

## **CORRUPTION AND SECURITY CHALLENGES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES**

**Ibrahim Sada Ladan-Baki**

Student of Political Science and International Relations at Nigerian Turkish Nile University,  
Abuja, Nigeria

---

### **ABSTRACT**

Two fundamental variables identified with developing countries are corruption and insecurity. This has made developing states to develop at a slow pace or even little or no development as the case may be. The issue of insecurity is a major deterrent to investors as investors prefer to set up their businesses in countries where there is low level of insecurity and corruption. Therefore, this study aims to identify and critically analyze how corruption has undermined the development and progress of developing countries from the social, economic and political perspectives. In addition, the study will also critically analyze some contemporary security challenges faced by developing countries. The study combines both qualitative and analytical approaches in the explanation and analysis of the variables. The study identified that security challenges experienced by developing countries is a result of insurgency which emanates due to the refusal of governments to accept the ideology of rebels and also uneven distribution of resources which intensify or even sustain inequality. Also corruption persists in developing countries due to weak justice systems and their inability to punish corruption and deter future corrupt practices. However this study recommends that for developing countries to reduce corruption, there is a need for governments to be transparent and to apply stiff penalties on defaulters. Also it is imperative for governments to use dialogue to settle their security challenges which emanate as a result of religious or ethnic disparities in developing countries and also work towards even distribution of resources among the citizenry.

**Keywords: Corruption, Insecurity, Insurgency, Underdevelopment.**

## **Introduction**

Some of the major challenges or obstacles to the attainment of success in developing countries are the issues of corruption and insecurity. Developing countries have found it difficult to grow economically due to the high levels of corruption and insecurity. This study will attempt to highlight how corruption and insecurity has succeeded in crippling the success of developing countries including Nigeria. One of the greatest threats faced by developing countries is the issue of insurgency such as in Nigeria that is battling with the contemporary terrorist organization popularly identified as Boko Haram rebels. Due to the high levels of insecurity in developing countries, thousands of lives are either lost or the people are forced to relocate fearing their lives might be in danger. On the other hand the menace of corruption has reduced the speed of development in developing countries because funds that are meant for development purposes are either missing or diverted to be used by individuals who hold positions in government and have access to government funds.

## **The Concept of Corruption**

As a result of the complexity of corruption, its effects on the systemic existence of its victims as does its prevalence through the efforts of its perpetrators, its definition has continued to be shrouded by value preference and differences (Akindele and Adeyemi, 2011:8). This has to some extent complicated the attainment of a definitional uniformity on the concept within the academia and practicing world of administration. Given this, the elusiveness of the definition of corruption (depending on the definer and perspective) within the parameter of intellectual discourse on Nigerian State and beyond, was eloquently evoked by Yaru quoted in Yelwa, (2011:2) as thus:

*“Corruption is a multi-dimensional phenomenon and hence has been defined in multiple ways. Generally, corruption in public sector is simply the abuse of authority by the public officials to make personal gains in the discharge of their official duties. It encompasses activities ranging from bribery, embezzlement, extortion, fraud, favoritism, dishonesty to related illegal or unauthorized behaviors in pursuance of personal objectives”.*

According to Otite (1986:12) corruption is: Perversion of integrity or state of affair through bribery, favour or moral depravity. It involves the injection of additional but improper transaction aimed at changing the normal course of events and altering judgments and positions of trust. It consists of doers and receivers' use of informal, extra-legal or illegal act to facilitate matter.

Olopoenia (1998:17) puts this definition in a broad perspective of three categories as thus: Theoretically, the literature distinguishes among political, bureaucratic and economic corruption; practically however, these three typologies are no more than different perceptions of the same monster. But all these manifestations are motivated by the desire to use the instrumentality of office for private gains for the benefit of the official, his relations, ethnic group or friends at the expenses of the general good.

Nwabueze (2002:128) in his own contribution adopted a sociological approach to the definition of corruption. He conceptualized corruption in the following way: A form of social deviance in some cases, of criminal deviances, the result of failure or lack of will to respect the norms of social interactions. It is an extra-legal approach to gaining access. It is a form of mal-adaptation involving the acceptance of society's cultural goals and the rejection of the socially approved means of attaining the goals. It is an indictment on the ineffectiveness of society's socialization function; a sign of some defects in the development of citizen's personality system. It indicates the existence of weakness in agencies of social control which should punish rather than reward the perpetrator of corruption.

