defined under three concerns. First, based on income or consumption patterns, secondly, in terms of absoluteness and relativeness and lastly, based on the social indicators in that given situation.

The first conventional concept prescribes that, in the economic world, there is the argument that, the human welfare can either be adequately described by income alone or not (Wratten, 1995). Yet, in practice, income (or consumption) is the most frequently used proxy for welfare. This is because in the current market driven economies, lack of income is highly linked with other causes of poverty and is a predictor of future problems of deprivation.

Underlying the economists' concept of poverty is the idea of merit goods: goods that society agrees are necessary, and is prepared to ensure that members of society can achieve. This is less problematic in the North, where poverty is generally a minority problem, than in the South, where it can be argued that the majority fails to achieve the minimum acceptable standard of living and that society lacks the capacity to make good the deficit (Wratten, 1995).

Income is defined as command over resources over time or as the level of consumption that can be afforded while retaining capital intact (David, 1993) People are classified as poor when their income (or consumption) is less than that required to meet certain defined needs (Wratten, 1995). For example, the World Bank's World Development Report (World Bank, 1990) uses two income cut-off points or poverty lines: those with an income per capita of below US\$ 370 per year (at 1985 purchasing power parity) are deemed poor, while those with less than US \$275 per year are extremely poor (Portes et al., 1989; Wratten, 1995).

Secondly, most commonly used definitions fall under the framework of absolute versus relative spectrum. If poverty is defined in absolute terms, needs are considered to be fixed at a level which provides for subsistence, basic household equipment, and expenditure on essential services such as water, sanitation, health, education and transport. The absolute definition has to be adjusted periodically to take account of technological developments such as improved methods of sanitation otherwise, it does not describe the extent of income inequality within society nor the fact that needs are socially determined and change over time.

Just as the name suggests, relative poverty is more elastic, permitting for minimum needs to be revised as standards of living in society alter. It views poverty as imposing withdrawal or exclusion

from active membership of society: “people are relatively deprived if they cannot obtain the conditions of life – that is the diets, amenities, standards and services – which allow them to play the roles, participate in the relationships and follow the customary behaviour which is expected of them by virtue of their membership of society”(Townsend, 1993, p.36).

Thirdly, the social indicators concept of conventional poverty entails that because many aspects of well-being cannot be captured adequately by income or consumption-based measures, supplementary social indicators are sometimes used to define poverty, such as life expectancy, infant mortality, nutrition, the proportion of the household budget spent on food, literacy, school enrolment rates, access to health clinics or drinking water. However, Where a range of indicators are used to describe poverty, as in the World Bank’s World Development Report (World Bank, 1990) the different variables may tell conflicting stories about the pattern of deprivation. Thus, in practice, income and consumption measures remain the key way in which poverty is defined (Wratten, 1995). More developments continue to surface, especially to overcome this conflicting scenarios, composite poverty indices have been developed which combine several weighted variables. For example, the UNDP’s Human Development Index aggregates income, literacy and life expectancy into a single measure of the standard of living with a scale of values ranging from zero to one, along which countries can be ranked (Ravi, 1994).

Contrary to the conventional definitions, participatory definitions have also come into force to reinforce or complicate the concepts of poverty depending on one’s interpretation. As in the participatory social development definition, poverty is multi-faceted and its definition varies between individuals (Wratten, 1995). Therefore, participatory definitions allow for flexibility in local perceptions of poverty and view it in non-material as well as physical terms (Wratten, 1995).

It acknowledges the need for comparison for policy decision making while defining poverty because they provide a uniform scale against which comparisons can be made of the incidence of poverty in different sub-populations (urban and rural; urban populations living in different parts of the city; male and female headed households; old and young, etc.) or of the same population over time.

It further recognizes the weakness of using income as an indicator because income is commonly analyzed at the household level. However the need to looking at the individual members of a household are important because they do not have equal command over resources, and those with low entitlement to consume resources (due, for example, to their age, gender or social status) may be hidden within relatively prosperous households.

Therefore, due to the relativeness of poverty, defining poverty take great contextual issues implying that efforts to define the urban poor should be inconsiderate to contextual factors. For instance, In the UK and USA, the term “urban poverty” is often used specifically to refer to deliberations of deprivation in inner-city areas. However, Mungen’s comparative study of social deprivation in inner cities different case in the mainland Europe, where inner-city poverty is regarded as the predominant question of marginalization rather than as a single issue (Wratten, 1995)

Causes of Poverty

In the 1980s, the growth models reemerged in new forms, with pressure from the World Bank and bilateral development agencies for macro-economic reforms which would facilitate private sector development. This approach is mirrored by the World Bank’s latest policy paper for the urban sector (Wratten, 1995, p.31) which attributes the causes of urban poverty largely to “...structural constraints and inefficiencies in the urban economy including excessive protection of capital-intensive industry, ineffective public policies and weak public institutions”, and argues that “...poverty reduction is possible in part through improving productivity at the individual, household, firm, and urban levels”. The previous emphasis on housing and infrastructure projects (outlined by the World Bank Task Force on Poverty) has given way to interventions designed to strengthen citywide economic management, deregulation of the private sector, increased social sector expenditure for human resource development of the urban poor by providing basic services in education, health, nutrition, family planning and vocational training, and support for the voluntary sector.

Currently, many small cities lack the necessary institutional capacity to be able to manage their rapidly growing populations. As cities grow and evolve, the task of managing them becomes ever more complex. In addition, the nature and tasks of urban management and governance are also undergoing fundamental change. The policy and program environment has been altered in many countries as national governments have decentralized service delivery and revenue-raising to lower tiers of government. In the areas of health, education, and poverty alleviation, many national governments have begun to allow hitherto untested local governments to operate the levers of policy and programs. At present, few small city local governments are equipped with the technical and managerial expertise they need to take on these new responsibilities.

As Cohen (2006) notes, small cities have the advantage and time to address residents' basic needs and services such as infrastructure before the service gap becomes great. This is because the small cities that are first growing offer the opportunities to transcend old technologies and thus implementation of efficient, ecologically-sound practices that help shape sustainable city futures become efficient (Cohen, 2006).

Urban Poverty

Urban poverty is expected to increase over the next decades as the urbanization increases, and this may be attributed to the population shift to urban areas which is likely to increase pressure on the existing urban services (Cohen, 2006). As noted by UN publications, developing countries have slow growth rate compared to their rate of urbanization, yet the economies struggle to provide services to already existing population. Historically, the development literature has engaged in the inequalities between poor rural and wealthy urban populations, and the linkages between urbanization, the spread of capitalism and poverty (Wratten, 1995).

During the colonial times as in Lewis (1958), there was a strong assumption that poverty in the south could be solved through urbanization and it further envisioned that through the transfer of labour from low-productivity subsistence agriculture to high productivity modern industry would solve the south poverty, however, the persistent south poverty has resulted into questioning efficaciousness of the assumption, whereas after the decades of modernization policies, the expected benefits of growth that would have trickled down to population had not trickled down to the rural areas where the mass of the population still lived (Wratten, 1995; Friedman, 2006; Ansari, 2007) and instead showing a greater inequality (Rodrik, 2001) This consequently have been exacerbated by the increasing population shifts in urban areas as noted in the UN reports.

The 1970s show radical decline in real urban wages, halving the real income levels in many cases and steady corrosion of urban employment levels, security and benefits. This triggered the disappearance of public and employer housing systems (Wratten, 1995). This on the other hand reduced the urban–rural income differential sharply evidently in some nations (Tanzania, Uganda and Ghana), which was actually reversed (Weeks, 1986; Philip & Lloyd, 1990) this is also evident in some Asian countries for instance, the falling urban living standards and a narrowing gap between poverty in rural and urban areas was also sighted in Bangladesh (Francis, 1991; Wratten, 1995).

The recent urban population and growth trends have not only pose challenge to urban management, but also the big threat of evolution of the new urban poverty which is taking a non-linear historical process remains the blockage. Poverty is a stress factor in dealing with other urban issues, thus, large poor population exacerbates general urban problems.

Balogun (1995) attributed poverty to the structural adjustment policies in the mid-80s by equating it to a great natural catastrophe, destroying forever the old soul of Lagos and 're-enslaving' urban Nigerians. Balogun noted (1995, p. 80):

The weird logic of this economic programme seemed to be that to restore life to the dying economy; every juice had first to be sapped out of the underprivileged majority of the citizens. The middle class rapidly disappeared, and the garbage heaps of the increasingly rich few became the food table of the multiplied population of abjectly poor. The brain drain to the oil-rich Arab countries and to the Western world became a flood.

Indeed the arguments and criticism about 'privatizing' continues to affect the productivity of the urban business community who are outcompeted by powerful multinationals and wealthy foreign investments. In the same mid-1980s, when the IMF and World Bank policies went into force, the economies of most of the developing world begun experiencing rapid slums with a ruthless future, and today millions of traditional urbanites, have been and continues to conflict of the policy.

Urban poverty reduction is not just a matter of looking poverty from one lens but rather, it should be recognized as a stress factor to general urban management. All development interventions should cover all the vulnerable and policy interventions must focus on reducing inequalities, whose consequences if not managed are great. For instance, the rising income in China's coastal cities, China's market 'miracle' was purchased by an enormous increase in wage inequality among urban women and minorities were especially disadvantaged (Wratten, 1995). And this further frustrate other development interventions.

Slums

Historical Trends

Questions still exist on the key features of what constitute a slum, however, the 'classic slum' was a notoriously parochial and attractively local place, but reformers generally agreed with Charles Booth

on what characterized slums; notably the characteristics included an amalgam of dilapidated housing, overcrowding, poverty and vice (Davis, 2004).

However, authors in the field of slum still preserve the classical definition: overcrowding, poor or informal housing, inadequate access to safe water and sanitation, and insecurity of tenure. (Slums, 2003).

Slum ecology as it is today, revolves around the supply of settlement space. Thus the space factor is the premise behind the slum ideology. Moreover, illegally, squatting, land tenure issues often characterized the whole slum scenario, where slum dwellers are believed to illegally settle or occupy property (Winter King, 2003); and lack of land titles on which they squat. However, it should be noted that, albeit its history dated back in classical times indicated international phenomenon; the temporal and scale factors often exist and makes the difference (Davis, 2004, pp.15-16):

The modes of slum settlement vary across a huge spectrum, from highly disciplined land invasions in Mexico City and Lima to intricately organized (but often illegal) rental markets on the outskirts of Beijing, Karachi and Nairobi. Even in cities like Karachi, where the urban periphery is formally owned by the government, 'vast profits from land speculation . . . continue to accrue to the private sector at the expense of low-income households' (United Nations, 1988).

This phenomenon is evident today, exacerbated by the neoliberalism, discussed in the later sessions. Politicization often revolve around the slum phenomenon; in certain instances, it's quite often at one point to defend slum dwellers by politicians claiming support for their voters and on the other hand limiting the technocrats' effort to degazette slums from the urban centers. This controversy often surrounds the slum discourse which consequently leaves the slum dwellers at the discretion of their political leaders as noted by Davis (2004), politician at both national and local level usually comply with informal settlements (and illegal private speculations) as long as they can control the informal settlements and can obtain regular bribes from them. This leaves the slum dwellers, who often lack formal land titles or home ownership, at the mercy of the leaders to whom they are always loyal to for the fear of eviction and subsequently depend upon the local and national officials for their survival in the informal settlements.

