

Annex B: Comparison of Abiy Ahmed’s PhD thesis with text fragments from earlier publications

Annex to: De Waal, A., Nyssen, J., Gebrekirstos Gebreselassie, Roukema, B., and Rundassa Eshete, 2023. ‘Plagiarism in Abiy Ahmed's PhD Thesis: How will Addis Ababa University handle this?’ World Peace Foundation: Reinventing Peace.

ABIY AHMED PhD THESIS CHAPTER TWO	TEXT WAS PREVIOUSLY PUBLISHED AS:
<p>... the term social capital remains an elusive concept in the socio-political and economic literature, sometimes considered as an all-absorbing black hole with less defined limits. ... outlining a conceptual ... review will help us to understand the notion of social capital and the vital role it plays in conflict affected societies.</p> <p>P. 17</p>	<p>... the elusive notion of social capital. ... the concept ... in the socio-political and economic literature or ‘a black hole’ with more or less defined limits ... Outlining a conceptual framework that will provide a basis for approaching the notion of social capital and its role in the reconstruction of divided societies ...</p> <p>Popova, Z., 2009. The role of social capital for post-ethnic-conflict reconstruction. PhD thesis, University of Bath, U.K., 322 p. https://purehost.bath.ac.uk/ws/portalfiles/portal/187953214/UnivBath_PhD_2009_Z_Popova.pdf P. 103 (archive)</p>
<p>Smith and Kulynych (2002) believed that the phrase “social capital” has a broad, pervasive, and honorific meaning and that the term blurs many distinctions which adversely affect the scholarly inquiry, whatever its implicit or explicit normative concerns are. On the contrary, Inkeles (2000) suggested that the term capital is too limiting and suggested rather the use of the term social or communal resources because capital as (added) an element of production of goods and services not only necessitates goods but also social support, physical and social security, freedom of expression, and opportunities to develop which is not covered by the term capital.</p> <p>P. 18 (page numbers as labelled in the scanned version of the PhD thesis by Abiy Ahmed)</p>	<p>Smith and Kulynych (2002) believed that the word capital has a too broad, pervasive, and honorific meaning and that the term blurs many distinctions which adversely affects the scholarly inquiry, whatever its implicit or explicit normative concerns. Inkeles (2000, p. 20) suggested that the term capital is too limiting and would rather use the term social or communal resources. The author argued this on the basis of: ‘capital being an element of production, in particular the production of goods, but also services.</p> <p>Claridge, T., 2004. Social Capital and Natural Resource Management: An important role for social capital? Unpublished Thesis, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia https://www.socialcapitalresearch.com/literature/ P. 27 (archive)</p>
<p>Schmid (2000) stated that capital is not immediately used up in</p>	<p>Schmid (2000) identified that capital is not immediately used up in</p>

production but rather its services extend over time. P. 18	production but rather its services extend over time. Claridge, 2004. P. 28
Piazza-Georgi (2002) argues that capital produces income and encompasses the non-consumable but depreciating inputs into the production process. P. 18	Piazza-Georgi (2002) states that capital produces income and encompasses the non-consumable, but depreciating, inputs into the production process. Claridge, 2004. P. 28
Castle (2002) adds other characteristics of capital regarding usefulness and durability. P. 18	Castle (2002) adds that other characteristics of capital are usefulness and durability. Claridge, 2004. P. 28
Social capital is different from other forms of capital in that it resides in social relationships whereas other forms of capital revolve around the individual (Robison et al., 2002). P. 19	Social capital is different from other forms of capital in that it resides in social relationships whereas other forms of capital can reside in the individual (Robison et al. 2002). Claridge, 2004. P. 28
Certainly, it is the use of the term capital that makes the concept attractive to such a wide range of people given the blending together of sociology and economics (Adam & Roncevic, 2003). P. 19	Certainly, it is the use of the term capital that makes the concept attractive to such a wide range of people given the bringing together of sociology and economics (Adam and Roncevic 2003). Claridge, 2004. P. 29
Putnam originally envisaged only these positive externalities of social capital, but others have since recognized negative externalities of social capital. P. 20	Putnam originally envisaged these externalities as being only of a positive nature, but he and others have since recognized that negative externalities... Grootaert, C. and van Bastelaer, T., 2001. Understanding and measuring social capital: A synthesis of findings and recommendations from the social capital initiative; World Bank, P. 4 https://www.casade.org/CapitalSocial/World_Bank_Understanding_social%20capital.pdf (archive)
Coleman defined social capital by its function (enabling social action) as a variety of different entities which all consist of some aspect of social structure and facilitate certain actions of actors whether	'Social capital is defined by its function. It is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities having two characteristics in common: they all consist of some aspect of social structures, and they facilitate

<p>personal or corporate.</p> <p>P. 21</p>	<p>certain actions of actors – whether persons or corporate actors – within the structure’ (Coleman 1988, p. S98).</p> <p>Claridge, 2004. P. 19</p>
<p>Bourdieu's approach is an important reminder that social capital can be exclusionary and might perpetuate social inequality ... (Bourdieu, 1986).</p> <p>P. 22</p>	<p>The Bourdieu approach is an important reminder that social capital can be exclusionary and contribute to the reproduction of inequalities.</p> <p>Rouxel, P., 2014. <i>Is Social Capital a Determinant of Oral health among Older Adults? An Analysis of the English Longitudinal Study of Ageing (ELSA)</i> (Doctoral dissertation, UCL (University College London)), 303 p. https://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/id/eprint/1430419/1/PATRICK_ROUXEL_2-Thesis1_Patrick_Final.pdf_redacted.pdf</p> <p>P. 30</p>
<p>According to his model, integration represents strong ties, or those primordial links within the community that are defensive. Linkages encompass intercommunity and intergroup ties. The concept of organizational integrity and synergy respectively stated as effectiveness and ability to function and the states links communities. An advantage of Woolcock's model is that it integrates vertical and horizontal forms of social capital and their relationships, thus facilitating analysis and the targeting of policy recommendations at the macro, meso, and micro levels.</p> <p>P. 23</p>	<p>According to his model, "integration" represents what Granovetter (1973) refers to as strong ties, or those primordial links within the family or a tightly knit community that are defensive. (See also Gittel and Vidal 1998 on the concept of bonding social capital.) "Linkages" encompass intercommunity and intergroup ties, or Granovetter's weak ties. The concepts of "organizational integrity" and "synergy" are respectively the state's effectiveness and ability to function and the state's links to the community. An advantage of Woolcock's model is that it integrates vertical and horizontal forms of social capital and their relationships, thus facilitating analysis and the targeting of policy and project recommendations at the macro, meso, and micro levels.</p> <p>Colletta, N.J., Cullen, M.L., 2000. The nexus between violent conflict, social capital and social cohesion: case studies from Cambodia and Rwanda. <i>The World Bank, Social Capital Initiative, Working Paper No. 23, P. 4. (archive)</i></p>
<p>Putnam identified two main components of the concept of social capital, bonding social capital and bridging social capital, the creation of which Putnam credits to Ross Gittel and Avis Vidal.</p>	<p>Putnam speaks of two main components of the concept: <i>bonding social capital</i> and <i>bridging social capital</i>, the creation of which Putnam credits to Ross Gittel and Avis Vidal.</p>

<p>P. 24</p>	<p>Zelchenko et al., 2015, <i>Social Capital</i>, Wikipedia, (C) CC BY-SA [this material is copyrighted; it is not in the public domain] https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Social_capital&oldid=555161990</p>
<p>The bonding and bridging are similar in meaning to Granovetter's (1973) strong and weak thesis (<i>sic</i>). ... localized trust and norm of reciprocity.</p> <p>Such ties have been found to stimulate a high level of solidarity within the group structure, which can effectively mobilize resources around a common purpose, facilitates creation of shared identities,</p> <p>provision of emotional closeness, social support and crisis aid (Gittell & Vidal, 1998; Putnam, 2001).</p> <p>Apart from its positive externalities bonding social capital when it is taken to the extreme is also associated with various downsides such as harm to individuals within the group and exclusion of outsiders (Portes & Landolt, 1996; Portes, 1998).</p> <p>Bridging social capital on the other hand, refers to horizontal connections between socially heterogeneous groups but have broadly similar socio-economic status and power (Putnam, 2001; Woolcock, 2001; Grannoveter, 1986).</p>	<p>The bonding and bridging terms, first introduced by Gittell and Vidal [19], are similar in meaning to Granovetter's [24] strong and weak ties. (...) local reciprocity and particularized trust;</p> <p>and provision of emotional closeness, social support and crisis aid [19, 20, 30].</p> <p>Such ties engender a high level of solidarity within the group structure, which can effectively mobilize individuals and resources around a common purpose [20, 21, 31]. (...) The various downsides of social capital noted by Portes and Landolt [32], and Portes [33] (i.e., harm to individuals within the group, exclusion of outsiders, and other negative externalities) are generally associated with bonding social capital. (...) Bridging social capital implies looser ties between people who are not alike demographically, but have similar financial status and power [20, 25].</p>