Corruption, according to him takes several forms, on one hand, if a public officer embezzles public funds kept in his trust that is corruption. In the same view, if he does unauthorized spending or exceeds approved limits for dubious ends, this is corruption. If he, in deviance of the rules, allocates government land to himself, his wife, his child or friends or otherwise appropriates his position to his or other person's unfair advantage it is corruption. If he over values a contract so that he could earn a kick-back, this is corruption (Nwabueze, Ibid). A careful examination of the above definition and explanation demonstrate that corruption in developing

countries takes two forms namely political and economic. Political corruption is the use of legislative powers by government officials for illegitimate private gain (<http://en.wikipedia.org>). From the political point of view, the perpetrators are political office holders, bureaucrats, public servants, the press and the general public. This has stigmatized the image of the government, weakened its credibility and reduced the effectiveness of the development programmes and policies; and also to a great extent, weakens the economy of the nation (Aransi, 2008:63). Economic corruption ravaging the economies of developing countries could be noticed in financial institutions such as banks, the insurance companies and the stock brokers (Aransi, *ibid*). Corruption is a world- wide phenomenon which has been with societies throughout the history. It has caused political and economic instability in societies and depending on the scale, it has led to social conflict and violence, as competing groups vie for state power which is the source of distribution of resources and other amenities in society (Odunuga 2000:55).

### **The Concept of Security**

The concept ‘**security**’ generally, is a crosscutting, and multi-dimensional concept which has, over the last century, been the subject of great debate. However, long before that, the history of mankind was interspersed by the frenzied search for the best way of ensuring the security of the people, their properties, territories, states and institutions among others. In all places and countries, security has been considered as a “first order value” worth preserving. The aforementioned notwithstanding, there is no consensus on the definition of security. This is not surprising because as a social phenomenon, it is often approached from different perspectives. Security has been seen as a situation where a person or thing is not exposed to any form of danger or risk of physical or moral aggression, accident, theft or deterioration. Some security experts argued that the concept of security has always been associated with the safety and survival of the state and its citizens from harm or destruction or from dangerous threats. Those conceptions generally hold that the state is the only institution with the primary responsibility and power for the safety of its territory and its people (Zabadi, 2005:3). Therefore the concept of security in this paper is operationalized within the context of a nation hence the concept of “national security”.

## **National Security**

The concept of “**national security**” is often misunderstood (Wolfer, 1962) and as such elusive. (Carey, 2000). Hence a strange phenomenon, a subjective “feeling”, and therefore relational and relatives, rather than an objective “thing” than can be seen and handled. However, national security is the requirement to maintain the survival of the state through the use of economic, diplomacy, power projection and political power. The concept developed mostly in the United States of America after World War II. Initially focusing on military might; it now encompasses a broad range of facets, many of which impinge on the non military or economic security of the nation and the values espoused by the national society. Accordingly, in order to possess national security, a nation needs to possess economic security, energy security, environmental security, etc. Security threats involve not only conventional foes such as other nation-states but also non-state actors such as violent non-state actors, narcotic cartels, multinational corporations and non-governmental organizations; some authorities include natural disasters and events causing severe environmental damage in this category.

Measures taken to ensure national security include: using diplomacy to rally allies and isolate threats; marshalling economic power to facilitate or compel cooperation; maintaining effective armed forces; implementing civil defense and emergency preparedness measures (including anti-terrorism legislation); ensuring the resilience and redundancy of critical infrastructure; using intelligence services to detect and defeat or avoid threats and espionage, and to protect classified information; using counterintelligence services or secret police to protect the nation from internal threats.

Generally, Braithwaite (1988:9) quoting the encyclopedia of the social sciences defines national security as “ability of a nation to protect its internal values from external threat”. Also, Lipmann defines it by stating that “a nation has security when it does not have to sacrifice its legitimate interest to avoid war, and is able, if challenged, to maintain them by war”. Morgenthau (1948) posits that national security and national interests are inter-related; where the former is seen in terms of power and therefore is the essence of politics.