Causes of Slums

As noted in Davis (2004, pp. 10 - 11):

The global forces ‘pushing’ people from the countryside—mechanization in Java and India, food imports in Mexico, Haiti and Kenya, civil war and drought throughout Africa, and everywhere the consolidation of small into large holdings and the competition of industrial-scale agribusiness—seem to sustain urbanization even when the ‘pull’ of the city is drastically weakened by debt and depression (Harris, 1990). At the same time, rapid urban growth in the context of structural adjustment, currency devaluation and state retrenchment has been an inevitable recipe for the mass production of slums (Gugler, 1997).

As noted above, today, every day we observe the influx of hundreds of new people to the cities of many countries both developed and developing. But why do people move to cities as opposed to their areas has often be put into two factors namely the pull factor and the push factor. As cities urbanize, people are moving to places where there are or perceived to have jobs and opportunities as cities become the new centers of jobs and opportunities and this is one of the pool factors as noted by Davis (2004). As cities develop faster, they become the center of economic activities, the central business district (CBD) and this pull people from different place in search of opportunities and market for their businesses and some end up in slums which are low cost housing .

More so everything that is transacted in urban areas involves money unlike in rural areas. Coupled to this access to basic services like health, education etc. are more shift in cities than other areas.

There are also some push factors working in the process of migration to the cities, in reference to Uganda’s capital Kampala, many slums are the result insurgencies that ravaged the country between 1980’s up to mid-2000. more so the result of the structural adjustment policies led to the modernization and free market systems which in term weakened the farmers, local producers for example the abolition of trade unions weakened the formers’ productivity in Uganda, thus some migrate to cities in search of alternative livelihood unfortunately, due to high costs in cities many end up in slums. There are also other push factors resulting from natural hazards for example; flood, drought, failure in agricultural outcomes every year among others which push people in search of alternative cities thus the possibility of ending up in slums.

The Challenge of the Slums; First Truly Global Audit of Urban Poverty

There is still considerable debate as to what is the cause of slum; many theories have evolved which have to some extent help un-earth the underpinnings of slum ideology. At one point ‘the

Washington Consensus types (World Bank, IMF, etc.) defines the problem of global slums not as a result of globalization and inequality but rather as a result of “bad governance” (Davis, 2004). However, recent research breaks with traditional un-cautioned neoliberalism, especially the IMF’s structural adjustment programmes (Davis, 2004). The primary direction of both national and international interventions as noted by Davis (2004) during the last twenty years especially through the IMF’s conditions has actually increased urban poverty and slums, increased exclusion and inequality, and weakened urban elites in their efforts to use cities as engines of growth.

In the face of rapid growing slums, some of the most important land-use issues arising from super-urbanization and informal settlement, including sprawl, environmental degradation, and urban hazards have all become complex and neglected. Moreover, this has made it much harder for economies to explore the gender dimensions of urban poverty and informal employment. The informal sector in developing countries which are not reflected in GDPs often constitute large percentages of population from slums, thus continuous research is decisive for effective slum management. Given the reports and trends for instance, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change reports implying the slums stands at risk of global catastrophe of urban poverty (Davis, 2004).

Impacts of slums

Given the trends in discourse, slums are located and continue to expand in harmony with the urban spatial and sprawl explosion. As cities expand today, slums are part and partial of its characteristics. For instance, the horizontal growth of cities like Mexico, Lagos or Jakarta, has been astonishing. The phenomenon of ‘slum sprawl’ has become more of a problem in the developing world as suburban sprawl in the rich countries (Davis, 2004).

For example, in 2003, the Governor of Lagos State told reporters that ‘about two thirds of the state’s total land mass of 3,577 square kilometers could be classified as shanties or slums’ (Daily Times of Nigeria, 2003 as cited in Davis, 2004). And this indeed corresponds to report of a UN correspondent (Otchet, 1999, p.50):

Much of the city is a mystery . . . unlit highways run past canyons of smouldering garbage before giving way to dirt streets weaving through 200 slums, their sewers running with raw waste . . . No one even knows for sure the size of the population—officially it is 6 million,

but most experts estimate it at 10 million—let alone the number of murders each year [or] the rate of HIV infection.

Such big numbers impact on the consumption and production pattern of a city greatly, probably creating a continuous footprint of urban poverty. Thus slum is associated to the supply of settlement space (Davis, 2004).

One sure and evident impact of slums relates to the provision of sustenance infrastructures, yet, this lags far behind the pace of urbanization and economic growth. As noted above, the peri-urban slum areas often have no formal utilities or sanitation provision albeit it has provided chance for informal businesses such as petty trade in water, food stuff etc. this varies in context and situation for example, most poor areas of Latin American cities have better utilities than South Asia which, in turn, usually have minimum urban services, like water and electricity, that many African slums lack (Davis, 2004).

Since urban or city is a contested space where forces of market crucial applies and influences every process, the land tenure system often favour the rich, while pushing the poor who do not have security of tenure to the peripheries. This thus, forces the urban poor, to settle on hazardous, unbuildable terrains—over-steep hill slopes, river banks and floodplains (Davis, 2004). As in developing countries, squatting in the deadly shadows of refineries, chemical factories, toxic dumps, or in the margins of railroads and highways become inevitable and order of livelihood thus, subsequently exposure to hazards.

Just as urbanization, proper management of already existing slums while limiting further expansion and regeneration of slums ought to be our focus in the contemporary urban development. Looking at slums from a positive perspective will help enrich our interest for positive development. Slums although risky and insecure place, will continue and urban centers will contain the majority of the world's poor, but that doubtful title will pass to urban slums by 2035 (Ravallion, 2001) At least half of the coming Third World urban population explosion will be credited to the account of informal communities. Slum often overlap with urban poverty, however, urban poverty often exceed the slum scenario as warned in the UN 'Urban Observatory' research, that by 2020 'urban poverty in the world could reach 45 to 50 per cent of the total population living in cities'(Slums of the World, 2003).

Thus, the need to explore further contextual issues and continuous research is crucial for effective urbanization.

Expected Learning Outcome:

At the end of this session, the participants are expected to understand the root causes of urban poverty and role of urbanization in promoting poverty; critically investigate the theories behind urban poverty and slum phenomenon and identify and construct self-knowledge on the poverty and slum concepts for informed decision making along the subsequent problems.

Session Methodology:

Methodology & Teaching/ facilitating strategies	Time	Resources	Activities guidelines
Recap and animation	10mins	Audio visual or flip charts and maker pens	The students group of recap presents the recap of the last lecture and the animation group reminded of the animation during the class.
Interactive Lecture and introduction to brainstorming session on poverty and slum trends in cities through Video clips and pop culture.	40mins		Question and answer led discussion on the poverty and slum issues and assign students to discuss how poverty, slum affect urban growth and factors behind urban poverty and slums.
Plenary discussions and presentation (brainstorming and discussion)	120 min		Groups present and discuss issues brainstormed above and present general Reflection on the topic of presentations and action points
Synthesis and takeaways	10mins		Students take a personal reflection and analysis of the most striking concepts. Mention what they learnt during the class as takeaway

Session Evaluation:

- Minute paper and synthesis
- Takeaways

Readings:**Required Readings**

Davis, M. (2004). Planet of Slums Urban Involution and the Informal Proletariat. *New Left Review*. No. 26, pp. 5-34.

Potts, D. (1995). Shall we go home? Increasing Urban Poverty in African Cities and Migration Processes. *The Geographical Journal*, 161(3), 245-264.

Wratten, E. (1995). Conceptualizing urban poverty. *Environment and Urbanization*, 7, 11-38.

Recommended Readings

Davis, M. (2006). *Planet of Slums*. London: Verso, pp. 121-150.

Global Urban Observatory. (2003). *Slums of the World: The face of urban poverty in the new millennium?*, New York. UN-Habitat.

Hobsbawm, E. J. (2005). Cities and Insurrections. *Global Urban Development*, 1(1), 1-8.

Session 7: Urbanization, Crime and Violence

Learning Objectives:

- To analyze the complexities of urbanization as a matrix of violence.
- To analyze urban violence and crime as hazards in the context of both risk and social inequity.

Content:

Defining the Crime and Violence Concepts

The topics of crime and violence are very broad and difficult to define. Society often defines crime from a strictly legal point of view as the commission of any act prohibited by criminal law or the omission of any action required by it.

What is violence? Brennan-Galvin (2002, p. 126) look at violence from this perspective:

Violence is the unlawful exercise of physical force, usually causing or intending to cause injury. Definition of criminal behavior, the seriousness attributed to it and the punishment considered appropriate differ widely among nations. Such definitions are determined less at times by objective indicators of the degree of injury or damage than by cultural values and power relationships.

The root of violence traces to the Latin word *violare*, 'to violate' which puts it more precise and significant to understand (Eller, 2006).

According to Bowman (2001, p.25) the violation entails more elements and expands this notion of violation to encompass elements such as; To break, infringe, or transgress unjustifiably; To ravish or outrage (especially a woman); To treat irrelevantly, to desecrate, dishonor, profane, or defile; To vitiate, corrupt, or spoil; To treat roughly, to assail or abuse; and to break open, to interrupt or disturb, to interfere with rudely or roughly (Eller, 2006).

Just as the variation and contextual definitions, violence can be categorized into different elements or components which help to provide in-depth understanding of violence.

At one point, Violence can generally be divided into three categories as noted by Brennan-Galvin,

(2002)

- a) Political violence. Such as guerilla conflict, paramilitary conflict, political assassinations, armed conflict between political parties.
- b) Economic violence. Such as street crime, carjacking, robbery/theft, drug trafficking, kidnapping, trafficking in humans.
- c) Social violence. Such as interpersonal violence such as spouse and child abuse, sexual assault of women and children – each identified in terms of the type of motivation that consciously or unconsciously uses violence to gain or maintain power.

However, these are not the only categorization; there is also structural violence, which pertain circumstances under which peoples are deprived of their choices which consequently expose them to social vulnerability for example, prejudice and discrimination against service provision condemn people to poverty (Gultung, 1969). Similarly, all these categories are not mutually exclusive, as the kidnapping of an executive, for example, may be a political statement or means of raising money (Moser & Emma, 1999).

On the other hand, Eller (2006) argues some key components of any approach to violence to include the following;

- Force and the different kinds of force; this might be lack of options or lack of freedom to exercise options and as noted above, this covers the structural violence.
- Intentions, or the subjective state of the perpetrator; this is evident in legal systems where judges get the state of mind of defendant (accused) to check intentionality or accidentally of injury.
- Personhood, or whether only persons can be agents or victims of violence.
- Rationality/irrationality, or whether violence involves or requires a loss of control and of 'clear thinking' whether it is 'meaningless'; this component is critical and is largely a matter of our illusion about crime and violence, it is a way of distancing ourselves from violence, of making violent people 'the other'. this concept of the other while legitimizing ourselves greatly influences the violence and crime.
- Legitimacy/deviance, or whether some injurious actions are acceptable and normal, and under what conditions we make the distinction.
- Perspective, or whether all parties in the situation observe and evaluate the situation in the

same way.