<p>P. 24 [spacing inserted for clarity]</p>	<p>Babaei, H., Ahmad, N. and Gill, S.S., 2012. Bonding, bridging and linking social capital and empowerment among squatter settlements in Tehran, Iran. <i>World Applied Sciences Journal</i>, 17(1), pp. 119-126. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/221658632_Bonding_Bridging_and_Linking_Social_Capital_and_Psychological_Empowerment_among_Squatter_Settlements_in_Tehran_Iran P. 120</p>
<p>Bridging ties are inclusive, cutting across ethnicity, caste, race, culture and other social cleavages (Grant, 2001; Wakefield & Blake, 2005; Narayan and Pritchett, 1999).</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>... bridging social capital ... low potential for negative externalities because of the moderating influence of cross-cutting ties (Field, 2003; Putnam, 2001; Putnam, 2002).</p> <p>P. 24</p>	<p>... bridging ties are inclusive, cutting across ethnicity, caste, race, culture and other social cleavages [21, 23, 34].</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>Negative externalities are assumed to be unlikely because of the moderating influence of crosscutting ties [20, 26, 29].</p> <p>Babaei et al., 2012. P. 121</p>
<p>Unlike bonding and bridging social capital which basically stress horizontal relationships, linking social capital represents the vertical dimension such as civil society organizations, government agencies, representatives of the public and the private sector (Grant, 2001; Woolcock, 2001; Halpern, 2005).</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>The literature regarding linking social capital stresses the positive externalities but the adequacy of the concept to address issues of power and conflict is contested.</p> <p>World Bank and other proponents of the concept (e.g. Woolcock, 2001; Halpern, 2005), view linking social capital as essential asset for the well-being and long-term development of poor and marginalized</p>	<p>Whereas bonding and bridging refer to basically horizontal relationships, linking social capital represents the vertical dimension [25, 27]. Linking ties may include civil society organizations (...), government agencies (...), representatives of the public (...) and the private sector (...) [21].</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>... the literature equates linking social capital with positive outcomes for communities, the adequacy of the social capital concept to address issues of power and conflict is contested.</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>Proponents of social capital, such as the World Bank, maintain that (...) linking social capital is deemed essential for the well-being and long-</p>

<p>groups.</p> <p>Different combinations of the three types of community-level social capital are thought to produce a range of outcomes (Field, 2003; Woolcock, 2005) paralleling the argument made about the micro-and macro-forms of social capital in Woolcock's (1998) integrated model. Once again, more community-level social Capital is not necessarily better; over-reliance on bonding or bridging, for instance, can be detrimental because benefits are confined to one type of social capital at the expense of the other (Halpern, 2005). Similar to Woolcock's model, the conceptualization of community-level social capital is dynamic rather than static.</p> <p>P. 25</p>	<p>term development of poor and marginalized groups [25, 27, 28].</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>Different combinations of the three types of community-level social capital are thought to produce a range of outcomes [25, 26], paralleling the argument made about the micro-and macro-forms of social capital in Woolcock's [13] integrated model. Once again, more community-level social capital is not necessarily better; over-reliance on bonding or bridging, for instance, can be detrimental because benefits are confined to one type of social capital at the expense of the other [27]. Similar to Woolcock's model, the conceptualization of community-level social capital is dynamic rather than static.</p> <p>Babaei et al., 2012. P. 121</p>
<p>The optimal combination of bonding, bridging and linking social capital can vary over time as the needs and priorities of the community evolves or as the macro- environment itself changes (Halpern, 2005; Woolcock, 2005).</p> <p>P. 26</p>	<p>The optimal combination of bonding, bridging and linking social capital can vary over time as the needs and priorities of the community evolves or as the macro-environment itself changes [13, 38].</p> <p>Babaei et al., 2012. P. 121</p>
<p>... this distinction is highly influential for the reason that it highlights how social capital may not always be beneficial for society as a whole even though it is always an asset for those individuals and groups involved.</p> <p>Horizontal networks of individual citizens and groups that enhance community productivity and cohesion are said to have positive social capital assets whereas self-serving exclusive gangs and hierarchical patronage systems that operate at cross purposes to societal interests can be thought of as negative social capital burdens on society</p>	<p>The distinction is useful in highlighting how social capital may not always be beneficial for society as a whole (though it is always an asset for those individuals and groups involved).</p> <p>Horizontal networks of individual citizens and groups that enhance community productivity and cohesion are said to be positive social capital assets whereas self-serving exclusive gangs and hierarchical patronage systems that operate at cross purposes to societal interests can be thought of as negative social capital burdens on society</p>

<p>(Varshney, 2001). P. 26</p>	<p>IP user 194.117.133.118 et al., 2006, <i>Social capital</i>, in Wikipedia, https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Social_capital&oldid=51828</p>
<p>These webs of relationships, especially when they link people from different backgrounds, are what hold a community together. The more bonding and bridging horizontal social capital link with vertical social capital, the more likely it will be that a society is cohesive and thus possesses the inclusive institutions necessary for managing conflicts. But when a society's social capital inheres mainly primary social groups disconnected from one another, the more powerful groups attempt to dominate the other creating situations of conflict. P. 26</p>	<p>These webs of relationships, especially when they link people from different backgrounds, are what hold a community together. The more bonding and bridging horizontal social capital link with vertical social capital, the more likely it will be that a society is cohesive and thus possesses the inclusive institutions necessary for managing conflicts. But when a society's social capital inheres mainly in primary social groups disconnected from one another, the more powerful groups attempt to dominate the state, to the exclusion of others groups. Such societies are characterized by latent conflict. Keho, Y., 2009. Social Capital in Situations of Conflict: A Case Study from Côte d'Ivoire. <i>African Research Review</i>, 3(3): 158-180. https://www.ajol.info/index.php/afrrrev/article/view/47522/33899 P. 164 (archive)</p>
<p>Understanding how networks and institutions are organized, the outcomes they pursue and the consequences of such outcomes are fundamentally important in understanding social Capital as used for collective action. Human beings typically undertake collective action to meet perceived needs and seize Or create opportunities. This involves crafting and implementing rules. Even the loosest networks of individuals are underpinned by rules. Understanding how such networks are put together enhances understanding of how conflict management is exercised, rules made and monitored, sanctions levied and implemented, and outcomes realized and evaluated. P. 26-27</p>	<p>Understanding how networks and institutions are organized, the outcomes they pursue and the consequences of such outcomes are fundamentally important in understanding social capital as used for collective action. Human beings typically undertake collective action to meet perceived needs and seize or create opportunities. This involves crafting and implementing rules. Even the loosest networks of individuals are underpinned by rules. Understanding how such networks are put together enhances understanding of how entrepreneurship is exercised, rules made and monitored, sanctions levied and implemented and outcomes realized and evaluated. Sawyer, A., 2004a. Social capital, survival strategies and their implications for post-conflict governance in Liberia. In: <i>Bloomington: Indiana University, Workshop in Political Theory and Policy Analysis</i>. Unpublished paper, 27 p. https://web.archive.org/web/20170808115107id_/http://indiana.ed</p>

<p>Conflicts are as old as human societies and appear to be a basic constituent of human life in diverse activities. Historically, individuals, social groups and societies have disputed and competed against one another over scarce resources such as land, money, as well as political power and ideology.</p> <p>P. 27</p>	<p>u/~wow3/papers/wow3_sawyer.pdf P. 5.</p> <p>Conflicts are as old as human societies themselves. Historically, individuals, social groups and societies have disputed and competed against one another over scarce commodities and resources land, money, political power, and ideology.</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012. An Assessment of Indigenous Conflict Resolution Mechanism of Mezard in Rural Alamata Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia, MA Thesis https://www.grin.com/document/214145 (archive)</p>
<p>Conflict could be classified and understood based on different criteria and this has created difficulty in formulating an operational and a working definition of the concept.</p> <p>P. 27</p>	<p>The term could be classified based on different criterias and variables, and this creates difficulty in formulating an operational and exact definition.</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012.</p>
<p>The consequences of conflict can also range from simple disputes, with positive outcomes such as a football match (Powelson, 1972; Boulding, 1977) to spontaneous poorly organized turmoil to highly organized and very violent wars, Conflicts can also be nonviolent, but well organized and focused on changing government policies (Rothgeb, 1996).</p> <p>P. 28</p>	<p>They can range from simple, non-violent disputes with positive outcomes (such as a football match, Powelson, 1972:34; Boulding, 1977:26) through spontaneous, poorly organized turmoil (riots) to highly organised and very violent (war). Conflicts can also be nonviolent, well organised and focused on changing government policy (Rothgeb, 1996:188).</p> <p>Bennett, E. and Neiland, A., 2001. 'The Management of Conflict in tropical fisheries- Final Technical Report- Background Appendix 4: Literature Review'; CEMARE. P. 101 https://mrag.co.uk/sites/default/files/fmspdocs/R7334_App1-4.pdf</p>
<p>In addition, Oberschall (1973) distinguishes between two forms of conflict definition in literature, the first definition is related to Weber and the notion of conflict as an action which is aligned to class struggle and physical violence and second one, called social conflict, allows for a non-violent differing of opinion and values. Similarly, Wallace (1993) distinguishes between non-coercive peaceful conflicts as opposed to coercive or violent conflict.</p>	<p>Oberschall (1973:30) distinguishes between the Weberian notion of 'conflict as action' and 'social conflict' as defined by Coser. The former he considers too aligned to class struggle and physical violence whilst he claims that the latter definition allows for the non-violent differing of opinions and values. Wallace (1993) distinguishes on the basis of coercion – non-coercive or peaceful conflicts as opposed to coercive or violent conflict.</p>