Imobigbe (1981) refers to it as the defense and survival of the state. The danger of looking at national security from this narrow angle according to Nweke (1988:1-2) is three-fold; but we shall concern ourselves with the first two: First is the tendency to equate “defense” with “security” and to bestow undue responsibilities to the military as if the armed forces alone are the guardians of national security. This tendency in turn creates in the minds of the armed forces that it is only through them that security, stability and progress can be achieved. Secondly, national security has been used by civilian statesmen as political rhetoric or slogan for rallying the citizens in the face of perceived internal or external threats to the governments in power and for bolstering their local influence and political base (Adebayo, 1986:23). Dyke (1966), concludes that there is no doubt that national security embodies the sovereignty of the state, the inviolability of its territorial boundaries, and the right to individual and collective self-defense against internal and external threats. But the state is secure only when the aggregate of people organized under it has a consciousness of belonging to a common sovereign political community; enjoy equal political freedom, human rights, economic opportunities, and when the state itself is able to ensure independence in its development and foreign policy.

Freedman’s (1998:53) view is that once anything generates anxiety or threatens the quality of life in some respect, it is thus labeled a “security problem”. The notion of economic security thus encourages a confrontational approach to trace policy, while that of “environmental security” has often served more to confuse than to clarify by encouraging a search for adversaries.

### **Corruption in Developing Countries (Nigeria)**

*Stamp out corruption and at least 50% of our problems are solved. If you take corruption out, you will address insecurity and infrastructure; Take corruption out, you will get good justice and with that, orderly and disciplined society... If you are going to fight corruption, make sure you are not corrupt yourself. The reason why the fight failed before is that corrupt people were fighting corruption (Ribadu: 2012:44).*

For many years, the international watch dog on corruption, Transparency International has identified that Nigeria has always been on the list of the most corrupt countries of the world. This is primarily so because the badly governed citizens now regard Nigeria as a sinking ship in which they should individually or collectively take out whatever they deem fit by hook or crook before the ship sinks (Momah, 2013:109). Today in Nigeria it is no longer news that policemen at check points demand bribes, clerks in the MDS's request some amount before files are moved from one office to the other and also the law enforcement agencies at the airports demand bribes from passengers or travelers to look the other way and not to inspect their bags.

However it was therefore not surprising that the first bill Olusegun Obasanjo sent to the national assembly was the Anti-Corruption Bill, even though the bills were watered down by the legislators because if passed it meant that even them, the legislators will be prosecuted some day for engaging in sharp corrupt practices (Momah, 2013:110). As at the year 2013, Nigerian woke up to discover that there was a ₦195 billion pension fraud involving the Chairman of the Pension Reform Task Force Team, Abdul Rasheed Maina. If a "reformer" can get sordid, where then is the hope? Another incident occurred not long ago when the suspended Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) governor Mallam Sanusi Lamido Sanusi blew a whistle claiming that 20 billion US dollars had gone missing from the coffers of the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC). This however came when the CBN governor identified that 20\$ billion in oil sales was not accounted for by the NNPC (Vanguard News paper, 2014). The above are just a few out of the hundreds of cases of corruption in Nigeria and at the end of the day the defaulters mostly go unpunished or have a minimal sentence.

### **Political Intrigues as a cover for Corruption**

In a bid to stem the rising tide of opposition, political leaders, both civilian and military, exploit and manipulate the entrenched ethnic divide in Nigeria for political purposes. The forces of ethnic nationalism, therefore, have provided the platform for a refreshing opportunity to develop a more national agenda (Fagbadebo, 2000). Nigerian governments over the years lacked popular participation and consensus building. This has the effect of intensifying the exploitation of the hostile ethnic nature of the Nigerian state in the struggle to enforce legitimacy. Enforced

legitimacy cannot, especially in an ethnically-differentiated society, stimulate national development. Rather, the polity continuously moves in a vicious circle of instability that proceeds in a ceaseless tide which threatens its existence. Various tactics were employed for regime survival. This was worsened by a prolonged experience with dictatorial military rule. The common political intrigue associated with the civilian era was the propensity of the political elites to hang on to power through electoral malpractices, and, lately, orchestrated manipulation of the constitutional rules (Sklar et al., 2006). Intra and inter party squabbles, defection, threats of assassination and assassination among other political vices, leading to threats and counter threats of impeachment are employed to ensure the continuity of patron-client politics.