Therefore, based on the two perspectives, defining violence vary greatly among different contexts and situation, depending on our definitions, we may be right and at sometimes wrong. It is vital to be conscious as we go about describing violence, emphasis in taking preference on what is right for the well being the urban community while eliminating biases ought to be the best approach to defining violence.

Contextualizing Urban Crime and Violence

What factors drive urban crime and violence? Is often a good question to start with, We have witnessed Rapid rate of urban population growth with growth in many developing-country cities now coming from combined factors of natural increase and re-classification, large-scale in-migration and globalization. However, this is not the only driving force, as in Brennan-Galvin, (2002) other factors are also significant as below:

For instance, In Latin America, (Gaviria & Pages, 1995) show that, on average, an increase of one percentage point in the rate of population growth in a number of Latin American cities increased the probability of crime victimization by almost 1.5percent suggesting that rapid urban growth might diminish the effectiveness of law enforcement institutions.

Despite scanty data on violent and crime related issues in most developing countries, and little cross-county evidence, density also plays a key role for high crime and violence rates. This is due to crowd and competition for space where crowding intensifies anti-social behavior and facilitates anonymity and imitation of violent acts (Buvinic & Marrison, 2000). Similarly, it is easy to justify ones position as legitimate by branding 'the other' as the wrong element in concentrated areas.

Coupled to this, it is often prescribed that rioters are the voice of the voiceless and such riots are forms of violence particularly suited to the densely populated urban environment. Since most urban centers are the Administrative and Central Business District (CBD), they facilitate and provide ideal place to ensure the possibility of protests reach the ears of those in power – who themselves tend to live or located in urban areas.

It is often noticed that the young are violent, as Brennan-Galvin (2002) noted; age structure appears to be a significant causative factor in crime and violence. Demographic trends in many developing countries boost the segment of the population – males between 15 and 24 years of age – that are

main perpetrators and victims of political and economic violence. This is worsened if this segment is unemployed or lacks livelihood opportunities.

Due to rapid urbanization, the need and interest to live in an urban area in search for better social services and opportunities like employment are often high, rural-to-urban migration cannot be ignored as the UN recent reports have shown rapid urban population rise with rural-urban migration being one. In this movement process to cities and towns, there are fundamental changes in traditional structures and customs. Especially in the globalised world today, the family and religion as a social agent for change has particularly been challenged by emerging new value systems which no longer reinforce norm-conforming behavior, especially among urban youth (Kiedrowski & Ottawa, 1998; Brennan-Galvin, 2002).

Theories Explaining Causes of Urban Violence

There is often diversity and contradiction in the literature depending on who writes it and from what context. The 1960s show crime and development encompassed a modernization perspective, where young male migrants as individuals were unable to cope with urban anomie thus probability of turning to crime and violence.

In another related scenario, dependency approach in the 1970s shifted from individual to institutional and structural causes. As noted before, structural violence is assumed here. With levels of crime and violence apparently an outcome of inequality, discrimination etc., creating unequal power relations both between countries and within them, transcends to colonial law systems. (Brennan-Galvin, 2002) Crime and violence were thus viewed as a form of resistance among economically and socially disadvantaged individuals (Moser & Grant, 2000).

Later on scholars debated on two perspectives of whether violence would precede the heat of migration or erupt after certain periods of migrants into the urban environment (Gizewski & Homer-Dixon, 1995).

Imperatively, the debate translated to different conclusion as noted by Brennan-Galvin, (2002 p.132):

Early arguments warned of “Disruptive migrants,” torn from rural roots, isolated in the city and prone to violence and extremism as a result of increasing disillusionment with urban life.

Later arguments suggested that violence was more likely after migrants had become more

firmly established.

Just as conflict is a process characterized by growth like feature from source, escalation, violent act, stalemate and de-escalation etc., socialization period was also important for transforming migrants into “radicalized marginal.” Gizewski and Homer-Dixon, (1995, p.28) suggest that:

The idea can be extended into the future, when a large majority of people will have been born in cities and when urban life will represent the only arena of comparison for the masses. In the context of economic stagnation of recession, relative differences between rich and poor in the city, and between different ethnic groups and classes, will become ever more salient, leading to increasing feelings of relative deprivation.

Underlying Factors Causing Urban Crime and Violence

Crime and violence are interdisciplinary phenomenon which cuts across a wider range of disciplines. This implies that, they can be explained from different professional disciplines such as criminology, epistemology, and community development. However, the main challenge to conceptualizing crime and violence based on such disciplines remains in the difference of cross country data which makes comparability difficult.

The following factors drive crime and violence in urban areas;

Poverty; perpetuation of poverty evidenced in the inadequacy of incomes, exacerbated with poor and overcrowded housing and living conditions and insecure tenure, presents a contested ground as people struggle for survival subsequently providing fertile ground for violence. Epistemological studies and police figures indicate murder and violence cases are reminiscent to areas with high prostitution, drug dealing, low-income housing, unemployment, single-parent families and school desertion and this become self-perpetuating factor (Buvinic & Morrison 2000).

Cosmopolitan; urban areas are becoming more of a global village with likelihood of a heterogeneous, mixed society with different faiths, social identity, language, political, economic or ethnic issues and these provides basis for conflict when one of the interest of groups are diverted. Much as poverty, inequality and social exclusion partly explain the scale of urban crime and violence, cultural bonds under the global village have been destroyed. The local traditions and values and degree of social cohesion and solidarity among urban communities, in many cities have been

significantly weakened. This stands a fierce rivalry with the rapid communications technology, widening income gaps among and within countries are becoming more starkly visible (Buvinic & Morrison, 2000).

Infrastructure and resources; Urbanization especially with regards to developing countries is faster than the rate of growth of the economies, meaning the increased population over weighs the basic services required by it. The Shortage of facilities and intense competition for limited resources precipitate crime and violence behaviours in developing country cities (Moser & Grand, 2000).

In sub-Saharan Africa, for example, small towns have rapidly developed into modern city overnight without much infrastructure to sustain their large population. This has in turn resulted into social problems such as scarcity of natural capital such as land and water which breed high levels of conflict among neighbours and communities (Moser & Grand, 2000).

In urban slums throughout the world, share water is one of the greatest sources of violence; privatization may even exacerbate the situation. Likewise, in worldwide climate of deregulation, interpersonal violence in many cities is linked to fierce competition in informal sector activities such as market stalls or transport (Moser & Grand 2000; Brennan-Galvin, 2002).

Small arm proliferation; the more accessible and availability a weapons is, the more likelihood of a societies becoming violent. In Brennan-Galvin, (2002 p. 145):

A study on urban insurgency concluded that the proliferation of weapons in cities in the developing world – including small arms. Machine guns, rocket-propelled grenades and plastic explosive – is facilitating the growth of insurgency and heightening the potential for other forms of political violence, such as terrorism (Monica, 1994; Morrison & Hoffmann, 2004).

Therefore, the more idle, unemployed the population is, the likelihood of crime and violence, this present the need to engage in any venture with aim of earning a living out of it. Both as labour and as a consumer market, the motivation to earn easy money is strong, exacerbated by low salaries and a scarcity of jobs (Brennan-Galvin, 2002).

Impacts of Crime and Violence

Crime and violence impacts are greatly felt across a multi-disciplinary sphere and some of the

impacts include the following (Brennan-Galvin, 2002);

The costs of urban violence and crime are vast worldwide; the economic and social costs of urban crime and violence trends from the inner cities of the developed world to peri-urban slums ringing most developing-country cities (Brennan-Galvin, 2002). The direct costs of crime and violence and the associated losses due to death, disabilities and property crimes are tremendous and in many countries can be measured as percentages of GNP or GDP (Moser & Grand, 2000).

The economic costs often great and goes beyond the mere economic aspects. As previously noted, erosion of social capital, which acts as check and balances within the community has created serious implications for urban governance. Example of this include, the violence-linked drug industry which erodes the state by corrupting institutions (including the judiciary, the media and even security forces) and co-opting segments of the population.

Violence and crime also take the form of transforming the outlook of many urban areas/cities. Especially, violence and crime have drastically changed the livelihood patterns of most urban dwellers, most notably; people from all social classes fortify their homes and change their habits as a result of violence (Brennan-Galvin, 2002). Moreover, the insecurity in some cities has also changed peoples' movement and consequently affecting the use of public transport and in political spheres distracting public from use of the public spaces.

Case studies:

Discussion: Lessons learnt from the London riots (theoretical dimensions)

The case study of Kampala city and other urban centers in Uganda (to be decided upon considerable academic relevance and to be provided on a separate sheet of paper during this session)

Expected Learning Outcome:

- Critically understand and analyze the theories underlying the discourse of crime and violence in urbanizing world.
- Identify the relationship between cause and solution matrix of crime and violence.

Session Methodology:

Methodology & Teaching/ facilitating strategies	Time	Resources	Activities guidelines
Recap and animation	10mins	Audio visual or flip charts and marker pens	The students group of recap presents the recap of the last lecture and the animation group reminded of the animation during the class.
Interactive Lecture and case study presentation (Uganda urban environmental challenges)	40mins		Question and answer led discussion on the urbanization, violence and crime scenarios
Group discussion and presentations on the Ugandan case study crimes situation of the provides urban locality	40mins		Group discuss urbanization and crime and violence issues based on local context (case study) and its discourses and present them to class
Plenary discussions and presentation (brainstorming and discussion)	50mins		General Reflection on the presentations and action points
Synthesis and takeaways	10mins		Students take a personal reflection and analysis of the most striking concepts. Mention what they learnt during the class as takeaway

Session Evaluation:

- Daily synthesis and Minute paper
- Takeaways

Readings:

Required Reading

Brennan-Galvin, E. (2002). Crime and Violence in an Urbanizing World, *Journal of International Affairs*, 56, 122 – 145.

United Nation Human Settlement Programme. (2007). *Enhancing Urban Safety and Security: Crime and Violence*. London, Sterling, VA. Earthscan. pp. 43-108.

Recommended Reading.

Witte, A.D. (1996). *Urban crime: Issues and policies*. *Housing Policy Debate* 7(4). Fannie Mae Foundation.

Eller, J. D. (2006). Violence and Culture: Across-cultural and interdisciplinary Approach, Chapter 5: Gender and Intimate Violence, pp. 115-147

Session 8: Human Security and Urban Safety

Learning Objectives:

- Understand the evolution and dynamic concepts of security.
- Situate human security in context of urban safety.
- Identify alternative approach to urban peace apart from the traditional forms of human security approach.
- Develop critical skills in analyzing human security issues in context of rapid urbanization and urban divide.

Content:

Human security provides urban safety and urban safety is a source of human security, these two terms are reminiscent to each other and reinforces each other one way or the other, focusing on both as a systemic concept yields aggregative success to urban peace building. But first what is the concept of human security? And how did it evolve? Is very important to understand the main themes of the concept.

Historical Dimension of Human Security.