<p>P. 29</p> <p>If one proceeds to dissect conflict, he states that, three principle constituents would be found: the attitudes of the participants, the behavior of those participants and the contradiction that influence the needs of the participants.</p> <p>The attitudes of the participants include their perceptions and misconceptions of each other, and these attitudes are influenced by other factors such as fear and prejudice. The behavior of the participants can include anything from co-operation and coercion through to threats, violence and hostility.</p>	<p>Bennett and Neiland, 2001; P. 101</p> <p>If it were possible to 'dissect' conflict three principal constituents would be found: the attitudes of the participants, the behaviour of those participants and the structures that influence the needs of the participants (University of Bradford, 1999). The attitudes of the participants include their perceptions and misconceptions of each other, and these attitudes are influenced by other factors such as fear and prejudice. The behaviour of the participants can include anything from co-operation and coercion though to threats, violence and hostility.</p>
<p>P. 29</p> <p>In a slightly different manner, many scholars typically identified several types of conflicts based on the causes of conflicts; these include resource conflicts (Collier, 2000 & 2003), conflicts linked to superpower rivalry and its aftermath (Copson, 1991; Hampson 1996), conflicts associated more broadly with governance failure (Zartman, 1995) and identity conflicts driven by differences over issues of religion, ethnicity and space, among others (Gurr, 2000).</p> <p>P. 30</p>	<p>Bennett and Neiland, 2001; P. 103</p> <p>Intrastate conflicts are typically classified as identity conflicts, driven by questions of ethnicity, religion, and space, among others (Gurr 2000a); resource conflicts (Collier 2000, 2003); conflicts linked to superpower rivalry and its aftermath (Copson 1991; Hampson 1996); and as conflicts associated more broadly with governance failure (Zartman 1995b).</p> <p>Sawyer, A, 2004b. "Violent conflicts and governance challenges in West Africa: the case of the Mano River basin area." <i>The Journal of Modern African Studies</i>, 42(3): 437-463. https://www.cambridge.org/core/services/aop-cambridge-core/content/view/05EB21C20F63C87E8E9319952E5A6455/S0022278X04000266a.pdf</p>
<p>Wright (1951) identified three types of conflict based on the modalities of conflict: latent overt and covert conflict. Latent conflict is a state where conflict is both possible and expected because of unequal distribution of resources or conflictual action but neither of the two is actually experienced as conflict generating and no provoking action is taken. Overt conflict, on the other hand, occurs where two agents are in overt conflict if they both experience grounds for conflictual action against the other and as a result take such action. Covert conflict can either be an actual two-party conflict</p>	<p>(i) Latent conflict. This is a state where conflict is both possible and expected (combination of alethic and epistemic modality) because of unequal distribution of resources or conflictual action but neither of the two is actually experienced as conflict generating and no countering conflictual action is taken. On deontic grounds, we could then further distinguish between different kinds of latent conflicts.</p> <p>(ii) Overt conflict. Two agents are in overt conflict if they both experience grounds for conflictual action against the other and as a result take such action. As has already been noted, the experienced</p>

<p>which is concealed from another interested party or a case where conflictual action is taken by one agent against another agent, who is unaware of the action, but who would, if the action were discovered, experience it as conflict generating and take counter measures.</p> <p>Pp. 30-31</p>	<p>grounds for conflict can, but need not, correspond to any actual grounds for conflict.</p> <p>(iii) Covert conflict. This can either be an actual two-party conflict which is concealed from another interested party or a case where conflictual action is taken by one agent against another agent, who is unaware of the action, but who would, if the action were discovered, experience it as conflict generating and take countermeasures.</p> <p>Allwood, J., 1999. Types of Conflict and Conflict Handling in an Academic Seminar, In: Hultberg, J. (ed.) <i>New Genres in Science Studies</i>, University of Göteborg, Dept of the Theory of Science. Pp. 2-3 https://gup.ub.gu.se/publication/37045</p>
<p>Although the various efforts towards defining conflict cycles are not necessarily contradictory, they differ significantly in terms of their complexity. Thus, some writers put forward a very simple model with three stages (Mertus & Helsing, 2006) while others add on features and work with models with several more stages (Robinson, 1978). Many writers include in their models the escalation and de-escalation phases, thus being able to present them as graphs, mostly in curve (Lund, 1996) or, more correctly, waveform (Lederach, 2005).</p> <p>P. 31</p>	<p>Although the various efforts towards defining conflict cycles are not necessarily contradictory, they differ significantly in terms of their complexity. Thus, while some writers put forward a very simple model with three stages, others add on features and work with models with several more stages or even several parallel sub-conflicts, defined by issue area rather than geographically, and each of them with different dynamics.</p> <p>Many writers include in their models the escalation and de-escalation phases, thus being able to present them as graphs, mostly in curve or, more correctly, wave form.</p> <p>Wohlfeld, M., 2010. An overview of the conflict cycle. In: O. Grech, & M. Wohlfeld (Eds.), <i>Human rights and the conflict cycle</i> (pp. 13-32). Msida: Mediterranean Academy of Diplomatic Studies. Pp. 17-18 https://web.archive.org/web/20221214014513/https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/93183699.pdf</p>
<p>The proposition that conflict cycles are recurring is strongly supported by empirical research and work of numerous scholars. Some claim that once a conflict has taken place, the probability of conflict reoccurring becomes significantly higher (Wohlfeld, 2010).</p>	<p>The proposition that conflict cycles are recurring is strongly supported by empirical research and work of numerous scholars. In addition, some claim that once a conflict has taken place, the probability of conflict re-occurring becomes significantly higher.</p>

<p>P. 31</p>	<p>Wohlfeld, 2010; P. 27</p>
<p>Mertus and Helsing (2006) identified three stages to a conflict: the conflict intensification stage, the armed conflict stage and the post-conflict/post crisis stage. The conflict intensification stage is inter alia marked by human rights violations as root causes of conflict, and failure to address human rights issues hinders conflict prevention efforts. During the armed conflict stage, competing factions take up arms and human rights abuses are both a common by-product of the violence and a component of wartime strategy, while human rights norms and concerns inform efforts for international intervention, during the post conflict/post crisis stage, violent conflict ceases and efforts at rebuilding begin.</p> <p>P. 32</p>	<p>For example, Julie A. Mertus and Jeffrey W. Helsing in their book 'Human Rights and Conflict', divide their work in three stages to a conflict: the conflict intensification stage, the armed conflict stage and the post-conflict/post crisis stage. Each of them has specific characteristics. The conflict intensification stage is inter alia marked by human rights violations as root causes of conflict, and failure to address human rights issues hinders conflict prevention efforts. During the armed conflict stage, competing factions take up arms and human rights abuses are both a common by-product of the violence and a component of wartime strategy, while human rights norms and concerns inform efforts for international intervention. During the post-conflict/post crisis stage violent conflict ceases and efforts at rebuilding begin.</p> <p>Wohlfeld, 2010; P. 16</p>
<p>In the same manner the Conflict Prevention Network of European commission has identified four stages of the conflict cycle: stable peace, unstable peace, high tension and open conflict. In this approach, pre conflict and post conflict phases are opposed directions of the linear approach, in that in post conflict situation the conflict intensity diminishes from open conflict to high tension and so on, to stable peace.</p> <p>P. 32</p>	<p>The Conflict Prevention Network of the European Commission has identified four stages of the conflict cycle: stable peace, unstable peace, high tension and open conflict. In this approach, pre-conflict and post-conflict phases are opposed directions of the linear approach, in that in post conflict situation the conflict intensity diminishes from open conflict to high tension and so on, to stable peace.</p> <p>Wohlfeld, 2010; P. 18</p>
<p>... tension that develops among parties. As the disagreement or threat begins to develop, the various parties start taking sides. The conflict can appear immediately or over time (tension development). People or groups who are involved in the situation raise questions about what is happening, who is right, and what should be done. They try to decide whether they should take sides and, if so, which one (role dilemma). Usually, tension and role dilemma happen at the same time. At the Injustice Collecting stage, each party begins to</p>	<p>Tension Development: As a disagreement or threat begins to develop, the various parties start taking sides. The conflict can appear immediately or keep building over time. Role Dilemma: People or groups who are involved raise questions about what is happening, who is right, or what should be done. They try to decide whether they should take sides and, if so, which one. Tension Development and Role Dilemma often occur at the same time.</p>

<p>gather support. Each itemizes the problems, justifies their position, and thinks of ways to win. At the confrontation stage, the parties meet and clash. If both parties hold fast to their opinions, barriers may develop. Confrontation may be lessened or avoided by one or both parties making adjustments. If one party is weak and the other strong, the strong party can win by domination, but the conflict may reappear. If parties have equal power and neither party decided to change, they can wage a cold war, with each party trying to weaken the other. One party may choose to avoid the other. The two parties can work together in active participation to look for a solution to take care of both parties' needs.</p> <p>P. 32-33</p>	<p>Injustice Collecting: Each party begins to gather support. Each itemizes the problems, justifies its position, and thinks of ways to win.</p> <p>Confrontation: The parties meet and clash. If both parties hold fast to their opinions, barriers may develop. Confrontation may be lessened or avoided if one or both parties make adjustments.</p> <p>Adjustments: If one party is weak and the other strong, the strong party might win by sheer domination — but the conflict may reappear. If parties have equal power, and neither party decides to change, they can wage a “cold war,” each trying to weaken the other. One party may choose to avoid the other. The parties may choose to compromise, each gaining a little and losing a little. The two parties can work together, actively looking for a solution that takes care of both parties' needs.</p> <p>K-State Research and Extension, Kansas State University, 2014, Managing Conflict in Groups. Kansas State University Agricultural Experiment Station and Cooperative Extension Service, 7 p. https://www.ksre.k-state.edu/community/civic-engagement/WA_Session_2_Lesson_C_-_Managing_Conflict_in_Groups.pdf P. 3 (archive)</p>
<p>One important difference in the various definitions of conflict cycle is whether scholars consider the absence of conflict as a stage of conflict cycle, or whether they start looking at the situation when tensions arise (Wohlfeld, 2010). This is difference in view indicates the conceptual variation among scholars in the field. Some (e.g. Lederach, 2003) see the study of peace as a distinct discipline from the study of conflict and war. For others it is also of key significance whether a peaceful and stable situation should be watched for any signs of tensions arising and, therefore, early warning can be given.</p> <p>P. 33</p>	<p>One important difference in the various definitions of the conflict cycle is whether scholars include in it the stage of peace and stability initially and after the conflict. In other words the difference is whether scholars consider the absence of conflict as a stage of conflict cycle, or whether they start looking at the situation when tensions arise, and abandon its study before peace and stability have been achieved. This is not just a rhetorical difference. For some it is a philosophical difference, and they see the study of peace as a distinct discipline from the study of conflict and war. For others it is also of key significance whether a peaceful and stable situation should be watched for any signs of tensions arising and, therefore, early warning can be given, or whether the work of conflict resolution and human rights experts starts when tensions and hostilities emerge.</p>