Thus, meaningful developmental programmes were neglected, as efforts were concentrated on how to curtail the rising opposition forces. The military leaders also exploited public opinion, by defusing inherent potential sources of opposition, suppressing and placating, employing reversal and insistence tactics in a bid to ensure a delicate balance of legitimacy. The period, (1985 - 1998) witnessed several transition programmes like “trains without locomotion”, all to ensure an unstable political environment to facilitate self perpetuation in power while corruption took the new dimension of becoming a national virtue rather than vice. Abacha’s regime was even more terrible. Terror became a potent political weapon to legitimize his reign. While the government was implicated in the reign of terror that characterized the period, pro-democracy and human right activists were framed as the culprits (Albert, 2005). The series of bomb attacks during this period were a deliberate ploy to divert the attention of the people from the chronic government failures and subsequently curry the favour of both domestic and international actors for legitimacy. As Albert (2005) puts it:

*“The bomb attacks also became a veritable vehicle by which the government diverted the attention of the people from substantive issues in politics. Each blast was reported and discussed in the NTA and Radio Nigeria news for several weeks...all these were aimed at attracting sympathy for the government and ...through this kind of diversionary tactics Nigerians were led to forget about the fundamental issues in their nation’s development while ‘sympathizing’ with*



*the Head of state ‘whose genuine efforts towards lasting democracy’ were being thwarted by ‘subversive elements’”.*

The employment of political intrigues was facilitated by an inconsistent federal structure. The promise and implementation of state and local government creation exercises were employed as political weapon to induce beneficiaries to forget about the increased arbitrariness and political oppression, and encourage them to throw their support behind the government. In essence, the more the exercise to presumably create new states and local government areas, the less powerful and viable the component units of the federal structure, and the more the corruption networks in the system. National development suffers while personal enrichment increases. Thus, dysfunctional impediments to development were fueled by the use of political intrigues to disempower the civil society. Power consolidation through the manipulation of the fragile ethnic relationships made the overriding objectives of national development a failed project while a few individuals emerged as power brokers and “godfathers”. Unfortunately however, the civil society lacks the capacity to engage the government on the need to promote good governance through accountability and transparency. As Kew (2005), has rightly observed, the dearth of basic resources, institutional capacity as well as professional skills in functional areas of expertise had weakened the ability of the various organizations to sustain the struggle and campaign against bad governmental policies. Consequently, neo-patrimonial power relationships flourished with its attendant undemocratic political culture. The “authoritarian hangover” of neo patrimonialism had stifled the political system of the essential virtues of accountability and effective representation. The neopatrimonial power politics that pervaded the political landscape had subsequently entrenched clientelistic hierarchies among the political elites. This is a manifestation of the nature of politics in the society, which Kew (2005) sees as a negative phenomenon that should be altered.

*“The neopatrimonial contract between the Big Man (usually a patron either in or outside the government) and his supporters is based on shared perspectives of how both see the relationship: in this hierarchical arrangement, legitimacy and power flow from the top down, and both patron and client presume that these privileges are inherent with power. The social*

*position of the Big Man is seen as the source that creates the relationship, such that the patronage flowing downward is a favor that demands loyalty in exchange (ibid)."*

The parlous state of the national economy and its attendant effects on the economic well being of the individuals created the template for this development and weakened the collective bargaining power of the civil society. The introduction of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), in 1986 by the Babangida military administration which "left a profound imprint on civil society" (Obadare, 2003), further reduced the cohesive spirit of the people as individuals seek avenues to meet their economic demands.

### **Insecurity in Developing Countries (Nigeria)**

One of the greatest challenges facing Nigeria today is the issue of insurgency of which in Nigeria the Boko Haram organization is at the top of the list in carrying out terrorist activities in the state. Boko Haram's origin seems to lie in a group of radical Islamist youths who worshipped at the Alhaji Muhammadu Ndimi Mosque in Maiduguri a decade ago hence in 2002, an offshoot of this youth group (not yet known as Boko Haram) declared the city and the Islamic establishment to be intolerably corrupt and irredeemable. Thus the group declared that it was embarking on *hijra* (a withdrawal along the lines of the Prophet Muhammad's withdrawal from Mecca to Medina). It moved from Maiduguri to a village called Kanama, Yobe state, near the border with Niger, to set up a separatist community run on hard-line Islamic principles. Its leader, Mohammed Ali, espoused anti state ideology and called on other Muslims to join the group and return to a life under "true" Islamic law, with the aim of making a more perfect society away from the corrupt establishment.