The root of human security comes after the reconceptualization of the broader concept of security since 1990; end of cold war, globalization and global environmental change as a result this transition has led to the widening of security concept from political to military to economics, societal and environmental dimensions, deepened from state centered national security to human centered concepts of human security, categorized into food, health, soil securities.

In the early 21st century a conceptual quartet exists of security, peace, development and environment and its manifold linkages. Globalization has posed multiple new threats by non-state actors of *personal violence* (terrorism) and *structural violence* (financial crises in Mexico, Asia and global) that contributed to a 'structural terrorism'.

Concept of security is as such comparable to the terminology of peace and has been valued and is a goal activity to many nation states, sectorial and non-state actors to justify or legitimize budgeting and public spending.

Historically, the word has many different roots and meanings in different cultures meaning it is situated according to the different knowledge and context. In the western tradition the roman and Christian thinking had a lasting impact on contemporary security concepts.

The political and scientific concepts of security have changed with the modifications in international order. With the covenant (1919) the concept of 'collective security' was introduced, after the world war II the concept of national security was launched to legitimize the global US role and after 1990 the security concepts widened and new concepts such as 'human', 'environmental', and many sectorial security concepts were added to policy agenda.

The concept of security also take the form of peace, the new agenda of peace research entails both the negative peace as absence of wars and other types of physical violence and on positive peace (Gultang, 1969), as social progress but also the elimination of poverty and injustice and the symbiotic relationship between positive and negative peace would not be understood without having a broad notion of human security. Referring to Jeong (1999, p.8):

Concept of security binds together individuals, states and the international system so closely that the conditions of peace can be treated in an integrative manner. It includes non-military sources of threats such as environmental degradation, migration and poverty. The concept of security for global community is needed to articulate the concerns with global ecology. The visualization of collective existence on the planet can be made possible by understanding a new set of spatial, metaphysical and doctrinal constructs. Since the underlying premise of ecological security defies the traditional boundaries of modern territoriality (Brauch, 2008).

What is human security? – Theoretical dimensions and understandings

Human security has come to be a broad concept and different actors in the field have come up with different concepts of human security. Most notably, the multi-lateral organizations, academia and the civil society.

Different Notions of Human Security

The notion of human security gained momentum with the 1994 Human Development Report on Human Security drafted and championed by Mahbub ul Haq, (Rothschild, 1995) with the intent to bridge the freedom from want and freedom from fear, freedoms that lay at the heart of the United

Nations. Dated back to 1945, the U.S. Secretary of State report to his government on the results of the San Francisco Conference further added new dimension to the concept (Human Development Report, 1994, 24):

The battle of peace has to be fought on two fronts. The first is the security front where victory spells freedom from fear. The second is the economic and social front where victory means freedom from want. Only victory on both fronts can assure the world of an enduring peace.... No Provisions that can be written into the Charter will enable the Security Council to make the world secure from war if men and women have no security in their homes and their jobs.

In this notion, two important phrases that prompted further research agenda in human security surfaced, freedom from want and freedom from fear. 'Freedom from fear' is intended to indicate freedom from violence, and 'freedom from want', freedom from poverty. As noted by Sabina Alkire, (2003), it is important to bear this mental equation in mind, because of course people also fear poverty and destitution; they also want peace and police protection. Also, although Buddhism might arguably offer the most effective response to 'freedom from want', the envisioned responses are political, social, economic, and environmental in nature.

In order to ensure human security to operate well, the UNDP (1994, p. 23) identified four essential characteristics of the human security:

- Universal concern. It is relevant to people everywhere, in rich nations and poor.
- The components of human security are interdependent.
- Human security is easier to ensure through early prevention than later intervention. It is less costly to meet these threats upstream than downstream.
- Human security is people-centered. It is concerned with how people live and breathe in a society, how freely they exercise their many choices, how much access they have to market and social opportunities – and whether they live in conflict or in peace.

This consequently led to the final definition in 1994 UNDP report which entails, human security as:

- Safety from chronic threats such as hunger, disease and repression.
- Protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the patterns of daily life – whether in jobs, in homes or in communities.

Apart from the four elements mentioned above, Human security embraces **multi-sectorial** understanding of insecurities. Therefore, human security entails a broadened understanding of threats and includes causes of insecurity relating for instance to economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security (Human Security Unit, 2009).

The UNDP, 1994, illustrated the Possible Types of Human Security Threats as in the table below

Type of security	Examples of main threats
Economic security	Persistent poverty, unemployment
Food security	Hunger, famine
Health security	Deadly infectious diseases, unsafe food, malnutrition, lack of access to basic health care
Environmental security	Environmental degradation, resource depletion, natural disasters, pollution
Personal security	Physical violence, crime, terrorism, domestic violence, child labour
Community security	Inter-ethnic, religious and other identity based tensions
Political security	Political repression, human rights abuses

Moreover, “human security emphasizes the interconnectedness of both threats and responses when addressing these insecurities” (Human Security Unit, 2009, p.7) That is, threats to human security are mutually reinforcing and interconnected in two ways (Human Security Unit, 2009, p.7):

First, they are interlinked in that each threat feeds on the other. For example, violent conflicts can lead to deprivation and poverty which in turn could lead to resource depletion, infectious diseases, education deficits, etc. Second, threats within a given country or area can spread into a wider region and have negative externalities for regional and international security.

The Unity (Human Security Unit, 2009, p.8) further emphasizes that:

In addition, as a context-specific concept, human security acknowledges that insecurities vary considerably across different settings and as such advances contextualized solutions that are responsive to the particular situations they seek to address. Finally, in addressing risks and root causes of insecurities, human security is prevention-oriented and introduces a dual focus on protection and empowerment.

However, apart from the commonly and core notions that led to a broader research agenda of the freedom from want and freedom from fear notions and the UNDP definition, various literature where reviewed and further add to the conceptualization of the human security discourse.

Back tracking the externalities of globalization such as increasing inequality, which has led to failure and lack of global response to address it, adds to the need for human security approaches. Thomas (1999, p.3) writes that human security entails basic material needs, human dignity, and democracy:

Human security describes a condition of existence in which basic material needs are met and in which human dignity, including meaningful participation in the life of the community, can be met. Thus, while material sufficiency lies at the core of human security, in addition the concept encompasses non-material dimensions to form a qualitative whole. Human security is oriented towards an active and substantive notion of democracy, and is directly engaged with discussions of democracy at all levels, from the local to the global.

The work of Newman (2001) also added to this concept which reinforces the basic needs, human dignity, and democracy as noted above. He noted the following overlapping typologies group human security issues together. The differences are more of emphasis/focus than of distinct types. However, among four typologies of assertive focus, new security, social welfare and basic human needs, we look focus on the last two concepts in consideration for the need to urban safety and human security.

Basic Human Needs

This concept was coined in the United Nations development report which entailed; basic economic, food, health, personal, environmental, community and cultural, and political security. The 1994 UNDP report popularized the concept: “for most people today, a feeling of insecurity arises more from worries about daily life than from the dread of a cataclysmic world event. Job security, income security, health, environmental security, security from crime which presents the emerging concerns

of human security all over the world” (UNDP, 1994, p.3) this definition clearly puts out the message that, human welfare is the best indicator of security. “It means, first, safety from such chronic threats as hunger, disease and repression. And second, it means protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the patterns of daily life-whether in homes, in jobs or in communities” (UNDP 1994, p. 23).

Therefore this suggests that as we talk human security, the referent objects should be the people, that is human security is people-centered. And it should look into the temporal scales linking the local to global considerations, thus it should be a universal concern with respect to local, regional considerations and contextual differences such as in the levels of employment, drugs, crime, pollution, and human rights violation but affect all of us.

The emphasis of the human needs approach is upon safety and freedom, especially in critical situations, rather than upon the broader concept of Human development, which is concerned with widening people’s choices. This translates to the planning systems employed today, is it people sensitive, and apart from this looking at the other aspects is crucial for successful urban planning and safety.

Social welfare

Closely linked to the above concept, social welfare/developmentalist thinking goes beyond the critical human needs concept and is not confined to the basic minimum of safety or survival. It views development as a means to an end, not an end in itself; a means to judge in terms of the sense of being distributive and participatory.

The globalization which has accelerated the urbanization has threaten million lives, according to WHO (2004), more than 1.6million people die from violence every year and about 2.8 billion people suffer from poverty, health, illiterate related sicknesses (Tibaijuka, 2005) coupled to this the increase of fire arms most times illegal small arm proliferations, increased gangs and street children. All these compounded crime and insecurity are serious threat to developing countries and are further compounded by other factors such as poverty and social exclusion that already limit quality of life (Tibaijuka, 2005).

The Growing inequalities between the rich and the poor, as well as social, economic and political exclusion of large sectors of society, make the security paradigm increasingly complex. This has in

turn broadened Human security to include such conditions as freedom from poverty and access to work, education and health.

Thus the need to change the traditional perspective, from state-centered security to people-centered security, for instance, to ensure human security as well as state security, particularly in conflict and post-conflict areas where institutions are often fragile and unstable, rebuilding communities becomes an absolute priority to promote peace and reconciliation.

With the rapid urbanization of the world's population, human security as protecting 'the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfillment' increasingly means providing the conditions of livelihood and dignity in urban areas. Living conditions are crucial for human security since an inadequate dwelling, insecurity of tenure and insufficient access to basic services all have a strong negative impact on the lives of the urban population, particularly the urban poor. Spatial discrimination and social exclusion limit or undermine the rights to the city and to citizenship.

One of the challenges presented to the urban and cities is the crime, violence and insecurity which have drastically affected the social and economic development of cities and as a result crime is no longer a criminal offence but rather a development problem (Tibaijuka, 2005). This greatly erodes the community through stigmatizing effects of poverty, inferiority in participation and weak social capital for individual development. It also reinforces the connectors and dividers components within the city for instance the widening inequalities consequently limiting the economic opportunities.

Impact of Insecurity on Cities, Threat to Urban Dwellers and Challenges to Urban Safety

Apart from those noted earlier on, the feeling of insecurity common in many urban populations may be linked in terms of health, employment, right to participate, domestic violence and risk of street children among others which clearly implicate disillusionment of powerlessness, lack of empowerment. Total accumulation of these emotions and feeling often result into conflicts based on the concept of relative depravity.

Community safety revolves around a consistent priority for citizens, usually among top three priority issues identified in local consultations, the general responsibility of all agencies but the specific responsibility of none; cutting across prevailing structures and dependent on joint actions (Tibaijuka,

2005). Due to financial capacity and governance priorities, limited budget is left for mostly reactive solutions as opposed to proactive solutions, additionally the operationalization of the reactive interventions often lack the legal frame work and this applies to proactive interventions which is the current trends in most developing countries (Tibaijuka, 2005).

Although in actual sense, based on the principle of subsidiarity, local governments are at better position to prevent and ensure human security prevail, however, it is not the case due to the following common constraint as noted by Tibaijuka. These are not limited to and exclusive, there are others which might not surface here.

- Lack/efficiency of decentralization (the issue of subsidiarity),
- Limited financial and human resources,
- Weak governance and management,
- Corruption, fraud, bribery and abuse of office,
- Lack of public confidence and trust in local governments and
- Limited delivery of basic, municipal and social services.