<p>The division into stages or phases and the understanding of conflict as circular is the starting point for research on conflict prevention, management, and resolution. In order to make the notion of conflict cycle more relevant in the study of reactions to conflict and to provide guidance to Practitioner, parallel conceptions of the conflict cycle, which focus on the stages of involvement, have been developed. Lund and West (1998) identified conflict prevention (preventive diplomacy, preventive action, crisis prevention, preventive peacebuilding), crisis management, conflict management (conflict mitigation), peace enforcement, conflict termination, peacekeeping and conflict resolution (post-conflict peace building) as the stages of conflict management.</p> <p>P. 33</p>	<p>Wohlfeld, 2010; P. 19</p> <p>The division into stages or phases and the understanding of conflict as circular is the starting point for research on conflict prevention, management and resolution. It also helps the practitioner, whether governmental, intergovernmental or NGO to decide when and how to get involved in addressing a conflict. However, in order to make the notion of conflict cycle more relevant in the study of reactions to conflict and to provide guidance to practitioner, parallel conceptions of the conflict cycle, which focus on the stages of involvement, have been developed.</p> <p>Michael Lund and Susan Votaw West, in their article on 'A Toolbox to Respond to Conflict and Build Peace', attempt to provide policy-makers and practitioners with a set of consistent terms pertaining to intervention that integrate the phases of conflict and policy interventions. They identify conflict prevention (preventive diplomacy, preventive action, crisis prevention, preventive peacebuilding), crisis management, conflict management (conflict mitigation), peace enforcement, conflict termination, peacekeeping, conflict resolution (post-conflict peacebuilding).</p> <p>Wohlfeld, 2010; P. 21</p>
<p>Some organizations and authors (e.g. Lund, 1996) especially those focused on conflict prevention, rightly add early warning, and argue that the most important step is from early warning to earl action.</p> <p>P. 34</p>	<p>However, some organizations and authors, especially those focused on conflict prevention, rightly add early warning, and argue that the most important step is from early warning to early action.</p> <p>Wohlfeld, 2010; P. 22</p>
<p>Lund's diagram of the Life cycle of a Conflict illustrates that in the typical life cycle of a conflict, there is a natural decline in tension after the violence has ended. In this regard peace building occupies the later stages of a conflict, both simultaneous and contiguous with peacekeeping efforts (Lund, 1996). This stage focuses on the failure of usual efforts to shift conflicts to a stable situation and reduce re-escalation probability.</p>	<p>In the typical life cycle of a conflict there is a natural decline in tension after the violence has ended. Lund's diagram of the Life History of a Conflict illustrates that peacebuilding occupies the later stages of a conflict, both simultaneous and contiguous with peacekeeping efforts (Lund, 1996: 38). This stage focuses on the failure of usual efforts to shift conflicts to a stable situation and reduce re-escalation probability.</p>

<p>P. 34</p>	<p>Adams, N.M., 2008. Peacebuilding Theory in the Pacific Context: Towards creating a categorical framework for comparative post-conflict analysis. MPS thesis, University of Canterbury, 135 p. https://ir.canterbury.ac.nz/bitstream/handle/10092/2189/thesis_fulltext.pdf P. 18. (archive)</p>
<p>Hence, most attempts to identify typologies of conflict shows weakness in the field of exhaustiveness, mutual exclusiveness of categories, semantic consistency and neutrality.</p> <p>P. 34</p>	<p>Most of the existing typologies of conflict show weaknesses in the field of exhaustiveness, mutual exclusiveness of categories, semantic consistency, and neutrality.</p> <p>Bouta, T. and Frerks, G., 2001. The Role of SNV in Developing Countries in Internal Armed Conflict (Unedited Version). Conflict Research Unit, Netherlands Institute of International Relations 'Clingendael', The Hague, 45 p. https://www.academia.edu/60859864/The_Role_of_SNV_in_Developing_Countries_in_Internal_Armed_Conflict_Unedited_Version P. 7</p>
<p>The Enemy System Theory (Volkan, 1988; Montville, 1990) and the Human Needs Theory (Burton 1990; Kelman, 1991) apply to this level of analysis. Both theories try to explain the complexity of group behavior especially antagonistic group relationships. The Enemy System Theory holds the hypothesis that humans have a deep-rooted psychological need to dichotomize and to establish enemies and allies. This phenomenon happens at individual and group levels. This is an unconscious need which feeds conscious relationships especially in our group lives (Cunningham, 1998).</p> <p>P. 35</p>	<p>Both the Enemy System Theory (Volkan 1988, Montville, 1990, Mack, 1990) and the Human Needs Theory (Burton 1990, Kelman, 1990) apply to the case of Cyprus. Both theories try to explain the complexity of group behavior especially antagonistic group relationships. "The gist of the Enemy System Theory is the hypothesis that humans have a deep rooted psychological need to dichotomise and to establish enemies and allies. This phenomenon happens on individual and group levels. This is an unconscious need which feeds conscious relationships, especially in our group lives" (Cunningham, 1998).</p> <p>Hadjipavlou, M., 2002. Root causes of conflict, challenges at the micro level and implications in post conflict Cyprus. Department of Social and Political Sciences University of Cyprus. https://paperzz.com/doc/8003599/root-causes-of-conflict--challenges-at-the-micro</p>

<p>... the role of social structures or institutions can also have a very powerful role to play in the emergence of conflicts because they have the ability to mediate, control and filter social behavior and attitudes. Institutions range from formal bodies that have a set of written rules and objectives to socially recognized and supported procedures and rules (Scott, 1988).</p> <p>P. 35-36</p>	<p>Social structures or institutions can also have a very powerful role to play in the emergence of conflicts because they have the ability to mediate, control and filter social behaviour and attitudes. Institutions can range from formal bodies that have a set of written rules and objectives to 'socially recognised and supported procedures and rules' (Scott, 1988:289).</p> <p>Bennett and Neiland, 2001. P. 104</p>
<p>For instance decision-making and game theories are typical examples of macro approach, which are developed based on the irrational (<i>sic!</i>) actor model whereby people make choices and decisions on a rational basis relying on the informed choices and weighing of opportunities, negotiation, communication and information (Schelling, 1960).</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>Thus, emphasis is put on competition over scarce resources (such as territory, power, status, etc).</p> <p>P. 36</p>	<p>Decision making and Game theories developed based on the "rational actor model" whereby people make choices and decisions on a rational basis relying on informed choices and weighing of opportunities. Negotiation, communication and information are important here (Schelling, 1960).</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>Thus emphasis is given on competition over scarce resources (such as territory, power, status, etc).</p> <p>Hadjipavlou, 2002. P.6</p>
<p>As conflicts progress, minor compromises are reached, the conflict changes as a result and moves on until a state of equilibrium is reached (Boulding, 1996; Homer Dixon & Levy, 1996). Thus, given the right context conflict is a fundamental societal need because it provides the arena within which debates are held and decisions taken. Similarly, Powelson (1972) argues that if there were no conflicts at all over the immediate goals, the ultimate goals which arise from immediate ones would not exist. In other words, society and institutions are the product of repeated conflict, negotiation, disagreement and compromise (Powelson, 1972; Jabri, 1996).</p> <p>Identifying the effects of conflict and starting whether its externalities are negative or positive depends on the issue of conflict and how</p>	<p>As conflicts progress, minor compromises are reached, the conflict changes as a result and moves on until a state of equilibrium is reached (Boulding, 1966: 236; Dixon, 1996:655). Thus, given the right context conflict is a fundamental societal need because it provides the arena within which debates are held and decisions taken. More fundamentally, Powelson (1972:54) argues that if there were never any conflict over the immediate goals, the ultimate goals which arise from the immediate ones would not exist. In other words, society and its institutions are the product of repeated conflict, negotiation, disagreement and compromise (Powelson, 1972:13; Jabri, 1996:54).</p> <p>In order to help clarify the position on whether conflict is positive or negative it is often helpful to look at what the conflict is over and how</p>

<p>fundamental that disagreement is to the social status quo.</p> <p>Conflict as disagreement over goal has been identified to occur over the ultimate or immediate goals (Aubert, 1963; Boulding, 1996; Powelson, 1972). This has been called over consensus or within consensus, disconsensual (over consensus) and consensual (within consensus), benign and malign conflicts.</p> <p>Conflicts within consensus or consensual are those that dispute the immediate goals. In other words, the parties agree about the value of what they seek but not the means of achieving it, or don't get as much as they would have hoped to get from it. That is , the fundamental basis of the community is not threatened, but a minor point of order is at issue, that this difference is important is emphasized by Coser's argument that the impact of conflict depends upon the degree of consensual framework within which they are contested and the degree of conflict over basic consensus (Coser, 1957).</p> <p>P. 37-38</p>	<p>fundamental that disagreement is to the social status quo.</p> <p>Conflicts have been categorised as either being 'over consensus' or 'within consensus' and as being over the 'ultimate' or 'immediate goals' (Powelson, 1972:52). Aubert (1963) describes conflicts as dissensual (over consensus) and consensual (within consensus). In much the same vein Boulding (1966:345) distinguishes between benign and malign conflicts and those that maintain and explode society.</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>Conflicts within consensus or consensual are those that dispute the immediate goals. In other words, the parties agree about the value of what they seek but not the means of achieving it, or don't get as much as they would have hoped from it. That is, the fundamental basis of the community is not threatened, but a minor point of order is at issue. That this difference is important is emphasised by Coser's argument that the impact of conflict depends upon the degree of consensual framework within which they are contested and the degree of conflict over basic consensus (Coser, 1972:73).</p> <p>Bennett and Neiland, 2001. P. 102-103</p>
<p>Tracing its roots to the 2nd millennium BC, Ethiopia was a monarchy for most of its history. During the first century AD, the Kingdom of Aksum maintained a unified civilization in the region (Henze, 2005).</p> <p>Ethiopia derived prestige with a uniquely successful military resistance during the late 19th century's "Scramble for Africa", becoming the only African country to defeat a European colonial power and retain its sovereignty.</p>	<p>Tracing its roots to the 2nd millennium BC, Ethiopia was a monarchy for most of its history. During the first centuries of the Common Era the Kingdom of Aksum maintained a unified civilization in the region.[14][15][16][17]</p> <p>Ethiopia derived prestige with its uniquely successful military resistance during the late 19th-century Scramble for Africa, ... was the only African country to defeat a European colonial power and retain its sovereignty.</p> <p>IP User 83.254.159.43 et al., 2014, <i>Ethiopia</i>, in Wikipedia, https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?</p>