The above assertion cannot be said to be correct as there are conflict in the literature as to the actual date of origin and formation as well as the leadership of the Boko Haram sect hence Alozieuwa (2012) documented that the confusion not only reflects in the narratives about the exact date, and who the actual founder was, but also as to the true source of these expositions. For instance, Adibe (2012), has observed that while the popular belief is that it was founded

around 2001 or 2002, Madike, traced the date to as far back as 1995, and argues that, one Lawan Abubakar, who later left for further studies at the University of Medina, Saudi Arabia, actually founded the Boko Haram sect. Under Abubakar, the sect was known as Sahaba, (Madike 2011 cited in Adibe, 2012: 50). Elsewhere, these expositions are credited to Shehu Sani, a civil right activist in northern Nigeria, who helped broker the first peace deal with the sect which failed (Businessday, online, February 1, 2012). While Uzodike and Maiangwa on the other hand acknowledge the Lawan Abubakar angle, they attribute their source to Ujah et al. (Uzodike and Maiangwa, 2012: 100).

They also acknowledge Gusau's (2009) version which traced the origin to an evangelical group formed by Muslim students at the University of Maiduguri, Borno state, who reportedly felt dissatisfied with Western education (Uzodike and Maiangwa, 2012: 100). He further stated that Muhammed Yusuf to whom the formation is now generally ascribed to, according to the competing narratives only assumed leadership after Abubakar's departure and "indoctrinated the sect with his own teachings, which he claimed were based on purity" (Adibe, 2012: 50). Yusuf's notion of "purity" and teachings were inspired by the works of Ibn Taymiyya, a fourteenth century legal scholar who preached Islamic fundamentalism and is considered a "major theorist" for radical groups in the Middle East (Johnson, 2011), after whom Yussuf named his mosque in Maiduguri (The Nation, May 23, 2012). But just as the sect itself may be less concerned about whom to credit for its formation than waging its war against the Nigerian state, the state too may be less concerned with the origin than it is with the threat that the group now poses to national society.

The obscurity surrounding its true origin perhaps informs why initially, the sect "had no specific name as its members attracted several descriptions where they operated based on the perception of the local population" (Okereke, 2012: 450). Such names include Taliban and the Yussufiyyah. The sect soon became formally identified as Ahulsunna wal'jama'ah Hijra – 'Congregation of Followers of the Prophet Involved in the Call to Islam and Religious Struggle.' The name Boko Haram, to which it is now commonly referred to, derives from the sect's anti-Western posturing, literally meaning 'Western education/civilization is sin.' Narratively, he documented that in the

early stages, the Boko Haram sect was widely known to have mobilized its membership from women and children, school drop-outs and unemployed university and polytechnic graduates, most of who tore up their certificates; student members withdrew from school. Okereke posits that “these recruits were indoctrinated by Yussuf to believe that their state of hopelessness was caused by government which imposed Western education on them and failed to manage the resources of the country to their benefits”. Although from the outset, the sect’s mission was to impose the Shari ‘a on Nigeria, the leadership went about its preaching peacefully, but not without attracting attention among other Islamic preachers who saw the preaching and interpretation of the Quran as a recipe for violence and an affront to constituted authority. Although incidents of violence have earlier been recorded against the sect, (Uzodike and Maiangwa, 2012: 102), serious concerns over its violent tendencies grew only after the open confrontation between the sect and the government in July 2009 following the death of Yussuf while in police custody, as well as his father in-law and sect financier, Ustaz Buji Foi, and the incarceration of members by state authorities.

Although Yussuf allegedly drew inspiration from radical Islamist, Ibn Taymiyya, he reportedly resisted some of followers relentless advocate that “an Islamic state was realizable through preaching and mobilization of the people to reject secularism, by way of taking up arms and fighting to conquer the unbelievers”; “Yussuf was said to be against any form of violence, saying it was against the teaching of Islam” (Suleiman cited in Uzodike and Maiangwa, 2012: 101). It is, therefore, yet uncertain whether the sect’s current level of radicalization is a function of the deaths of its initial leadership and subsequent clampdown by the State or the accession to its leadership of the taciturn psychopath, Abubakar Shekua, a Kanuri native, who once boasted “I enjoy killing anyone that God commands me to kill – the way I enjoy killing chickens and rams,” (BBC, online, June 22, 2012). Along with two other top leadership, Abubakar Adam Kamar and Khalid al-Barnawi, Shekau in June 2012 recently made the United States’ list of international terrorists (Alozieuwa, 2012) hence the use of lethal weapons such as explosives and guns as well as machetes and dagger for the purpose of meting out mayhem to the Nigerian state which has affected her economy adversely considering the high rate of loss of lives and properties. In terms of its modus operandi, observers said that the group constructed a “state