The Need for a More Comprehensive and Holistic Approach

As notes before, as an essential element of human security, multi-sectorial understanding of insecurities and broadened understanding of threats, causes of insecurity relating for instance to economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security are important to achieving urban safety.

The establishment of local safety nets through coalitions and partnerships to bring in concerted efforts is part of the multi-disciplinarity of solving the problem and integration, comprehension and coordination are also part of this discourse. In the context of the developing countries having financial constraints, local context is crucial and actors that might be included in this sense might be the local municipalities, institutions such as schools, health institutions, private sector and local community based and national organizations among others.

Expected Learning Outcome:

At the end of this session, participants are expected to:

- Use human security concepts in promoting peaceful development,
- Reinforce and develop alternative approach to human security and achieving urban safety,

- Develop compassion and love to peace building strategies of urban development.

Session Methodology:

Methodology & Teaching/ facilitating strategies	Time	Resources	Activities guidelines
Recap and animation	10mins	Audio visual or flip charts and marker pens	The students group of recap presents the recap of the last lecture and the animation group reminded of the animation during the class.
Interactive Lecture on human security and urban safety issues	40mins		Question and answer led discussion on human security and urban safety issues
brainstorming and discussion on human security and urban safety issues in Uganda	120mins		General Reflection on human security and urban safety issues in Uganda and take action points
Synthesis and takeaways	10mins		Students take a personal reflection and analysis of the most striking concepts. Mention what they learnt during the class as takeaway

Session Evaluation:

- Synthesis and reflection paper
- Takeaways

Readings:

Required Reading

Tibaijuka, A. (2005). Urban Safety: A collective Challenge for Sustainable Human Settlements Development. In F. Dodds & T. Pippards (Eds.), *Human Security and Environmental Security: An Agenda for Change*. (pp. 182-196). London Sterling, VA: Earthscan.

United Nations Development Program. (1994). *Human Development Report*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Recommended Readings

Human Security Report. (2007). *Human Security for an Urban Century. Chapter 5: Safer Cities for an urban Century*. Safer Cities Publication. pp. 85-111.

United Nation Human Settlement Programme. (2007). *Enhancing Urban Safety and Security*: London, Sterling, VA. Earthscan. 1-41.

Session 9: Urban Planning

Learning Objectives:

- To understand the history and theory of planning.
- To isolate the importance of planning theory and history in contemporary planning.
- To identify and Comprehend the weaknesses (ethical dilemmas) of the planning practice.
- To develop love and admiration and reflect on effective planning intervention within the contemporary planning sphere.

Content:

This session presents the history and theories of the planning profession and examines the practice of planning through selective literature in planning theory and history through examination of a series of questions such as: what is planning (theory)? Why are they important subjects for practicing planners? What is the justification for planning? What do planners do? Is there a public interest? If so, what is it? How can planning be effective given the institutional constraints placed on planners? What values are incorporated into planning? What ethical dilemmas do planners face and how can they resolve them?

What is Planning? (Historical Planning Perspectives)

In the words of Smith (2007, p.3), “Ancient kings and builders were clearly involved in ‘urban planning,’ and their cities were ‘planned’ settlements, following common sense notions of planning. Yet most ancient cities are classified as ‘unplanned’ in the literature on historical urbanism”.

This conceptualization reinforces the believe and classification by many scholars and planning practitioners of cities with orthogonal layouts as planned, whereas those that lack the grid principle are considered to be unplanned [...] This viewpoint, which assumes that one particular modern western approach to city layout—the use of orderly, orthogonal street layouts—is the only valid kind of urban planning, is ethnocentric (Smith, 2007). This brings out and ignores the variety of urban planning schemes devised by ancient peoples in many parts of the globe[...] it is therefore important that planning should not be viewed as imported material but rather knowledge that in continuously existing among different contextual paradigms.

Historically, traditional kings were planners as noted above, however, looking planning form a simple household unity of a family is a perfect example, where the Head of family allocates land to children and in this process public (Family) areas of gathering, play, meetings or events, toilets, water location were protected and the children planned on what structure fits them and this depended on the nature of surrounding (called level of meaning, as in planning history today) This clearly reflects a perfect planning deeply reflects the planning schemes in the ancient planning history and this concept transcended into communities planning such as community centres which later developed into trading centers and administrative centres with the influence of the said conceptualization under colonial and post colonialism.

In this wider perspective of archaeologist Smith (2003, pp. 225-226); “the ‘organic’ description of irregular cities often mistakes cultural variation in aesthetics for decentralization of urban planning. ... He suggests that the opposition is thus not between the planned and the organic but between various competing plans and their vision of the proper role of political authorities in landscape production.” And this conceded with Lilley’s (2002) argument for the nature of planning in medieval towns. It should be noted here that, the ancient cities were probable planned in most cases by kings and urban elite class; in other words, that is, central system of planning.

Kostof (1991; Bullfinch, 1992) is one of the few scholars to move beyond the planned/unplanned dichotomy. He classified urban form and discusses at length the complexities of episodes of planned and unplanned growth throughout time in individual cities. Kostof identifies four spatial models of urban planning: organic, grid, diagram cities, and the grand manner.

- Organic layout is a common label for cities whose growth occurred without discernible overall direction or coordination.
- Grid layout refers to orthogonal planning.
- Diagram cities is a term for “inflexible” cities, “planned at one time as a precise diagram of some presumed or promulgated order [. . .] single-minded visions of some determined individual or institution about how the world should function ideally” (Kostof 1991, p.162).
- Finally, grand manner refers primarily to European baroque planning in which buildings and spaces are arranged to convey visual messages of grandeur and coherence, although evidence of antecedents were seen in a few Greek and Roman cities.

A number of archaeologists use the concept of monumentality as a broader concept with greater applicability to ancient cities (Trigger, 1990; Moore, 1996; Marcus, 2003) this is one of the components new approaches to urban planning.

Defining Urban Planning

In the ancient cities, scholars proposed three definitions of planning: the first definition emphasizes the deliberate actions of builders, and focuses on the formal layouts arising as a result of the deliberate actions. For instance Wendy Ashmore's work (1989, p. 272) exemplifies the first approach: "Site planning refers herein to the deliberate, self-conscious aspect of settlement patterning, at scales from individual structures through regional landscapes" (also see Lynch, 1962; Biddle 1976).

The problem with this definition is that all urban construction whether slum housing, latrines, or imperial palaces is deliberate and self-conscious in nature (Smith, 2007) and one might improve the usefulness of this approach by limiting consideration to larger spatial scales; planned cities are those in which large areas were deliberately and self-consciously laid out.

Standardization of city plans is the focus of the second definition of ancient planning. According to Ellis (1995, p. 92), "By 'planned' I do not mean those [cities] that were pre-meditated, but rather those whose urban design was made to follow a specific regular urban design." Lacovara (1997, p. 76) uses a similar definition for planning in Egyptian cities. And how nature fits or determines "specific regular urban design" as In some cases, for example; the imperial Chinese capitals or Roman cities, written documents and maps reveal explicit verbal and graphical models that urban builders followed.

Thirdly, planning emphasizes the concept of coordination among buildings. According to Harold Carter, planned cities are those in which "there is a discernible and formal organization of space." Whereas Smith (1997, p. 7) approach to ancient urban planning situate Carter's formality as a special case of the more general phenomenon of coordination among buildings within a city. A similar concept to, "group design," by Scranton (1949, p.247) for planning at Greek cities; defined as "creating an architectural scheme of one or more buildings in satisfactory relation to the surroundings."

New Approach

The new approach to urban planning in the earliest cities partakes two components, based on the second and third definitions discussed above.

The first component, coordination among the buildings and spaces in a city, is based on Carter's definition of planning. The can be described under five headings:

- The arrangement of buildings,
- formality and monumentality of layout,
- Orthogonality,
- Other forms of geometric order, and
- Access and visibility.

The second component is standardization among cities, based on Ellis's definition. The dimension discuss under this standardization entails urban architectural inventories, spatial layouts, orientation, and metrology.

Coordination among Buildings and Spaces

Coordinated Arrangement of Buildings and Spaces

The coordinated arrangement of buildings and spaces describes cases in which individual architectural features appear to have been arranged and constructed with reference to one another.

For example, all buildings in a city or neighborhood may share a common orientation.

Many authors have examined the frequency distributions of building alignments, using the extent of a common orientation to investigate the nature of planning. (Aveni & Hartung, 1987; Smith, 2007)

The simple fact of common orientation does not necessarily imply central planning because other factors such as topography or location with respect to a river or shoreline could produce the same pattern.

Formality and Monumentality

The concept of *formality* in art history refers to works whose organizational principles are clear to observers or participants. (Taylor, 1981). The formal arrangement of urban buildings and spaces is a hallmark of many cities, ancient and modern.

This feature is one of Steinhardt's eleven attributes of planning in ancient Chinese capitals; she phrases it as clearly articulated and directed space. To Stark (1999, p. 205), formality refers to architectural groups, "arranged in an orderly fashion that suggests a planned layout, for example around a plaza."

In *The Image of the City*, Lynch (1960) identifies ten "form qualities," or categories of urban design, and five of these relate to the concept of formality: *Singularity*, *Form simplicity*, *Continuity*, *Dominance*, and *Clarity of joint*.

Orthogonal Layouts

Orthogonality or the "grid" pattern describes the use of right angles in the layout of buildings and cities. Orthogonal city planning focus on the two principles previously described that is coordinated arrangement of buildings, and formality, but it is worth singling out because of its prominence in the literature on city planning (for both ancient and modern cities). Most urban historians who use the planned/unplanned dichotomy identify planned cities through the presence of orthogonal layouts.

Semi-orthogonal urban blocks, which refers to pattern that resembles orthogonality but does not necessarily reflect orthogonal planning. Occurs in dense settlements in which each individual house abuts one or more other houses. It occurred in the earliest Neolithic nucleated villages.

Other Forms of Geometric Order

Kostof (1991) uses the term "diagram cities" to describe cities that were planned at one time as a precise diagram of some presumed or promulgated order. These cities use a strict geometric layout, whether orthogonal or non-orthogonal in plan.

Lynch includes several non-orthogonal geometric forms in his catalog of "models of settlement form," including the star plan and the Baroque axial network. Ancient examples are much rarer.

Access and Visibility

One variant of coordination among buildings and spaces in ancient cities is the creation of areas of limited access. On the largest scale are city walls. Some walls served a defensive purpose, some were primarily symbolic in nature, and many probably served both purposes (Smith, 1997). In all cases, however, walls with gates served to channel the movement of people in and out of the city.

Spatial Patterns

The presence of common spatial patterns at a series of cities provides stronger evidence for urban planning than architectural inventories (Smith, 1997). Such spatial similarities, however, are more difficult to document objectively. Four of Steinhardt's eleven features of planning are spatial patterns: *clearly articulated space in the form of streets, the ward system, accessibility of water, and siting*. Most cities in ancient Mesoamerica share two kinds of spatial patterns.