<p>P. 38</p> <p>Ethiopia has about 80 ethnic groups. The ethnic groups which account for about 1% and above of the total population are the following fifteen: Oromo (34.5%), Amhara (26.9%), Somali (6.2%), Tigray (6.1%), Sidama (4.0%), Gurage(2.5%), Wolaita (2.3%), Silte (2.0%), Afar (1.7%), Hadiya (1.7%), Gamo (1.5%), Gedeo(1.2%), the first two ethnic groups (1.2%), Kaffacho (1.13%), Agew (1.05) and Kambatta (0.94%); the first two ethnic groups account for 6.14%. the first six accounts for 80.2% and all the fifteen account for about 93.72 % of the population (CSA,2015). The majority of the ethnic groups live in Southern Ethiopia. In terms of religious affiliation, the Ethiopian people are Coptic Orthodox Christian (43.5%), Muslims (33.9%) and Protestant Christians (18.6%); Catholics and other religions account for the remaining 4% (CSA, 2015).</p> <p>P. 38-39</p>	<p>title=Ethiopia&oldid=615247788</p> <p>Ethiopia has about 80 ethnic groups (...). The ethnic groups which account for about 1% and above of the total population are the following fifteen: Oromo (34.5%), Amhara (26.9%), Somali (6.2%), Tigray (6.1%), Sidama (4.0%), Gurage (2.5%), Wolaita (2.3%), Silte (2.0%), Afar (1.7%), Hadiya (1.7%), Gamo (1.5%), Gedeo (1.2%), Kaffacho (1.13%), Agew (1.05%), and Kambatta (0.94%). The first two ethnic groups account for 61.4%, the first six account for 80.2% and all the fifteen account for about 93.72% of all the population. The overwhelming majority of the ethnic groups live in Southern Ethiopia. In terms of religious affiliation, the Ethiopian people are Coptic Orthodox Christians (43.5%), Muslims (33.9%) and Protestants (18.6%). The Catholics and others account for 4%.</p> <p>Habtamu Wondimu, 2013. Federalism and Conflicts' Management in Ethiopia: Social Psychological Analysis of the Opportunities and Challenges. <i>IPSS/AAU</i>. http://www.assecaa.org/images/WorkPapers/Peacemeeting/English/Ethiopia/ethiopia-1.pdf P. 3. (archive)</p>
<p>... the nature and history of conflicts, their duration, intensity and the modalities for their cessation ...</p> <p>P. 39</p>	<p>... the nature and determinants of conflicts, their duration, intensity and the modalities for their cessation.</p> <p>Alemayehu Geda, 2004. Does Conflict Explain Ethiopia's Backwardness? Yes! and Significantly (Paper presented at Making Peace Work Conference at WIDER, Helsinki, Finland) https://www.researchgate.net/publication/237384870 , P. 3</p>
<p>... Alemayuehu and Befekadu (2004) analyzed the cause and nature of conflict in Ethiopia by introducing three power players in the country</p> <p>...</p> <p>Type I conflict: ... the agents of conflict are either the 'educated elite'</p>	<p>The causes of conflict in Ethiopia ... to three power players in the country:</p> <p>...</p> <p>In 'Type I' conflict, the agents of conflict are either the 'educated elite' (after the 1974 revolution) or regional aristocrats (before</p>

<p>(after the 1974 revolution) or regional aristocrats (before 1974). The subject of conflict is power in its generic form (ie. both political and economic) as can be exercised through capturing the state machinery.</p> <p>Type II conflict: ... The agents in conflict are the elite in power and the masses (usually the under-class). The subject of conflict is usually a violation of basic economic and political rights.</p> <p>Type III conflict: ... the agents are peasants usually organized across regions or ethnicity.</p> <p>P. 40</p>	<p>1974). The subject of conflict is power in its generic form (ie. both political and economic) as can be exercised through capturing the state machinery.</p> <p>In 'Type II' conflict, the agents in conflict are the elite in power and the masses (usually the under-class). The subject of conflict is usually a violation of basic economic and political rights.</p> <p>In 'Type III' conflict, the agents are peasants usually organized across regions or ethnicity (see Alemayehu and Befekadu 2004).</p> <p>Alemayehu Geda, 2004. P. 11</p>
<p>UNDP (2007) identified the basic cause of frequently observed conflict in Ethiopia as (1) resource conflict such a competition for resources such as land, pasture, and water, clashes due to livelihoods competition between sedentary farmers and pastoralists; (2) identity conflict which is caused by hightend awareness of ethnic identity; (3) political issues such as language rights and perceptions of disenfranchisement, and (4) arguments on border delineation between regions and ethnicities.</p> <p>P. 41</p>	<p>The causes of conflict in Ethiopia are both multidimensional and complex. Amongst others, these include: competition for resources such as land, pasture, and water; clashes due to livelihoods competition between sedentary farmers and pastoralists; heightened awareness of ethnic identity; and political issues such as language rights and perceptions of disenfranchisement, and arguments on border delineation between regions and ethnicities (UNDP, 2007).</p> <p>UNDP, 2012. Towards a comprehensive peace-building policy and strategy for Ethiopia. Development Brief No. 4, 21 p. https://www.lawethiopia.com/images/ethnic_politics_in_ethiopia/Towards a comprehensive peace-building policy and strategy for Ethiopia.pdf Pp. 7-8 (archive)</p>
<p>Ethiopia has fought several wars against many states in its history and this external intervention has had an important role in the initiation and continuation of conflict in the country. The cause of these conflicts can be classified as: historic (religious and colonial); cold-war related; and conflict with neighboring countries. In the</p>	<p>External intervention has had an important role in the initiation and continuation of conflict in Ethiopia. External intervention can be classified as: historic (religious and colonial); cold-war related; and conflict with neighboring countries. The country had a number of historic conflicts: between 1868–96: three with the Egyptians, four</p>

<p>modern history of the country, for instance between 186-1896 alone, Ethiopia was engaged in a number of historic conflicts; three times with the Egyptians, four times involving the Dervishes, five times with Italy and once with the British. In recent years Ethiopia has fought a war with the neighbors Somalia in 1964 and 1977-8 and Eritrea in 1998-2000. This conflicts protracted and shaped the Ethiopian state making it more militaristic.</p> <p>Pp. 41-42</p>	<p>involving the Dervishes, five with Italy and once with the British. These conflicts were protracted and shaped the Ethiopian state, making it militaristic.</p> <p>Alemayehu Geda, 2004. P. 13</p>
<p>Many inter-state and intra-state conflicts in Africa become more complex by being extended into 'Proxy wars'. Secondary or substitution parties were involved in fighting battles in alliance with larger states, pursuing their own agenda relevant in a local arena.</p> <p>P. 42</p>	<p>Many inter-state and intra-state conflicts in Africa become more complex by being extended into 'proxy wars'. Secondary or substitution parties are involved in fighting battles in alliance with larger states, but with their own agenda relevant in a local arena.</p> <p>Abbink, J., 2003. Ethiopia—Eritrea: Proxy wars and prospects of peace in the horn of Africa. <i>Journal of Contemporary African Studies</i>, 21(3), pp. 407-426. https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/0258900032000142446 P. 407</p>
<p>Natural resources are an important component in understanding the nature of conflict in Ethiopia. Natural resources are embedded in an environment, geographic, geopolitical and interdependent space where actions by one individual or group may generate effects far beyond specific localities or even national jurisdictions.</p> <p>P. 42</p>	<p>Natural resources are an important component in understanding the nature of conflict in Africa because of their effect on such conflict. Arguably, natural resources are embedded in an environment, geographic, geopolitical and interdependent space where actions by one individual or group may generate effects far beyond specific localities or even national jurisdictions.</p> <p>Mwanika, P.A.N., 2010. Natural resources conflict processes and strategies in Africa. <i>Institute for Security Studies Papers</i>, 216, 12 p. https://www.africaportal.org/documents/2762/216.pdf P. 2</p>
<p>The link between natural resource management and conflict is strong. Shortages of natural resources lead to competition which may result in conflict. In addition, fighting and insecurity may prevent appropriate management of natural resources and reduce their</p>	<p>The link between natural resource management and conflict is strong. Shortages of natural resources lead to competition which may result in conflict. In addition, fighting and insecurity may prevent appropriate management of natural resources and reduce</p>