within a state,” with a cabinet, its own religious police, and a large farm, and attracted more and more people under its roof by offering welfare handouts, food, and shelter. Many of the people the group attracted were refugees from the wars over the border in Chad and jobless Nigerian youths. The source of the group’s money at this stage of its existence is not clear. Members of the Borno religious establishment say that Yusuf received funds from Salafist contacts in Saudi Arabia following two haj trips that Yusuf made during this time. Another possible source of funding during this period was donations from wealthy northern Nigerians. In 2006, a wealthy northern businessman was arrested by the State Security Services after a group of children alleged that they had been sent by the group to an al-Qaeda training camp in Mauritania. The businessman says his donations to the group were an innocent attempt to contribute *zakat*, an obligation of wealthy Muslims to give charitably. Strategically, until the June 16, 2011, bombing of the Nigeria Police Headquarters in Abuja, the sect had restricted its terror campaign mostly to the North East part of Nigeria. Presently students in secondary schools have been targeted and slaughtered for no reason.

### **Theoretical Frame Work**

Every research must be based on a theory or theories however this research is based on two theories which are the Maslow’s Theory of Motivation which is used to explain corruption in developing countries and the Marxist Structural Conflict Theory which is used to analyze the level of insecurity in developing countries. The Marxist school of thought in its thesis has tied down social conflict as a result of economic structures and social institutions. Marx postulates that the mode of production supersedes and determines the structures of and the character in social, political and intellectual process of life; it is not the consciousness of man that determines its consciousness (Marx, 1970:21). By looking at insecurity in developing countries such as Nigeria one can easily identify that revolts occur as a result of inequality in the allocation of resources such as the Niger Delta militancy groups who have been agitating that the state has abandoned their region and due to oil exploration, the people in that area have no economic means of survival and therefore due to the hardship are forced to take up arms in order to use organized terror to kidnap expatriates and demand for ransom for their release.

Ademola affirms this where he explains the situation in developing countries when institutions existing structures are lopsided over to favor a group or syndicate at the expense of the other group and if nothing is done to correct such anomaly then it is expected that an outbreak of conflict and insecurity is inevitable (Ademola, 1995:41). Therefore this theory describes how the pursuit of interest by the people in the upper class has subjected the lower class in developing countries to resort to violence as a means of survival. Therefore, a society's ruling class owes its position to its ownership and control of the means of production, distribution and exchange (Sylvester and Wali, 2008:15-16) the ruling class in developing countries uses this theory to control the means of production, a powerful minority, interposes itself between the rest of the population and the means by which this population meets its biological and social needs. By this manner, the ruling class in developing countries renders its population vulnerable and susceptible to their wishes and dictates. As Sylvester and Wali put it, it dominates the whole moral and intellectual life of a people while making government, law and military science, religion and education the vehicles for entrenching its rule and its position of privilege.

Today economic analysis has to deal with a renewal of economic problems in current conflicts, whether internal or international (Gboyega, 1998:76). The supply of raw materials, internal inequalities generating new demands, changes in the world economic hierarchy, development of asymmetrical conflicts... To deal with these new aspects of international relations, current economic theory presents partial and very sophisticated analyzes, in contrast to the global character of former economic theories. Furthermore, liberal orthodoxy dominates most studies devoted to defence economics. This has not decreased the importance of the issues or the debate, but it has moved them from the arena of economics into the more general arena of the social sciences, particularly international relations, politics, international political economy and development studies (Ake, 2002:98).

According to some structural conflict researchers (Ehrlich et.al, 2000:45) four important conditions influence the likelihood that resources will be the object of military or political action: (1) the degree of scarcity; (2) the extent to which the supply is shared by two or more groups/states; (3) the relative power of those groups; and (4) the ease of access to alternative sources.