- First, public architecture is usually concentrated in one central district the epicenter and planning is almost always limited to buildings in the epicenter, with unplanned surrounding residential zones (Smith, 1997).
- Second, most temples and other large buildings in Mesoamerican urban epicenters are arranged around formal rectangular plazas (Smith, 1997).

These patterns suggest common concepts of urban design among the varied cultures of ancient Mesoamerica, from the Maya to the Aztec.

The Meaning of Early Urban Planning

The various expressions of urban planning reviewed above resulted from the deliberate actions of ancient rulers and their architects and builders. "Effort and resources were invested in the coordination and standardization of urban buildings to communicate various kinds of messages" (Smith, 1997). What kinds of messages were being sent, and to whom were they addressed? Rapoport's (1988) model for levels of meaning in the built environment provides a useful framework to address these questions. Rapoport (ss cited in Smith, 2007) identifies three levels of meaning in built environments:

- *High-level meaning* describes cosmological and supernatural symbolism that may be encoded in buildings and city layouts,
- *Middle-level meaning* refers to deliberate messages about identity and status communicated by the designers and constructors of buildings and cities, and
- *Low-level meaning* describes the ways in which the built environment channels and interacts recursively with behavior and movement.

These levels are not independent and mutually exclusive, and in most cases individual cities and buildings conveyed meanings on two or three of the levels. Nevertheless, it is useful to separate them for purposes of analysis. The realm of urban meaning allows us to move from the mute data of

city layouts to the intentions of rulers and builders, on one hand, and to the effects of city planning on urban visitors and inhabitants, on the other.

In the contemporary models of planning today, especially with the developing countries, human dimensions as an attribute of the urban planning process faces uncertainty as most focus planning rely on individual developments, ideologies as such, while many other issues, like the car traffic, pollution have come into focus. Public space, pedestrianism and the city as a meeting place for urban dwellers have been undermined (Jan Gehl, 1936; 2010) limited space, obstacles, noise, pollution, risk of accident and generally disgraceful conditions are typical for city dwellers in most of the world's cities (Jan Gehl, 1936; 2010) this has ruined the traditional functions of the city space as a meeting place and social forum for city dwellers.

This ignited the need of human dimensions in the planning process and in order to achieve the human dimensions, Jan Gehl describes for objectives; lively cities, safety, sustainability and health in order to strengthen the concern for pedestrians, cyclists and city life in general.

A lively city: The potential to strengthen more people to walk, bike and stay in the city place. It should also values for significance of life in public space, particularly the social and cultural opportunities as well as the attractions associated with a lively city.

A safe city: The potential for Mobility and staying within city space determines the safety of a city, planning should be based on this approach to achieve human dimensions of a city. A city should invite people to walk, with cohesive structures that offer walking distances, attractive public spaces and a variation of urban functions to elucidate feeling of security in and around the city spaces.

A sustainable city: Transport systems that take broader parts as “green mobility” by strengthening and encouraging people to travel by foot, bike or public transport systems translates to a sustainable city. The planning of forms of transport should provide the benefits to the economy and environment, reduced resource consumption, limit emissions, and decrease noise levels.

In contemporary city planning, this relates to the concept of green building, an approach to eliminate excessive consumption of resources by using effective and available resources. This does not only help is sustainability but also to the current climate change discourse.

Sustainability means attractiveness of the public transport system which promotes the feeling of safety and comfortability in walking or cycling to and from buses, light rail and trains. Good public space and good public transport system are simply two sides of the same coin.

A healthy city: This entails the walking or biking as part of the natural pattern of daily activities. The rapid growth in public health problems is attributed to large segments of the population becoming sedentary, with cars providing door-to-door transport. Healthy policies should be able to negotiate a whole hearted invitation to walk and bike as a natural and integrated element of daily routine.

Towards a Unified Field of Planning

In the planning field, research is an important and continuous aspect as it has resulted into new models and approaches to planning. As we seek the best type of plan to ensure effective and efficiency in development of urban areas, here is summary of successful research outcomes that has transcended throughout planning history to present and most of them has been applied in contemporary planning models (Archibugi, 2010).

Physical Planning

As one of the first to be born in the planning field (Archibugi, 2010), it aims at physical development of cities or urban areas. More of an architectural grounding, in the 18 century this focused on the art of building construction. However, with the increased research and concern of other needs within a city, this type of plan has come to take concern of non-urban areas and the physical environment. Consequently, the master plans in the contemporary spheres transcend the physical planning aspects.

Social Planning

This field of planning covers a wide varied of fields such as education, health, social integration, living and working conditions, women, children, elderly, and crime among others. In the contemporary move towards inclusive cities (right to the city) especially those champion by UN-Habitat, is aimed at achieving the social aspects of planning. Thus, integration of approaches becomes the nature or procedure to this type of planning. As noted by Archibugi (2010, p.29), “this planning constitute the most important base for the launch of an integral or unified approach to planning from technical as well as the political point of view” this approach pervades through local

and community level projects to include voluntary actions and participation which is important part of planning.

Development Planning

This is very important especially for the quality of terrain on which the activities involved in it take place (Archibugi, 2010). According to Archibugi (2010), this field is divided into two areas namely development as it regards each development area such as country or region and planning relationship between developed and developing countries. This has also been advocated by most UN system. However, the challenge to this type of planning remains the political instabilities resulting from economic dependence from the inability to integrate at a multi-national as well as the cultural precariousness (Archibugi, 2010). Thus limiting the administrative ability to effectively operationalize the structure to adapt to new methods. This field brings in various disciplines which met and collide during the integration of economic, social and physical aspects.

The Case Study of Kampala City Planning in Uganda (Decentralized System)

Expected Learning Outcome:

At the end of this session, Participants are expected to highlight and develop alternative approaches to planning practice, contribute knowledge to contemporary planning beliefs and values underlying our own behavior and decision making, conduct research to comprehend already existing scholars and current issues in the field of planning and value for the ethics of planning.

Session Methodology:

Methodology & Teaching/ facilitating strategies	Time	Resources	Activities guidelines
Recap and animation	10mins	Audio visual or flip charts and marker pens	The students group of recap presents the recap of the last lecture and the animation group reminded of the animation during the class.
Interactive Lecture, case study presentation and lecture dialogue	40mins	Flip charts, marker pens, piece of papers, masculine	Question and answer led discussion, Lecture on the theories and history of planning

		taps, audio visual aids.	and presentation of the case study will be one of the means of delivering this session, to highlight the key points and introduce the dialogue to discussions
Art and imaging; Group discussion and presentations	40mins	Flip charts, marker pens, piece of papers, masculine taps, audio visual aids.	Students draw a structure of their visionary plan given they are in the planning committee of their towns or ask to advise the planning board (from a social science perspective) and its discourses and present them to class
Plenary discussions and presentation (brainstorming and discussion)	50mins		General reflection on the presentations and action points
Synthesis and takeaways	10mins		Students take a personal reflection and analysis of the most striking concepts.

Session Evaluation:

- Synthesis and minute papers
- Takeaway

Readings:

Required Readings

Archibugi, F. (2010). *Planning Theory: From the Political Debate to the Methodological Reconstruction*. Roma, Springer Verlag Italia. pp. 1-53

Jan Gehl. (2010). *Cities for People*. Washington, Island Press. pp. 61-115.

Smith, M. E. (2007). Form and Meaning in the Earliest Cities: A New Approach to Ancient Urban Planning. *Journal of Planning History*, 6(1), 3-47.

Recommended Readings

Brown, L. D. (1986). Participatory Research and community planning. In C. Barry (Ed.), *Strategic Perspectives on Planning Practice*. Toronto, Lexington books.

Harata, N. (2008). Strategy for a Sustainable Transport System in City Regions: Strategic Approaches and Consensus Building. In T. Kidokoro, N. Harata, L.P. Subanu, J. Sessen, A. Motte & E. P. Seltzer (Eds.), *Sustainable city regions: space, place and governance*, (pp. 3-21). Tokyo, Japan: Springer

Kitokoro, T., Murayama, A., Katayama, K. & Shima, N. (2008). New Directions in Urban Regeneration and Governance of City Regions. In T. Kidokoro, N. Harata, L.P. Subanu, J. Sessen, A. Motte & E. P. Seltzer (Eds.), *Sustainable city regions: space, place and governance*, (pp. 23-37). Tokyo, Japan: Springer

Session 10 and 11: Basics of Urban Research Methodologies

Learning Objectives:

- To understand basic theories, principles and procedure of research design, basic variety of research tools, methods and approaches used in the social sciences.
- To formulate research problem, select a research approach, develop and implement a research design, and review and criticize investigations executed by peers and colleagues in the wider research community.
- To develop foundational knowledge of qualitative and quantitative methods, when they are used, how they are used, and the benefits and drawbacks of each method.

Content:

What is Research?

Research has become the basis for value judgment for any intervention within a community set-up, implying that within the rapidly growing urban population, research is very important. Research however can vary in nature and approach, thus it is often very important to understand what is meant by research, perhaps understand the components and types involved in doing research.

According to Gray (2004, p.2), “faced with a more competitive, dynamic and uncertain world, a knowledge of research methods is important because it helps people in organizations to understand, predict and control their internal and external environments (Sekaran, 1992)”. Therefore, based on this importance, understanding what research is very crucial.

Research as of today context could mean “a systemic and organized effort to investigate a specific problem that needs a solution” (Sekaran, 1992, p. 4). Therefore, research comprises how (Process)

to solve a real problem/s (content) (Gill & Johnson, 1997). However, in today's research, this may take a practical focus which is known as applied research, with main thrust of measuring outputs that are specific to a particular organization. Findings derived from here are limited to an organizational jurisdiction and often difficult to generalize elsewhere.

There are also other forms of research, one of them is called basic research which is in hands of most academic world and this is concerned with clarifying, validating or building a theory. The importance of this rests upon the ability to translate the theory into a specific organizational context, since organizations attach importance to research that can lead to practical outcomes (Smith et al., 1991).

Another form of research comprises the collaboration between the researcher and professional practitioners commonly known as action research. In social sciences this has become important for understanding current growing phenomenon such as urbanization etc.

Gray (2004) simply summarizes the continuum between basic and applied research as follows.

Basic research (Purpose)	Applied research (Purpose)
Expand knowledge of organizational processes	Improve understanding of specific organizational problems
Develop universal principles	Create solutions to organizational problems
Produce findings of significance and value to society	Develop findings of practical relevance to organizational stakeholders

Source: adapted from Saunders et al., 2000

The intersection between varied professions and broader field of inquiry such as sociology, anthropology, communication, geography, economics, philosophy, statistics etc., is very crucial in reference to understanding and finding out solutions to the current trends in urbanizing world. This is referred to as inter-disciplinary approach where ideas and approaches from diverse range of subject backgrounds are researched, this help deal with the complex organizational structures today.

As noted before, in the real world today (contemporary issues such as urbanization, globalization etc.) we are faced with multi-faced or myriad of subjects to research upon and thus the question of how do we start from is important, since the definition entails systematic approach.

Just as we are faced with many subjects to study, so do the variety of research approach exist.

Depending of the situational factors one may choose any framework or structure that works well, in some cases the framework or structure is provided. Although the structure put forward by Gill and Johnson (1997) below might not be exclusive, it provides a framework that helps to start with and put our concept of doing research.