<p>production, thereby worsening shortages and intensifying competition and conflict (Wood, 1993).</p> <p>P 42</p>	<p>their production, thereby worsening shortages and intensifying competition and conflict.</p> <p>Wood, A.P., 1993. Natural resource conflicts in south-west Ethiopia: state, communities, and the role of the National Conservation Strategy in the search for sustainable development. <i>Nordic Journal of African Studies</i>, 2(2), pp. 83-99. https://www.njas.fi/njas/article/download/712/535 P. 83.</p>
<p>Land and related resources such as water and biodiversity are the main source of resource conflict in Ethiopia. Land resources continue to have major historical, cultural and spiritual significance.</p> <p>P. 42</p>	<p>Land and related resources such as water and biodiversity are vital in marginalised communities since they offer diversified livelihood opportunities and alternatives. (...) Land resources continue to have major historical, cultural and spiritual significance.</p> <p>Bob, U., 2010. Land-related conflicts in sub-Saharan Africa. <i>African Journal on Conflict Resolution</i>, 10(2): 49-64. https://www.ajol.info/index.php/ajcr/article/download/63310/51193 P. 50 (archive)</p>
<p>... the Federal form of government the country has adopted has heightened and transformed historical, territorial conflicts into contemporary inter-regional boundary conflicts. This particular case reflects the transformation of resource conflicts between pastoral communities in the lowland regions of the country into inter-regional boundary conflicts and border disputes between communities. Although Ethiopia is one administrative unit, inter and intra-regional border demarcation has had economic implications pertaining to resource appropriation, mobilization and distribution. All state border disputes ought to be settled by agreement of the concerned states. Nevertheless, in times when the concerned states fail to reach agreement, the House of the Federation has a power to superintend over such disputes on the basis of settlement patterns and the wishes of the peoples concerned (Constitution of FDRE, 1995). Most resource conflicts in Ethiopia occur among pastoralist communities (UNDP, 2010). Pastoralists are coming under increasing pressure from natural</p>	<p>Federalism has heightened and transformed historical territorial conflicts into contemporary inter-regional boundary conflicts. This particularly reflects the transformation of resource conflicts between pastoral communities in the lowland regions of the country into inter-regional boundary conflicts and border disputes between communities (Kefale, forthcoming). Although Ethiopia is one administrative unit, inter and intra regional border demarcation has development implications with regards to resource appropriation, mobilization and distribution. All State border disputes ought to be settled by agreement of the concerned States. Where the concerned States fail to reach agreement, the House of the Federation has powers to superintend over such disputes on the basis of settlement patterns and the wishes of the peoples concerned (Constitution of Ethiopia, 1995). (...) Most of these conflicts occur among pastoralist communities and pastoralists are coming under increasing pressure from natural</p>

<p>disasters such as drought and flooding which are compounded by climate change. Population growth, increasing numbers of livestock produced for export, deforestation, environmental degradation, bush encroachment, and invasive species will further increase pressure and competition over shared and shrinking resources. These communities also have diverse settlement patterns inhibiting different ecological zones and, accordingly, practicing different production systems as well as having livelihood basis. As a result, there is conflict between farmer and herder, famer/herder versus forest users and rural versus urban dwellers. These conflicts are mostly informed by lack of property implemented land use system and degradation of natural resources.</p> <p>P. 43-44</p>	<p>disasters such as drought and flooding which are compounded by climate change. Population growth, increasing numbers of livestock produced for export, deforestation, environmental degradation, bush encroachment, and invasive species will further increase pressure and competition over shared and shrinking resources. These communities also have diverse settlement patterns inhabiting different ecological zones and, accordingly, practicing different production systems as well as having diverse livelihood basis. As a result, there is conflict between farmer and herder, farmer/herder versus forest users and rural versus urban dwellers. These conflicts are mostly informed by lack of properly implemented land use system and degradation of natural resources.</p> <p>UNDP, 2012. P. 7-8</p>
<p>Some of the major inter-ethnic conflicts recently observed in Ethiopia are: the Silte-Gurage conflict, the Wagagoda language conflict, the Sheko-Megeneger conflict, the Anuak-Nuer conflict, the Berta-Gumuz conflict, the Gedeo-Guji conflict, the Oroma-Amhara conflict, the Borana-Gerri conflict, and the Oromo-Somali conflict.</p> <p>P. 45</p>	<p>Inter clan/ethnic conflicts: some of the major inter-ethnic conflicts observed in Ethiopia are: the Silte-Gurage conflict, the Wagagoda language conflict, the Sheko-Megengir conflict, the Anuak-Nuer conflict, the Berta-Gumuz conflict, the Gedeo-Guji conflict, the Oromo-Amhara conflict, the Borana-Gerri conflict, and the Oromo-Somali conflict.</p> <p>UNDP, 2012. P. 7.</p>
<p>A further example of the psychological impact of conflict could be observed when one examines the civil war during the Dereg regime; aerial bombings, violence against the civilian populations, and the destruction of socioeconomic systems were particularly serious in the war zones of Tigray and Eritrea (Cliffe, 1989; Hammond & Druze, 1989; Hendrie, 1991).</p> <p>P. 46</p>	<p>Preliminary reports indicate that the effects of aerial bombings, violence against the civilian population, and the destruction of socioeconomic systems were particularly serious in the war zones of Tigray and Eritrea (Hammond and Druze, 1989; Hendrie, 1991; Cliffe, 1989).</p> <p>Kloos, H., 1992. Health impacts of war in Ethiopia. <i>Disasters</i>, 16(4): 347-354. http://harep.org/Agriculture/Health_Impacts_of_War_in.pdf P. 348 (archive)</p>
<p>We need to know more about how violent conflict can be viewed as both an independent and dependent variable (a cause and an effect)</p>	<p>In all communities studied, violent conflict was viewed as both an independent and a dependent variable (a cause and an effect) in its</p>

<p>in its relationship to social capital. That is, social capital can be constructive supporting societal cohesion and the mitigation of conflict, but it can also be perverted to hasten social fragmentation and the onslaught of violent conflict.</p> <p>P. 47</p>	<p>relationship to social capital. That is, social capital can be constructive and support societal cohesion and the mitigation of conflict, but it can also be perverted to hasten social fragmentation and the onslaught of violent conflict.</p> <p>Colletta and Cullen, 2000. P. 6</p>
<p>To further deepen the analysis of conflict and social capital interrelations, interactions at the macro level should also be considered. This broadening of the definition of social capital permits the inclusion of government, market and development actors, which have a direct impact on the social capital environment facing actors at the local level, and also helps identify measures for policy and operational recommendations.</p> <p>P. 47</p>	<p>To further deepen analysis of conflict and social capital interrelations, interactions at the macro level should also be considered. This broadening of the definition of social capital permits the inclusion of government, market, and development actors, which have a direct impact on the social capital environment facing actors at the local level, and helps identify measures for policy and operational recommendations.</p> <p>Colletta and Cullen, 2000. P. 3</p>
<p>If social capital matters for the well-being of all societies, it becomes necessary to ask who or what is the vehicle for creating or engendering it. Given the vital role the state plays in shaping the context and climate within which society is organized, it can, in some cases, also actively help to create social cohesion.</p> <p>P. 47-48</p>	<p>If social cohesion matters for the well-being of all societies, it becomes necessary to ask, who, or what is the vehicle for creating, or engendering it? Given the vital role the state has in shaping the context and climate within which civil society is organized, it can, in some cases, also actively help to create social capital.</p> <p>Ritzen, J. and Woolcock, M., 2000. Social cohesion, public policy, and economic growth: implications for countries in transition. <i>Address prepared for the Annual Bank Conference on Development Economics (Europe)</i>. Paris, June 26-28, 2000. 33 p. https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/pt/914451468781802758/pdf/28741.pdf P. 13. (archive)</p>
<p>Add to that, Ethiopians have strong social capital i.e. there is strong self-support system among the communities, there are strong social values that help people to respect one another and to build trust among one another. Promoting such self-supporting system indigenous civil societies help communities to handle their social problems by themselves through their own traditional mechanisms that have been practiced by them for years.</p>	<p>Ethiopians have strong social capital i.e there is strong self support system among the communities, there are strong social values that help people to respect one another and to build trust among one another. Promoting such self supporting systems and indigenous civil societies help communities to handle their social problems by themselves through their own traditional mechanisms that have been practiced by them for years.</p>

<p>P. 48</p>	<p>Sisay Gebre-Egziabher, 2007. What Role Should Civil Society Organizations Play to Address Ethnic Conflicts in Ethiopia? International Conference on African Development Archives, 106. 30 p. https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/africancenter_icad_archive/106 P. 23 (archive)</p>
<p>However, integrating vertical social capital to shape a cohesive society remains a challenge.</p> <p>P. 48</p>	<p>...integrating vertical social capital to shape a cohesive society remains a challenge to Cambodia ...</p> <p>Colletta and Cullen, 2000. P. 13.</p>
<p>From the above definitions, one can understand the connotation conflict resolution implies as a bad phenomenon hence it is something that should not be encouraged. It also assumes that conflict is a short term phenomenon that can be “resolved” permanently through mediation or other intervention processes. ... Some conflicts may be “non-resolvable and can at best be transformed, regulated or managed” (Best, 2005). Conflict management , on the other hand, is seen in the right perspective, and assumes that conflicts are long term process that often cannot be quickly resolved. Best (2005), sees conflict management as the process of reducing the negative and destructive capacity through a number of measures and by working with and through the parties involved in that conflict. He equally proposes that the term is sometimes used synonymously with the term conflict regulation. By extension, the term covers other areas of handling “conflicts positively at different levels, including those efforts made to prevent conflict by being proactive” (Best, 2005). The concept equally includes such other terms like conflict limitation, containment and litigation. Burton (1990) uses this phrase ‘conflict prevention’ to connote “containment of conflict through steps introduced to promote conditions in which collaborative and valued relationships control the</p>	<p>In all this, one understands conflict resolution to imply that conflict is bad hence it is something that should not be encouraged. It also assumes that conflict is a short term phenomenon that can be “resolved” permanently through mediation or other intervention processes. ... Others “like those over values”, according to Best (2005), may be “non-resolvable and can at best be transformed, regulated or managed” (p. 95). Conflict management seen in the right perspective, correctly assumes that conflicts are long term process that often cannot be quickly resolved. (...)</p> <p>This view is aptly supported by Best (2005) as he sees conflict management as, “the process of reducing the negative and destructive capacity through a number of measures and by working with and through the parties involved in that conflict” (p. 95). He equally opines that the term is sometimes used synonymously with the term, conflict regulation. By extension, the term covers other areas of handling “conflicts positively at different levels, including those efforts made to prevent conflict by being proactive” (Best, 2005:95). The concept equally includes such other terms like conflict limitation, containment and litigation. It may also include “conflict prevention”. Burton (1990) uses this phrase ‘conflict prevention’ to connote</p>