The most present approach in the structural conflict literature is a “resource scarcity” as a main conflict contributor. This approach links resources considers resource scarcity (supply induced, demand induced or absolute scarcity), as well as environmental degradation as a key conflict issues (Homer-Dixon, 1999:78). (Homer-Dixon and Percival, 1997:128), stressing the causal pathways between conflicts and resources in some developing countries, argue that under certain conditions, the scarcity of renewable resources such as cropland, forests and water generate social effects (such as poverty, migration, and weak institutions)and produce tensions and conflicts.

Kant, (1795:89) who argued that the progress of civilization tended to bring peace at the global level, described economic wars as morally reprehensible, but also as a way to reach an ideal state of equality in resource allocation in order to have lasting peace. (Fukuyama, 1993:89) provides a recent example of this belief, arguing that the economic changes of the late 1980’s and the spread of democracy and liberalism, meant that war would become less and less probable. Many ‘liberal’ economists were also ready to announce the end of conflicts thanks to the spread of civilization and, in particular, the spreading of free market economies. To them the costs of war are clear, namely the destruction of resources, the interruption of trade and the burden of debt when war is financed by loans. Thus, wars are considered to be counterproductive and cannot be justified by the benefits of predation and territorial expansion, since the surest way to increase the national economic growth is through the development of trade with prosperous neighbours. This leads to a denial of the legitimacy of wars, which are seen as resulting from a perversion of the political process, with the State undertaking military actions to serve particular interests.

Adam Smith, (1776:67) postulates how the State is a place of conflicts and the decision to make war or peace depended on political processes, on the balance of power between the different social classes. The merchant class was seen as responsible for involving the country in useless colonial conquests and other military conflicts that were beneficial to them as a group. The founder of the British Classical School was inspired by the utilitarianism of Locke, according to whom universal peace was part of a law of nature. Man is naturally social and so war results from imperfections in human nature, in particular of ambition, and as such it can be only a

temporary phenomenon. This theory directly inspired the liberal economic theories, which see the economy as governed by an “invisible hand”, a natural order in which the State should not intervene (Coulomb, 1998:123).

On the other hand, the theory of Motivation is used as a tool to explain corruption and how people go to any length to acquire wealth even through criminal means. However people have needs and desires and thus compel them to engage in fraudulent activities to get rich over night. People who engage in corrupt practices always have motives behind them such as they want to be identified as the rich class in the society, occupy chieftaincy titles in their villages and also be given top positions in their religious organizations. In actions of corrupt people, there is always a motivation for example a person may eat because she is physically hungry, because she feels afraid, because she feels lonely or unloved, because she is seeking pleasure or self-esteem, or for all of those reasons at once. It is necessary to consider human needs and motivations for behavior in terms of the complete picture, replete with nuance and interrelationships between different needs, desires, and behaviors. An important activity is considered to interact in dynamic relationships with other elements of relevance in the person’s ecological environment (Maslow, 1943).

## **Conclusion**

We have in this paper attempted to demonstrate the challenges of corruption and security on developing countries. Corruption in developing countries has definitely persisted and continued due to the lack of management of resources and also due to the high rate of poverty which has therefore made the allocators of resources to divert the funds for personal use to the detriment of the citizenry as a whole. However it is not the huge amount of money that is given to developing countries as a whole for development but the issue there is that these developing countries lack development administration. On the other hand the high level of insecurity in developing countries has become a serious plague that aims at consuming the states in question. People constantly live in fear and always pray to God for them to see the light of the coming days ahead because as a result of this insecurity migration has since began like was seen in Borno and Yobe



states of Nigeria. Even the governments of developing countries are finding it difficult to curtail and manage the high levels of insecurity in developing countries.

### **Recommendations**

In view of the desire of the governments of developing countries to combat insecurity and corruption, the following are the steps for the way forward:

- i. There is a need for governments of developing countries to reform the justice systems by ensuring very stiff and stricter penalties for people found guilty of corrupt practices.
- ii. Governments of developing countries should have a zero tolerance for corruption in their countries.
- iii. Governments of developing countries should apply the principle of egalitarianism in the allocation of resources to prevent conflict.
- iv. Governments of developing countries need to use dialogue as a tool of settling or containing insecurity and insurgency and to resort to the use of state violence as a last option.
- v. Government needs to device an infiltration mechanism to understand the ways and manner the insurgents think before attacking so as to prevent and even counter future attacks.