It is always good to start with (1) identifying broad area for research for which the (2) topic is selected, this leads to (3) formulation of research objectives, (4) deciding approach, (5) formulation of plan (6) collection of information which is then provided for (7) analysis and interpretation of results and finally (8) presentation of findings.

Similarly to the above structure, below is an academic proposal writing structure adapted from Hart, (1998).

Section	Contents
Working title	Describes the breadth and depth of the topic and gives an indication of the methodology to be used (e.g. case study, evaluation, etc.)
Introduction (abstract)	A summary of the research topic, describing the core problems or issues, the gaps in the research and how the research will address them
Aims	General statement on intent and direction of the research
Objectives	Clear and measurable statements of intended outcomes
Justification	Rationale for the research with reference to gaps in current knowledge, and potential of results
Review of the literature	Describes the history of the topic and the key literature sources; illustrates major issues and refines focus to indicate research questions (qualitative research) of hypothesis (qualitative research)
Methodology	Justifies methodological approach, including data collection and analytical techniques; use of quantitative or qualitative methods; choice of research approach and paradigm; anticipation of ethical issues; how the data will be analysed

Work schedule	A timetable for completing the research, indicating tasks and timescales
References	Bibliography of works cited in the proposal
Related materials	For example, letters of support for the research, agreement to collaborate from interested institutions

Source: Adapted from Hart, 1998 in Gray, 2004

Theoretical Roots

The term theory is often used a lot within the research sphere, and in Gray (2004), a theory is “a set of interrelated constructs (concepts), definitions, and propositions that presents a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting phenomena” (Kerlinger, 1986, p. 9). Accordingly, the important predictive nature of a theory is crucial, apart from the other, explanatory quality nature. The most satisfying and usable relationship however, are those that can be generalized, meaning it can be applied from specific instance to many phenomena and to many people and this prescribes the nature of theory.

Inductive and Deductive Reasoning

These two concepts outline the general paradigm of enquiry that underpins the scientific approach, consisting of inductive discovery (induction) and deductive proof (deduction).

In deductive process, focus is towards testing a hypothesis (presents an assertion about two or more concepts to explain their relationships), after which the principle is confirmed, refuted or modified under an experimental measurement, this means that measures and indicators are created for the empirical observation or experimentation. In contrast, the inductive process leads a researcher towards discovering a binding principle, taking care not to jump to a wrong conclusion on the basis of data. Multiple cases are often taken to observe to ensure reliability through planning for data collection after which the data is analyzed to observe the emerging relationship pattern of the variables.

Epistemological and Ontological Perspectives

We are faced with many theories available for us as researchers and how do we select them has often be the question. According to Crotty (1998), the problem is not the wide array of theoretical

perspectives and methodologies, but the fact that terminology applied to them is often inconsistent or even contradictory. Crotty suggests that an interrelation exists between the theoretical stance adopted by the researcher, the methodology and methods used, and the researcher's view of the epistemology.

Epistemology	Theoretical perspectives	Methodology	Methods
• Objectivism • Constructivism • Subjectivism	• Positivism • Interpretivism ○ Symbolic interactionism ○ phenomenology • critical inquiry • feminism • postmodernism etc	• Experimental research • Survey research • Ethnography • Phenomenological research • Grounded theory • Heuristic inquiry • Action research • Discourse analysis etc	• Sampling • Statistical analysis • Questionnaire • Observation • Interview • Focus group • Case study • Document analysis • Content analysis

Source: Adapted from Crotty, 1998 in Gray, 2004

The table above explains the relationship between epistemology, theoretical perspectives, methodology and research methods. Given the human nature, a researcher has the tendency to select a data gathering method that suits with the job, and choice of research methodology will influence the choice of methods, which in turn, will be influenced by the theoretical perspective and in turn, by the epistemological stance.

Two terms deserve mention because of their significance in research: Ontology is the study of being, that is, the nature of existence. While ontology embodies understanding what is, epistemology

provides for understanding what it means to know. In general terms epistemology provides a philosophical background for deciding what kind of knowledge are legitimate and adequate.

Below are some of these concepts, however, a selection of the above concepts have been discussed.

Research Design

Designing Research Instruments

In research we focus on at the end of the process to have a general concept of study, meaning generalization is important. The general principle of research design is based upon generalization of results to the larger population. According to Kerlinger (1986), generalization refers to the ability of the results of a study to be applied to other subjects, groups or conditions. To make generalization effective, the tools used must be valid and reliable.

Validity in this case implies, a research instrument must measure what it was intended to measure and this can take varied forms, namely; internal, external, criterion, construct, content, predictive and statistical validity (Gray, 2004). We explore two of these forms; internal validity refers to correlation questions (cause and effect) and the extent to which causal conclusions can be drawn. While external validity is the extent to which it is possible to generalize from the data to a larger population or context.

Another important aspect is the reliability, which according to Black (1999) is defined as an indication of consistency between two measures of the same thing. An example of such measures could be; two separate instruments or the same instruments applied on two occasions by same or different people.

All these fall in line with testing the variable under study (Gray, 2004). Variables take three forms namely; dependent variable, which focuses on the subject of the research, the gains or losses produced by the impact of the research study; independent variables, precisely the cause of the changes in the dependent variable that will be manipulated to be tested or measured (Gray, 2004). And the last form is uncontrolled variables which include error variables that may confound the results of the study.

Qualitative and Quantitative

Quantitative Research

Quantitatively, it seeks to establish statistically significant conclusions about a population by studying a representative sample of the population (Creswell, 2003).

Quantitative researches usually take two of these types: experimental or descriptive. Where experimental research tests the accuracy of a theory by determining if the independent variable(s) causes an effect on the dependent variable (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

Qualitative Research

In simple terms Abusabha and Woelfel (2003) describe this as an event in its natural setting. It is a subjective way to look at life as it is lived and an attempt to explain the studied behavior (Walsh, 2003).

This typically relies on four basic methods for gathering information: (a) participating in the setting, (b) observing directly, (c) interviewing in depth, and (d) analyzing documents and material culture. These form the core of their inquiry, the staples of the diet. Several secondary and specialized methods of data collection supplement them.

Qualitative approach is based on contextual issues and as grounding for a selection of methods, Brantlinger's (1997, p.4) seven categories of crucial assumptions for qualitative inquiry are very crucial.

- The first concerns the researcher's views of the *nature of the research*: Is the inquiry technical and neutral, intending to conform to traditional research within her discipline, or is it controversial and critical, with an explicit political agenda?
- Second, how does she construe her location, her *positioning relative to the participants*: Does she view herself as distant and objective or intimately involved in their lives?
- Third, what is the *"direction of her gaze"*: Is it outward, toward others—externalizing the research problem—or does it include explicit inner contemplation?
- Fourth, what is the *purpose of the research*: Does she assume that the primary purpose of the study is professional and essentially private (e.g., promoting her career), or is it intended to be useful and informative to the participants or the site?
- Related to the fourth category is the fifth: Who is the *intended audience of the study*—the scholarly community or the participants themselves?

- Sixth, what is the researcher's *political positioning*: Does she view the research as neutral or does she claim a politically explicit agenda?
- Finally, the seventh assumption has to do with how she views the *exercise of agency*: Does she see herself and the participants as essentially passive or as “engaged in local praxis”?

Assumptions made in these seven categories shape how the specific research methods are conceived and implemented throughout a study.

Methods of Gathering Information

Observation

Observation pertains systematic noting and recording of events, behaviors, and artifacts (objects) in the social setting chosen for study. The subjects observed are often recorded as field notes capturing the objective account of what was observed. Observation can range from a highly structured, detailed notation of behavior structured by checklists to a more holistic description of events and behavior.

Observation is a key method not only one aspect of qualitative approach but it also help understand other methods such as interviews to understand body language. Observation is a fundamental and highly important method in all qualitative inquiry. It is used to discover complex interactions in natural social settings. However, the challenge to observation rests upon uncomfortable ethical dilemmas and difficulty of systematic noting and observing huge amounts of fast-moving and complex behavior are just a few of the challenges. Observations involve more than just “hanging out.” Planful and self-aware observers use observation systematically (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2001).

Participant Observation

As the name clearly suggest, this approach stems primarily from cultural anthropology and qualitative sociology, and in this approach the researcher becomes part of the subject under study. This allows a great deal of listening, learning, seeing, and experiencing the real situation as do the participants over a period of time. The obvious merit is that the researcher has the opportunity to learn directly from his own experience and personal reflections are integral to the emerging analysis of a cultural group, because they provide the researcher with new vantage points and with opportunities to make the strange familiar and the familiar strange (Glesne, 1999).

In-Depth Interviewing

Quality of any qualitative researchers deeply depends on the extend and effectiveness of in-depth interviewing. Kahn and Cannell (1957) describe interviewing as “a conversation with a purpose”. It may be the overall strategy or only one of several methods employed. In this approach a researcher is guided by set questions of varied structures, but the questions are not necessarily exclusive.

Patton (2002, pp. 341) categorizes interviews into three general categories: the informal, conversational interview; the general interview guide approach; and the standardized, open-ended interview.

This approach takes the form like conversations than formal scheduled events with predetermined response categories. The deal of the researcher is to explore some key topics under study to capture the participant’s view. The participant’s perspective on the phenomenon of interest should unfold as the participant views it (the emic perspective), not as the researcher views it (the etic perspective).

Combined with observation, interviews allow the researcher to understand the meanings that everyday activities hold for people.

Not every method is perfect, some of the drawbacks of this approach include, the degree of personal interaction where cooperation is essential may not be necessarily achieved depending on Interviewees willingness/unwilling or may be uncomfortable sharing all that the interviewer hopes to explore or limitation of knowledge of recurring patterns in their lives or subject under study. knowing what the interviewee is sharing is true is a challenge and it requires superb listening skills and be skillful at personal interaction, question framing, and gentle probing for elaboration and it requires a lot of time.

Apart from the generic in-depth, interviewing may take more specialized forms, including ethnographic interviewing, phenomenological interviewing, elite interviewing, focus-group interviewing, and interviewing children.

Background, Context and Review of Documents

It is always stated that, unless you know the history, history will repeat itself, for that reason, every qualitative study, collects data on the background and historical context of the subject under study. This may cut across gathering demographic data and description geographic and historical information for purposes of proposing alternative recommendations. This involves reviewing sources such as old property transactions, skimming recent newspaper editorials, information from a

Web site, however, precaution must be taken to the needs of the study. This kind of information and knowledge of the history and context surrounding a specific setting supplement participant observation, interviewing, and observation with gathering and analyzing documents produced in the course of everyday events or constructed specifically for the research at hand.

The effective and systematic review of documents is an unobtrusive method, are important in portraying the values and beliefs of participants. For instance, minutes of meetings, logs, announcements, formal policy statements, letters, research journals, archival data and samples of free writing about the topic are often informative and useful in developing an understanding of the setting or group studied.

The use of documents often entails a specialized analytic approach called content analysis. The raw material for content analysis may be any form of communication, usually written materials (textbooks, novels, newspapers, e-mail messages); other forms of communication—music, pictures, or political speeches—may also be included.