<p>behavior of conflict parties”.</p> <p>P. 49-50</p>	<p>“containment of conflict through steps introduced to promote conditions in which collaborative and valued relationships control the behaviour of conflict parties”.</p> <p>Udezo, B.O., 2009. Concepts and methods of conflict resolution and Peace-Building: Imperatives for religious leaders in Nigeria. <i>Journal of Religion and Human Relations</i>, 1(2). https://www.ajol.info/index.php/jrhr/article/view/87329 Pp. 4-5 (archive)</p>
<p>Furthermore, conflict resolution was differentiated from other established fields, such as international relations in that:</p> <p>It is multilevel: analysis and resolution had to embrace all levels of conflict: intra-personal (interpersonal, intergroup, international, regional, global , and the complex interplays between them;</p> <p>It is multidisciplinary: in order to learn how to address complex systems adequately, the conflict resolution had to draw on many disciplines, including politics, international relations, strategic studies, development studies, individual and social psychology etc;</p> <p>It is multicultural: since human conflict is worldwide phenomenon within an increasingly intricate and interconnected local/global cultural web, this had to be a truly cooperative international enterprise, in terms of both the geographical locations where conflict is encounters and the conflict resolution initiatives deployed to address them.</p> <p>It is both analytic and normative: the foundation of the study of conflict was to be systemic analysis and interpretation of the ‘statistics of deadly quarrels’ (polymology), but this was to be combined from the outset with the normative aim of learning how better thereby to transform actually or potentially violent conflict into non-violent process of social , political and other forms of change;</p> <p>It is both theoretical and practical: the conflict resolution field was to be constituted by a constant mutual interplay between theory and practice: only when theoretical understanding and practical</p>	<p>In contrast to older established fields, such as international relations, conflict resolution was to be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • multilevel: analysis and resolution had to embrace all levels of conflict: intra-personal (inner conflict), interpersonal, intergroup (families, neighbourhoods, affiliations), international, regional, global, and the complex interplays between them; • multidisciplinary: in order to learn how to address complex conflict systems adequately, the new field had to draw on many disciplines, including politics, international relations, strategic studies, development studies, individual and social psychology, etc.; • multicultural: since human conflict is a worldwide phenomenon within an increasingly intricate and interconnected local/global cultural web, this had to be a truly cooperative international enterprise, in terms of both the geographical locations where conflict is encountered and the conflict resolution initiatives deployed to address them; • both analytic and normative: the foundation of the study of conflict was to be systematic analysis and interpretation of the ‘statistics of deadly quarrels’ (polymology), but this was to be combined from the outset with the normative aim of learning how better thereby to transform actually or potentially violent conflict into non-violent processes of social, political and other forms of change; • both theoretical and practical: the conflict resolution field was to be constituted by a constant mutual interplay between theory and

<p>experience of what works and what does not work are connected can properly informed experience develop.</p> <p>Pp. 50-51</p>	<p>practice: only when theoretical understanding and practical experience of what works and what does not work are connected can properly informed experience develop.</p> <p>Ramsbotham, O., Woodhouse, T. and Miall, H., 2005. Introduction to conflict resolution: Concepts and definitions. <i>Contemporary conflict resolution</i>, pp. 3-31. https://www.academia.edu/36130716/Introduction_to_Conflict_Resolution_Concepts_and_Definitions P. 8.</p>
<p>As a universal feature of human society that takes its origins in economic differentiation. social change, cultural formation, psychological development, and political organization, the identity of the conflicting parties, the levels at which the conflict is contested, and the issues fought over (scarce resources, unequal relations, competing values) may vary over time and may themselves be disputed. Conflicts are dynamic as they escalate and de-escalate, and are constituted by a complex interplay of attitudes and behaviors that can assume a reality of their own.</p> <p>P. 51</p>	<p>Conflict is a universal feature of human society. It takes its origins in economic differentiation, social change, cultural formation, psychological development and political organization ...The identity of the conflict parties, the levels at which the conflict is contested, and the issues fought over (scarce resources, unequal relations, competing values) may vary over time and may themselves be disputed. Conflicts are dynamic as they escalate and de-escalate, and are constituted by a complex interplay of attitudes and behaviours that can assume a reality of their own.</p> <p>Ramsbotham et al., 2005. Pp. 7-8.</p>
<p>Galtung (1971, 1976) identifies 3 key forms or stages of conflict resolution: peacemaking, peace keeping and peacebuilding. The distinction between the three is slight yet useful. Peace-making implies the first tentative steps. Peacekeeping or the dissociative approach is by which requires the two sides to the conflict to withdraw from the arena. Peacebuilding or the associative approach is where symbiosis is developed (conflict resolution).</p> <p>P. 52</p>	<p>Galtung (1971, 1976) identifies 3 key stages of conflict resolution: peacemaking, peace keeping and peace building. He further breaks down these categories into peacekeeping (the dissociative approach) by which the two sides to the conflict withdraw from the arena; peace building (the associative approach) where symbiosis is developed and peace-making (conflict resolution). The distinction between the three is slight yet useful.</p> <p>Bennett and Neiland, 2001; P. 105</p>
<p>Blake, Shepard and Mouton (1964) identified three general strategies that parties may take toward dealing with their conflict; win-lose, lose-lose, and win-win. The win-lose approach is a strategy used to force the other side to capitulate. Sometimes, this is done through socially acceptable</p>	<p>Given interdependence, three general strategies have been identified that the parties may take toward dealing with their conflict; win-lose, lose-lose, and win-win (Blake, Shepard & Mouton, 1964). The win-lose approach is all too common. (...) The strategy is thus to force the other side to capitulate. Sometimes, this is done</p>

<p>mechanisms such as majority vote, the authority of the leader, or the determination of a judge. Sometimes, it involves secret strategies, threat, innuendo — whatever works is acceptable, i.e., the ends justify the means.</p> <p>The lose-lose strategy is exemplified by smoothing over conflict or by reaching the simplest of compromises. In neither case is the creative potential of productive conflict resolution realized or explored. On the other hand the win-win approach is a conscious and systematic attempt to maximize the goals of both parties through collaborative problem solving. The conflict is seen as a problem to be solved rather than a war to be won.</p> <p>There is an emphasis on the quality of the long term relationships between the parties, rather than short term accommodations. Communication is open and direct rather than secretive and calculating.</p> <p>P. 52</p>	<p>through socially acceptable mechanisms such as majority vote, the authority of the leader, or the determination of a judge. Sometimes, it involves secret strategies, threat, innuendo – whatever works is acceptable, i.e., the ends justify the means.</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>The lose-lose strategy is exemplified by smoothing over conflict or by reaching the simplest of compromises. In neither case is the creative potential of productive conflict resolution realized or explored.</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>The win-win approach is a conscious and systematic attempt to maximize the goals of both parties through collaborative problem solving. The conflict is seen as a problem to be solved rather than a war to be won.</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>There is an emphasis on the quality of the long term relationships between the parties, rather than short term accommodations. Communication is open and direct rather than secretive and calculating.</p> <p>Fisher, R., 2000. Sources of conflict and methods of conflict resolution. <i>International Peace and Conflict Resolution, School of International Service, The American University</i>, pp.1-6. (earlier versions in 1977, 1985) https://www.ulstergaa.ie/wp-content/uploads/coaching/team-management-2012/unit-3/sources-of-conflict-and-methods-of-resolution.pdf Pp. 4-5 (archive)</p>
<p>Macfarlane (2007) outlines that there are two forms of conflict management and resolution mechanisms as formal and informal conflict management and resolution that the best result often are achieved by combining the two methods.</p> <p>P. 53</p>	<p>Macfarlane (2007), outlines that, there are two forms of conflict management and resolution mechanisms as formal and informal conflict management and resolution that the best result often are achieved by combining the two methods.</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012.</p>