### **REFERENCES**

1. Ademola F.S (1995) **Theories of Social Conflict** University of Peace New Jersey.
2. Akindele, S.T. and Adeyemi, O.O. (2010), **Managing Interruptions in National Development: A Discussion Analysis of the Menace of Time Robbery Financial Sector. Mismanagement and Militancy in Nigeria**, Saarbrucken Germany: Lap Lambert Academic Publishing.
3. Alozieuwa, S.H.O (2012) **Contending Theories on Nigeria's Security Challenge in the Era of Boko Haram** New York: Freedom House.

4. Aransi, I.O. (2008), "Bureaucratic corruption in the Public Service: A Case Study of the Nigerian Local Government in Adeyemo D.O. and Olojede, I. (eds) Reading governance and Accountability in Nigeria, Germany: Cuvillier Verlag International Scientific Publisher New York.
5. Braithwaite, T. (1988) "Foundations and Dynamics of National Security", Nigerian Journal of International Affairs .vol.12 No 3 pp107-127
6. Carey, R. (2000), "The Contemporary Nature of Security", in Tevor C. Salom (ed) Issues in International Relation,. London and New York: Rout ledge.
7. Dyke, V.V. (1966) **Security and Sovereignty in International Politics**. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
8. Fagbadebo O (2000). "The Quest for a Stable Nigerian Federalism at the 1994/95 Constitutional Conference" A Research Thesis.
9. Freedman, L (1998) "International Security: Changing Targets; Foreign Policy, 110:48-63.
10. Boko Haram Insurgency. The Peace and Conflict Review. Volume 7, Issue 1 - ISSN: 16593995 <http://www.review.ucepeace.org/index.cfm?opcion=0&ejemplar=24&entrada=128>
11. Karl Marx (1970), **A contribution to the critique of political economy**, NYC, International Publishers, New York.
12. Kew D (2006). Nigeria in Sanja Tatic (ed.) Countries at the Crossroads Master of Science degree in Political Science) Nigeria's Economy and Economic Development". In Ibrahim, L. and Odekunle F (eds) **Fighting Corruption and Organized Crime in Nigeria: Challenges for New Millennium**, Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited
13. Nwabueze, N. (2002), "Corruption: a Sociology Perspective" in Adejugbe, M.A. (ed) Perspective on Nigeria's Fledging Fourth Republic, Malthouse, Press Limited: Lagos. Political Corruption (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/political-corruption>)
14. Nweke, G.A. (1988) "Some Critical Remarks on the National Security Question", Nigerian Journal of International Affairs. Vol. 12. pp. 1-7.
15. Obadare E (2003). White Collar Fundamentalism: Youth, Religiosity New York.
16. Odunuga, S. (2000), "The Impact of Corruption and Organized Crime"

17. Olopoenia, A (1998), *A Political Economy of Corruption and Underdevelopment*. Faculty Lecture Series, Ibadan: Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Ibadan.
18. Otite, O. (1986), “On the Sociological Study of Corruption”. In Femi Odekunle (ed) *Corruption In Development*, Ibadan: University Press. pp.1-41  
Research Issue, 1: 37-56.
19. S. Momah (2013), **Nigeria Beyond Divorce, Amalgamation Perspective**, Safari Books Limited, Ibadan.
20. Sklar RL Ebere Onwudiwe and Darren Kew, (2006), **Nigeria: Completing Obasanjo’s Legacy**, J. Democracy, 17 (3): pp.100-115 submitted to the Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, for the award of PhD.
21. Sylvester VM and Wali R.C, (2008), **Readings in Peace and Conflict Resolution**, Ibadan Stirling-Horder Publishers Ibadan.
22. Wolfers, A. (1962) “National Security as an Ambiguous Symbol” in *Anorld Wolfers Discord and Collaboration*, Baltimore: John Hopkins Uni. Press.
23. Yelwa. M, (2011), *Economic Effects of Corruption in Nigeria “Being a Second Graduate Paper Submitted to the Department of Economics, Usman Danfodiyo University, Sokoto in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) Degree in Economics”*.
24. Zabadi, S.I. (2005). **Understanding Security and security sector Dynamics** Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.