Transcribing and Translating

Cosmopolitan nature of the urban setting in today's world possess great challenges especially in the use of language where there is multi-mix of linguistics. This is a great challenge to researchers in relation to the use of interviews, where transcribing and translating text have become increasingly problematic in the discourse on qualitative research. Neither is a *merely technical task*; both entail judgment and interpretation.

During data analysis, when data have been translated and/or transcribed, they are not raw data any more—they are “processed data” (Wengraf, 2001, p. 7).

There still exist a great deal in the methodological literature about the issues in transposing the spoken word (from a tape-recording) into a text (a transcription), or in transposing the spoken word in one language (from a tape-recording) into another language (a translation) and then into a text (a transcription).

This calls for proper strategies especially in the proposal, it must reflect the challenge and how the researcher deals with it in the judgments and interpretations.

Translating; the issues associated with translation are complex especially from one language into another than transcribing simply because they involve more subtle issues of connotation and meaning. However, the important issues with translating the spoken or written word are the

processes and procedures employed by the researcher/translator to construct meaning through multiple transpositions of the spoken or written word from one language into another.

Secondary and Specialized Methods

In addition to the primary data-gathering methods outlined above, the researcher can choose to incorporate several secondary and supplemental methods in the design of a study, as appropriate.

Focus Groups

In focus group discussions, groups are generally composed of 7 to 10 people (although groups range from as small as 4 to as large as 12) who are unfamiliar with one another but share certain characteristics relevant to the study's questions. This may be conducted many times to among different individuals to identify trends in perceptions and ideas through systematic analysis (Krueger, 1988).

The creativity of the interviewer matters a lot during this kind of interview, to create a supportive environment, asking focused questions to encourage discussion and the expression of differing opinions and points of view are some of the qualities a focus group interviewer must possess for effectiveness. The key assumption under this approach is the fact that an individual's attitudes and beliefs do not form in a vacuum, thus people often need to listen to others' opinions and understandings to form their own.

The merit of this approach is that it is socially oriented, provides a more natural than artificial experimental circumstances above all in a more relaxed manner than a one-to-one interview. As noted before, when combined with participant observation, they provide a lot in gaining access, focusing site selection and sampling, and even for checking tentative conclusions (Morgan, 1997). The facilitator is often flexible to explore unanticipated during the discussion.

Apart from the relatively low cost and quick result, the doubt of questionnaire answers may be reduced through focus groups because of the high "face validity" which is readily understood, and the findings appear believable.

However, this approach also has drawbacks, for instance managing power dynamics is a contested issue in eliciting participation by all including the interviewer, this requires critical skills a researcher may not possess; since the interviewer often has less control over a group interview than an

individual one, time can be lost while dead-end or irrelevant issues are discussed; and above all analysis of the data are often very difficult in regards to understanding the participants' comments; depending on the group, the logistical problems may arise from the need to manage a conversation while getting good quality data in some cases with special group of people like the persons with disability, it requires a lot of logistical arrangements.

Case study

In many cases, some consider 'the case' an object of the study (Stake, 1995) and others consider it a methodology (Marriam, 1988). A case study is an exploration of a bounded system or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context. In summary, a case study involves basically the following components.

- Identified "case" for the study for instance a program, an event, an activity, or individual(s). Also note several programmes (multi-site study) or single program (within-site study) might be selected for the study.
- A bounded system, bounded by time (6months data collection) and place.
- Uses extensive, multiple sources of information in data collection to provide the detailed in-depth picture of the bounded system response for instance observations, interviews, audio-visual materials, documents and reports.
- Focused of the describing the context, setting the case, situating the case within and outside the broader bounded system. For instance the physical, social, historical, economic settings.

The focus on the such contextual settings are because of its uniqueness, requires study (intrinsic case study) or it may be on an issue or issues, with the case used instrumentally to illustrate the issue (an instrumental case study) (Stake, 1995). And when more than one case is studied, it is referred to as a collective case study. In choosing what case to study, a collection of possibilities for purposive sampling is often available depending on the favouring circumstances.

Expected Learning Outcome:

Participants are expected to understand basic theories, principles and procedure of research design, basic variety of research tools, methods and approaches used in the social sciences. Consequently be in position to addressing issues, challenges and emerging trends in a globalized world for a peaceful

urban society.

Session Methodology:

Methodology & Teaching/ facilitating strategies	Time	Resources	Activities guidelines
Recap and animation	10mins	Audio visual or flip charts and marker pens	The students group of recap presents the recap of the last lecture and the animation group reminded of the animation during the class.
Participatory lecture	60mins		Presentation and discussion on concepts of research based on urban social problems
Case study and examples and brainstorming	100mins		The student are given examples of concepts to elicit understanding of key concepts in regards to urban context and general Reflection for action point in reference to field trip during session eight
Synthesis and takeaways	10mins		Students take a personal reflection and analysis of the most striking concepts. Mention what they learnt during the class as takeaway

NB: This will be repeated in the next session

Session Evaluation:

- Minute papers and synthesis

- Takeaways

Readings:

Required Readings

Corbetta, P. (2003). *Social Research: Theory, Methods and Techniques*. London: Sage Publications. 117-163

Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Traditions*. Chapter 5: pp. 73-91. London: Sage Publications.

Gray, E. D. (2004). *Doing Research in the Real World*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Recommended Readings.

Gibbs, J. P. (1961). *Urban Research Methods*. Princeton, New Jersey, D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc.

Robert, K. Y. (2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*, 3rd Edition, London: Sage Publications.

Session 12: Field Trip

Learning Objectives:

- To translate and relate classroom theory to practical situation and context.
- To better understand the mechanisms of reality versus theory.
- To develop empathy and inspiration to encounter the urban divide.
- To carry out research and develop research skills and techniques in urban context.

Content:

This field trip (To an Urban Area to Observe Urban Social Problems) follows the urban social issues and conflict scenarios of a specific context. The purpose of this field works as described above, will be hands on experience of a chosen academic viable case to inform students' ability to intuit and develop experience and solutions for the future. The class travel to any identified urban areas, which is subject to manifold threats that affect peoples' lives and properties as well as communal infrastructures. That is, in general terms insecurity to livelihood. This visit includes a comprehension of the environmental, physical, socio-economic parameters that explain or underline the phenomenon and discussion of urban frontier (problems and peace building).

Expected Learning Outcome:

At the end of this trip the participants are expected to demonstrate the following;

- Choose a research topic on related urban scenario,
- Apply related classroom theories to practical situation and context of their research,
- Make a list of annotated bibliography,
- Better understand the tools necessary to conduct urban research and situated them to their related chosen research topic,
- Develop empathy and inspiration to encounter the urban divide, and
- Carry out research and develop research skills and techniques in urban context.

Session Methodology:

Basic research tools will be applicable during this session, albeit there will be guidance and preparation briefing before the actual trip to highlight key issues. Example of the tools to apply will include;

- Transect walk.

- Community mapping.
- Observation.
- Institutional analysis.
- Interviews among others.

Session Evaluation:

- Fieldwork reports.
- Final research project presentation and paper.
- Recaps and field trip evaluation where key points are highlighted and discussed.

Readings:

No readings required, however, referring to the following recommended readings would help easily understand the field trip better. Thus its highly recommended.

- Refer to session 5, 6, 7 and 13, required readings.

Session 13: Group Presentation

Learning Objectives:

- Develop facilitation and presentation skills,
- Learn to disseminate and pass information to others, and
- Develop audience and locality for future leadership.

Content:

Based on the field trip in session eight, that follows the urban social issues and conflict scenarios of a specific context. The students present their findings with the purpose sharing experience of the chosen academic viable case to inform students' ability to intuit and develop experience and solutions for the future. The key issues presented here should reflect the intent of session eight that is, present issues of the urban area, which is subject to manifold threats that affect peoples' lives and properties as well as communal infrastructures. That is, in general terms insecurity to livelihood. The presentation content includes a comprehension of the environmental, physical, socio-economic parameters that explain or underline the phenomenon and discussion of urban frontier (problems and peace building).

Expected Learning Outcome:

At the end of this session, students are expected to develop facilitation and presentation skills, learn to disseminate and pass information to others from field experience and develop audience and locality for future leadership.

Session Methodology:

Within the 3 hours, using power point or any method that aid full understanding of the issues, students present their findings, discuss challenges and present the way forwards. This activity lies in the hands of the students and the instructors only guide where necessary.

Session Evaluation:

Quality of presentation that is clarity, time management, audibility, focus, group participation and class attention.

Readings:

No readings required.

Session 14: Final Wrap-up and Evaluation

Learning Objectives:

- To explore the understanding of key concepts delivered during the course and its understanding.
- To further clarify on concepts not well understood and to gain more understanding.
- To get feedback for further improvement of the course.

Content:

In this final session there are no readings assigned and it will be dedicated to summarize the knowledge gained, share the most salient questions, the difficulties found and the issues to be addressed in the course in order to better address its goal. Some reflection questions will include:

- What is most/less salient in this course?
- What have been the main lessons learned?
- What was the workload and how it facilitated/impeded performance?
- How should we improve the organization of the course in the future?

This process leads to and prepares students for the final exams, which is set within the areas discussed in the sessions one to fourteen (1-14) in order to obtain the final grade of the course.

Expected Learning Outcome:

At the end of this session, participants are able to express their feelings of the course (SWOT analysis) and be able to recommend areas for improvement. As part of the final grading, they are also expected to sit the exams apart from the sole expected outcomes described in the respective course sessions above.

Session Methodology:

within the first session (3hours) of this session participants make their evaluation in a participatory approach lead by the class representative.

Session Evaluation:

Class report of evaluation and exam scripts.

Readings:

No readings required

Session 15: Final Exams

Learning Objectives:

- To test the understanding of the key concept of the course.
- To determine the level of understanding and synthesis of key concept of the course.
- To obtain the final grade of the course.

Content:

This is an important aspect, where students take on the final examination which is set within the areas discussed in the varied sessions (1-14) above, in order to obtain the final grade of the course. The questions examined will fall within the area (concepts) covered under the different session; however, students who explore the concepts beyond those discussed during the class will have high chances of obtaining credit as an appreciation. It is there for encouraged that students explore and synthesize the concepts to prepare them to present their perspectives during the examinations.

Expected Learning Outcome:

Students answer the question provided to them based on their own interpretation and understanding of the concepts examined. Students do not merely copy what they learn (or cram) but present a synthesis of what they understand from the key concepts during the lectures in their own context.

Session Methodology:

In the three (3) hours of this session participants take on their exams which is done individual and within conveniently set rules of the University pertaining examination.

Session Evaluation:

- The final answer script.
- Attendance sheet for the exams.
- Final marks obtained from exams.

Readings:

It is required and recommended students prepare thoroughly throughout all the session in order to be ready for the final exams. Additional reading apart from the class readings is also highly encouraged to increase the understanding of the students and will be rewarded.

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Video links

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- Greenhouse effect, up loaded by veppie0 on Apr 2, 2008. Retrieved May 5, 2012 from <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LFNKfWyGxHw&feature=related> .