<p>2.4.3. Indigenous Conflict Resolution Mechanisms: Definitions and Merits</p> <p>As long as people live in society or group, there are conflicts arising from differences of interests, prejudice, needs and ambitions. Therefore, the approach adopted to prevent or resolve such difference of interests determines its resolution. In other words, when a conflict happens, the crucial point should be the effective adoption of the necessary principle of the resolution.</p> <p>Indigenous mechanisms are grass roots approaches to solving conflicts. The most important elements involved in this mechanism include the tradition of forgiveness, respect for elders because of their symbolic authority to enforce decision and transfer of resource as compensation (Zartman, 2000).</p> <p>P. 53-54</p>	<p>2.2. Indigenous Conflict Resolution Mechanism</p> <p>As long as people live in society or group, there are conflicts arising from differences of interests, prejudice, needs and ambitions. Therefore, the approach adopted to prevent or resolve such difference of interests determines its resolution. In other words, when a conflict happens, the crucial point should be the effective adoption of the necessary principle of the resolution.</p> <p>Indigenous mechanisms are grass root approaches to solve conflicts by the society. The most important elements involving in this mechanism include the tradition of forgiveness, respect for elders because of their symbolic authority to enforce decisions and transfer of resource as compensation (Zartman, 2000).</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012.</p>
<p>Dahal and Bhatta (2008) also confirmed that indigenous conflict resolution mechanisms are used to organize a discussion to mediate several types of conflicts within the societies by recognizing the identity and interests of the conflicting parties. Here the main aim is to come up with a solution and justify it by the duty of the mechanism based on recognized customs and morality of the society itself.</p> <p>P. 54</p>	<p>Dahal and Bhatta, (2008) also confirmed that indigenous conflict resolution mechanisms are used to organize a discussion to mediate several types of conflicts within the societies by recognizing the identity and interests of the conflicting parties. Here its main aim is to come up with a solution and justifying it by the duty of the mechanism based on recognized customs and morality of the society itself.</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012</p>
<p>Indigenous conflict resolution typically incorporates consensus-building based on open discussions to exchange information and clarify issues. Conflicting parties are more likely to accept guidance from these mediators than from other sources because an elder's decision does not entail any loss of face and is backed by social pressure.</p> <p>Indigenous conflict management and resolution mechanisms use local actors and traditional community-based judicial and legal decision-making mechanisms to manage and resolve conflicts within</p>	<p>Indigenous conflict resolution typically incorporates consensus-building based on open discussions to exchange information and clarify issues. Conflicting parties are more likely to accept guidance from these mediators than from other sources because an elder's decision does not entail any loss of face and is backed by social pressure.</p> <p>(...)</p> <p>Indigenous conflict management and resolution mechanisms use local actors and traditional community-based judicial and legal</p>

<p>or between communities. Local mechanisms aim to resolve conflicts without resorting to state-run judicial systems, police, or other external structures. Local negotiations can lead to ad hoc practical agreements which keep broader inter-communal relations positive, creating environments where nomads can graze together, townspeople can live together, and merchants can trade together even if military men remain un-reconciled (Lowry, 1995).</p> <p>P. 54</p>	<p>decision-making mechanisms to manage and resolve conflicts within or between communities. Local mechanisms aim to resolve conflicts without resorting to state-run judicial systems, police, or other external structures. Local negotiations can lead to ad hoc practical agreements which keep broader inter-communal relations positive, creating environments where nomads can graze together, townspeople can live together, and merchants can trade together even if military men remain un-reconciled (Lowry, 1995).</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012</p>
<p>Indigenous societies have varied institutions and personnel that function as agents of conflict resolution in their respective locality (Degene, 2007). In spite of this, Ember, as cited in Degene (2007), argued that these agents lack coercive force to support their decisions.</p> <p>P. 54</p>	<p>Indigenous societies have varied institutions and personnel that function as agents of conflict resolution in their respective locality (Degene, 2007). In spite of this, Ember (1977), cited in Degene (2007), argued that, these agents lack coercive force to support their decisions.</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012</p>
<p>Indigenous societies in all parts of the world have featured variations of third-party arbitration and mediation. Western societies saw these practices subsumed by the rise of modern judiciaries. The increased complexity of these processes, however, saw reduced satisfaction with legal outcomes among disputants (United Nations, 2007).</p> <p>Pp. 54-55</p>	<p>Indigenous societies in all parts of the world have featured variations of third-party arbitration and mediation. Western societies saw these practices subsumed by the rise of modern judiciaries. The increased complexity of these processes, however, saw reduced satisfaction with legal outcomes among disputants (United Nations, 2007).</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012</p>
<p>In fact, the indigenous forms of conflict resolution, which refer to refers to the set of mechanisms a society utilizes to resolve conflicts outside litigation or the formal court, have been practiced by peoples and communities for centuries. The older forms of dispute resolution, particularly those practiced by the Indigenous or Aboriginal peoples around the world, challenge the originality of present-day court system (Osi, 2008).</p> <p>P. 55</p>	<p>In fact, the indigenous forms of conflict resolution have been practiced by peoples and communities for centuries. The older forms of dispute resolution, particularly those practiced by the Indigenous or Aboriginal peoples around the world, challenge the originality of present-day court system (Osi, 2008) .</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012</p>
<p>indigenous conflict resolution processes will allow community</p>	<p>Indigenous conflict resolution processes will allow community</p>

<p>members to pursue remedies and resolve conflicts outside of the courtroom and still within their own cultural confines. Practiced in indigenous communities since time immemorial, they are culturally more appropriate than litigation because they are based on the customs and traditions of the group concerned. They may also pursue remedies through state-formalized ADR. Litigating in court is normally prohibitive; with long case queues, intermittent delay in the resolution of motions or claims is quite common. More importantly, litigation with its basic rudiments of confrontation, fault-finding and judge made resolutions, coupled with its adversarial nature is not a viable alternative for indigenous communities (Osi, 2008).</p> <p>P. 55</p>	<p>members to pursue remedies and resolve conflicts outside of the courtroom and still within their own cultural confines. Practiced in Indigenous communities since time immemorial, they are culturally more appropriate than litigation because they are based on the customs and traditions of the group concerned. They may also pursue remedies through state-formalized ADR. Litigating in court is normally prohibitive; with long case queues, intermittent delay in the resolution of motions or claims is quite common. More importantly, litigation with its basic rudiments of confrontation, fault-finding and judge made resolutions, coupled with its adversarial nature (Osi , 2008) .</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012</p>
<p>Assefa (2005) summarized some of the advantages of indigenous conflict resolution mechanisms: they quickly respond to crisis; they contribute to the reduction of regular court caseloads; they contribute to saving of the public money; they also stand aside of the problem in shortage of judges who work in the regular courts and budget constraints; they are complementary to modern government structures and are not substitutes or competitors as some government officials think and worry about; they give access to many people who do not find modern system of conflict resolution comfortable; affordable or suitable to their needs disputants are satisfied with their operation and view their outcomes as fair.</p> <p>P. 55</p>	<p>Assefa (2005), has summarized only some of the advantages of indigenous conflict resolution mechanisms as they quickly respond to crisis in terms of time, they contribute to the reduction of regular court case loads, they contribute to saving of the public money, it also minimizes the problem in shortage of judges who work in the regular courts, and budget constraints, they are complementary to modern government structures and are not substitutes or competitors as some government officials think and worry about, They give access to many people who do not find modern system of conflict resolution comfortable, affordable or suitable to their needs, Disputants are satisfied with their operation and view their outcomes as fair, and the like.</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012</p>
<p>Specifically, Boege (2006) identifies the following potential advantages of the indigenous conflict resolution mechanisms as follows.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - fit situations of state fragility and failure. - are not state-centric and hence credited with legitimacy; - take the time factor into due account and are process-oriented, - provide for comprehensive inclusion and participation, 	<p>Accordingly, Boege (2006), identifies the following potential advantages and disadvantages of the indigenous conflict resolution mechanisms as follows.</p> <p>Strengths of traditional approaches to conflict transformation can be identified since the indigenous conflict resolution approaches.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fit situations of state fragility and failure; are not state-centric and hence credited with legitimacy;

<p>- Focus on the psycho-social and spiritual dimension of conflict transformation.</p> <p>P. 56</p>	<p>take the time factor into due account and are process-oriented; provide for comprehensive inclusion and participation; Focus on the psycho-social and spiritual dimension of conflict transformation.</p> <p>Yonas Berhe, 2012</p>
<p>Informal governance structures in rural Ethiopia such as Iddir, Mahber, Eqqub, Elder's Group, Gadaa/Cheffe Kore, Debo/Wobera/Wonfel/Oxen sharing (labor sharing) serve different economic and social purposes.</p> <p>The major benefits include risk coping, provision of credit, common property regulation, manpower and traction force sharing, conflict resolution and information sharing.</p> <p>P. 57</p>	<p>The study obtained the possible informal governance structures in rural Ethiopia such as Iddir, Mahber, Eqqub, Elder's Group, Gadaa/Cheffe Kore, Debo/Wobera/Wonfel/Oxen sharing (labor sharing) and Women's Association. These informal institutions or governance structures engaged in different economic and social activities.</p> <p>The major benefits include risk coping, provision of credit, common property regulation, manpower and traction force, conflict resolution and information.</p> <p>Kiros Habtu, 2015. Informal institutions in Ethiopia. International Journal of Research in Commerce & Management, 6(1): 62-71. http://ijrcm.org.in/download.php?name=ijrcm-1-IJRCM-1_vol-6_2015_issue-01-art-15.pdf&path=uploaddata/ijrcm-1-IJRCM-1_vol-6_2015_issue-01-art-15.pdf (archive) P. 62</p>
<p>The fact that local people in different parts of the country adopted different survival strategies underscore the existence of a variety of patterns that can be brought together in a coordinated system of governance in which local patterns can be utilized within local contexts. Horizontal and vertical institutional linkages should be developed across patterns so that several centers of authority can be developed instead of a single source of power (Ostrom, 1999). Using the best available traditional institution and practice surely provides possibilities opening up prospects toward establishing a system of democratic self-governance.</p> <p>P. 57</p>	<p>The fact that local people in different parts of the country adopted different survival strategies underscores the existence of a variety of patterns that can be brought together in a coordinated system of governance in which local patterns can be utilized within local contexts and horizontal and vertical institutional linkages developed across patterns such that there can be several centers of authority instead of a single source of power. It is in such polycentric system of governance that the potentials of individuals and communities can truly be unlocked (V. Ostrom, 1999). (...) It opens up prospects toward establishing a system of democratic self-governance.</p> <p>Sawyer, 2004a. P. 20.</p>

