BASIC CONCEPTS IN POLITICAL SCIENCE

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Introduction

There are several other basic concepts in political science in addition to the major ones: state and power. These other concepts are very essential to the understanding and operation of state and power in politics and political science. Among these concepts are: sovereignty, legitimacy, development, underdevelopment, rule of law, public policy, influence, ideology, nation, society, constitution, constitutionalism, citizen, rights and obligation, democracy, public administration, political economy, international relations, conflict, and authority etc. Although other concepts abound, these are the concern in this context.

Sovereignty

The concept of sovereignty has recently become the focal point of an interdisciplinary debate beyond the initial meaning. The debates have revolved around the questions of "What is sovereignty?"; "Who is the sovereign?"; "Why should there be sovereignty?"; and "How can sovereignty be maintained?". As derived from old French concept, sovereignty simply means "to rule over" (Roskin, Cord, Medeiros, and Jones, 2003). The concept of sovereignty is closely associated with the writings of Jean Bodin (1529-1596) who is regarded as the author. Jean Bodin defined sovereignty as "unconditional and unrestrained power" or "absolute and perpetual power vested in a commonwealth" (Hoffman and Graham, 2006). Gamble (1963) defined it as an "independent public power that makes organised social life possible". Hence, sovereignty is designed to assert the character of "public power to make and enforce laws for the purpose of maintaining law and order in the society"[CITATION Gam631 \l 2057]. In line with the definition of Gamble (1963), is Alan's (1986) submission that sovereignty is best defined as "constitutional independence of a state". Similarly, whereas Robertson (1993) defined sovereignty as "independent rule by a country or institution over a certain territory or set of political concerns"; Rourke and Boyer (2002) describes it as "political independence from any higher authority"; while Karen (1999) explained it as "the authority of the state, based on recognition by

other states and non-state actors, to govern matters within its own borders that affect its people, economy, security, and form of government".

In all these definitions, the common denominators associated with the concept of sovereignty include *supremacy*, *independence*, *absoluteness*, *unlimitedness*, and *perpetuity*. Invariably, sovereignty refers to final political authority with defined jurisdiction. Krasner (1999) identified four dimensions upon which sovereignty could be understood and they are:

- *Domestic Sovereignty* – actual control over a state exercised by an authority organized within this state;
- *Interdependence Sovereignty* – actual control of movement across state's borders, assuming the borders exist;
- *International Legal Sovereignty* – formal recognition by other sovereign states;
- *Westphalian Sovereignty* – lack of other authority over state than the domestic authority (examples of such other authorities could be a non-domestic church, a non-domestic political organization, or any other external agent).

Besides the categorisation of sovereignty as Krasner (1999) identified, there are also political sovereignty, legal sovereignty, and territorial sovereignty. Whereas political sovereignty is concerned with the legitimacy and authority to exercise power in the process of governance in overseeing the affairs of the people; legal sovereignty rests on constitutional independence as basis to make laws for the subjects, abrogate laws already made, and amend obsolete laws; while territorial sovereignty incorporates the existence of rights over defined geographical areas that may border in the airspace, water, and on land (Gamble, 1963; Karen, 1999; Rourke and Boyer, 2002).

Characteristics of Sovereignty

- Absoluteness: There is little or no limitations to the exercise of sovereignty.
- Permanence: Sovereignty does not end but survives with the state.
- Indivisibility: The powers of sovereignty which is supreme, absolute, final and coercive cannot be divided or shared.
- Comprehensiveness: The power of sovereignty is wide in scope and coverage such that it is all-embracing and binding on all persons within the territorial jurisdiction.

- Inalienability: The powers of sovereignty cannot be given away or transferred. If a sovereign power is transferred, it cannot be regained.
- Absence of Foreign control: The power of a sovereign state is supreme within its territorial jurisdiction and should be exercised without foreign control.

Location of Sovereignty in a State

State	Location of Sovereignty
Unitary	Central Government or Authority
Federal	Constitutionally shared among the levels and organs of government
Democracy	The people or the electorates
Monarchy	The Queen in Parliament
Military Regime	Armed Forces Ruling Council

Limitations of Sovereignty

i.   Membership of international organisations
ii.   The influence of powerful nations
iii. External aids
iv.   Supremacy of the constitution
v.   Influence of Pressure Groups
vi.   Complexities of Modern Government
vii. Customs and Traditions
viii. Coup D'etat
ix.   International Laws
x.   Public Opinion
xi.   The Electorate
xii. Type of governmental power

Legitimacy: The concept of legitimacy derived from the latin word "legitimus" meaning "lawful or according to law". Hence, legitimacy implies a condition or situation of being lawful; it entails the general acceptance of a political system, government, or administration as being appropriate and in line with the provisions

of the laws of the land or the laid down rules and regulations. Legitimacy as a concept in political science has both normative and empirical interpretations. Empirically, legitimacy is concerned with citizens' perception of how a state or government comes to exist as a legal entity; normatively, legitimacy is concerned with whether a state or government deserves to be obeyed or not by the subjects and citizens as the case might be. Some of the factors that affect or determine legitimacy include:

- Popular participation
- Popular support
- Good government
- Foreign policy
- Historical/Colonial Experience
- Common national Symbols and Heroes
- Peaceful means of settling disputes
- Leadership styles

Development: Development is the totality of the process of economic and social transformation which results in broader outlook, higher standard and equality of life, political awareness, economic opportunities and self-confidence in a people. In planning for development, strategies and tactics are proposed for getting better roads and bridges, pipe-borne water, high-rise buildings in urban centres, computerised accounting system, mechanised agriculture, and localised social amenities such as telephone and electricity. In addition, there are plans for more schools, hospitals, recreational facilities, avenues of cultural expressions etc. There are two types of development:

- Space-oriented development, and
- Human-oriented development.

Space-oriented development emphasises the provision of physical facilities which create an impression before any observer that the region has undergone significant transformation e.g. good roads, buildings, industries, and electricity etc. On the other hand, human-oriented development refers to the enhancement of the social and economic well-being of the people through the provision of education, health facilities, employment, and trainings to improve the quality of the teaming populace. Whether development is space-oriented or human-oriented, it is often viewed as a:

i.   Dynamic process

ii. Gradual process
iii. Continous process

Some of the indices of development include: high per capita income, low mortality rate, high employment rate, good governance, sustainable infrastructures and social amenities etc.

Underdevelopment: This refers to a socio-economic and political condition in which the potentials of available human and material resources are not fully exploited and utilized. Usually, underdevelopment has negative effects on the society in terms of human and material resources which are most of the time wasted. Some of the indices of underdevelopment include:

- Poor infrastructure
- Under-utilization of resources
- Under-employment
- Low per capita income
- Low literacy level
- High mortality rate etc.

Rule of law

The *rule of law* is a legal maxim which states that (a) no one is above the law; (b) no one can be punished by the state except for a breach of the law; (c) no one can be convicted of breaching the law except in the manner set forth by the law itself [CITATION Nwa93 \l 2057]. Thus, the rule of law essentially emphasise *equality before the law* which is in contrast with the ancient doctrine that "*the King is the Law"* (*Rex Lex*). By the democratic perception of the rule of law, it is rephrased to "*the law is king"* (Lex Rex). Meanwhile, it entails that *no one is above the law*, including its creators. As a result, the legal framework must be independent and effectively impartial as not to be subject to manipulations. Democracy is therefore most realistic when justice is sought and obtained without undue constraints. In this light, the World Justice Project explained that the rule of law is indispensable in democracy and refers to rules-based system which upholds the following four universal principles:

(i) The government, its officials and agents are accountable under the law

(ii) The laws are clear, publicized, stable, fair, and protect fundamental rights, including the security of persons and property;

(iii)   The process by which the laws are enacted, administered, and enforced, is accessible, fair, and efficient;

(iv)   Access to justice is provided by competent, independent, and ethical adjudicators, attorneys or representatives, and judicial officer who are of sufficient number, have adequate resources, and reflect the makeup of the communities they serve.

In line with these four principles, the UN Secretary General in 2004 Report on *The Rule of Law and Transitional Justice in Conflict and Post-Conflict Societies,* summarised the rule of law as a principle of governance in which all persons, institutions and entities, public and private, including the state itself, are accountable to laws that are publicly promulgated, equally enforced and independently adjudicated, and which are consistent with international human rights norms and standards. It requires as well, measures to ensure adherence to the principles of supremacy of law, equality before the law, accountability to the law, fairness in the application of the law, separation of power, participation in decision-making, legal certainty, avoidance of arbitrariness, as well as procedural and legal transparency.

Public Policy: Policy refers to a definite course of action selected from alternative and in the light of given conditions to guide and usually determine present and future decisions (Presthus, 1975). For Heywood (1997), policy is a plan of action adopted by an individual, group, business, organisation, or government. Similarly, Dror (1973) asserted that policy is a major guideline for action. The above definitions imply that policy is not only a concern for the government alone but involves other actors in the society. Hence, one may be right to state that there are private policy and public policy. While private policy is plan of action adopted by individuals, groups, businesses, and organisations in the interest of the selected actors; public policy is the plan of action designed by the government to serve the interest of specified general public or masses. Public policy is therefore defined as the authoritative decisions and actions of the government designed to solve a given problem or a chain of problems in a given society. In the words of Ikelegbe (1996), public policy is government actions or course of actions or proposed actions or course of proposed actions directed at achieving certain goals. For Pal (1997) public policy is a course of action or inaction chosen by public authorities to address to address a given problem or interrelated set of problems. Based on the foregoing definitions, public policy is associated with the following features:

- It is goal-oriented

- It is future-oriented
- It is comprises guiding principles that direct administrative decisions and actions
- It is designed to address specifically identified problems
- It is legitimate to the extent that it requires enabling laws

Public Policy can be classified into:

i. Distributive policy: This is concerned with who gets what, when and how with respect to revenue and resources allocation.

ii. Redistributive policy: This is concerned with the transfer of resources or benefits from large groups or classes of people to another segment of the society; e.g. Pay As You Earn (PAYE), Value Added Tax (VAT), Education Tax Fund (ETF), Petroleum Tax Fund (PTF), Welfare for Disabled etc.

iii. Regulatory policy: A design to harmonize the actions of groups so as to protect the citizen from undue exploitations. It involves setting of standards and rules to restrict the activities of some groups in the society in order to prevent undesired cosequences of their actions; e.g. Labour law, land use and allocation act, Electoral Laws, Drug laws, trafficking laws, etc.

iv. Constituent policy: Broad based policies that encompass all the structures and functions of the various sectors of national life intended to favour the government and the public; e.g. foreign policy, defence policy; unification decree of 1966, National Youth Service Corps Decree of 1973, and Universal Basic Education Policy of 1999.

Influence: This refers to the ability of an individual or actor to make another behave otherwise through subtle means and without the use of force. In other words, the wielding of influence does not require the show of power or might but persuasive measures to change the decisions or alter the actions of another. The exercise of influence at times requires motivations to change the behaviours of intended persons.

Ideology: Ideology was derived from the word, "les ideologues" by a French philosopher, Antoine Destutt de Tracey during the French revolution of 1789. Initially, De Tracey denoted ideology as the science of ideas considered progressive, rational, based upon sensation, as well as free from metaphysical and overtly religious contents (Hoffman and Graham, 2006). But the term later became pejorative when Napoleon considered ideology as radical, sinister, doctrinaire and

abstract (Hoffman and Graham, 2006). In other words, Napoleon perceived ideology as a "cloudy metaphysics" that ignores history and reality [CITATION McL95 \l 2057]. Without prejudice to original conceptualisation of the term, *Ideology* refers to the study or science of the belief, ethical, and value systems of a society which combine to constitute the major determinants of human behaviours. In this light, Sargent (2006) defined ideology as a study of the "system of values and beliefs regarding the various institutions and processes of society that is accepted as fact or truth by a group of people". In other words, ideology is the systematic study of organised and patterned beliefs (Sargent, 2006). Some vital political ideas are capitalism, socialism, feminism, ecologism, anarchism, syndicalism, fascism, aristocracy, democracy, Marxism, monarchy, oligarchy etc.

Nation: A nation refers to a geographical entity with a population of people that share homogeneous characteristics such as customs and traditions in terms of ethnicity, language, dressing, religion, and leadership etc. Hence, a nation is an association or a community of people with common ties and consciousness of unity. It is this consciousness of unity that translates into *nationalism* or a sense of nationality. The major feature lacking in a nation unlike state, is the status of *sovereignty*. A nation has no sovereignty because political independence is not granted.

Society: Society includes every all the forms and degrees of relationship among people whether organised or unorganised, direct or indirect, conscious or unconsciou, cooperative or antagonistic. It comprises all aspects of human relations or interaction without bounds or assignable limits. Hence, society includes, but not limited to: Society of Friends, society for the advancement of human rights, clubs, fraternities, criminal groups, professional organisation, families, kinship groups, and several other human clusters.

Constitution: Constitution is defined as the whole body of fundamental laws, customs, conventions, principles, rules and regulations according to which a particular government of a country or an organisation operates. The constitution therefore specifies the working of a government or organisation, the functions of its officials and organs, the rights and duties of its citizens, subjects or members. The features of a constitution include:

- It has Preamble
- It specifies Party system
- It stipulates the organs and functions of government
- It states the rights and duties of the citizens

- It passes through proper documentation processes
- It states the type and characteristic of a government
- It provides the procedure for constitutional amendment
- It states the Revenue allocation formular
- It provides for Tenure of Office and qualification

Sources of Constitution includes: past experiences, historical documents, acts of parliament or statutes, intellectual works, customs and norms, judicial precedents, conventions, constitutional conferences, and international laws etc. On the other hand, the various types of constitution includes written and unwritten, rigid and flexible, Unitary, federal and confederal constitutions.

Constitutionalism: Constitutionalism refers to the practical expressions of the provisions of the constitution in the lives of the citizens in the belief that they are properly construed. In other words, constitutionalism means that the power of government and the people should be defined and limited by the dictates of the body of the fundamental laws of the land known as the constitution. Constitutionalism entails that the actions and activities of government, its officials, and the entire citizens, should be in line with the provisions of the constitituion. Hence, the constitution outlines the different organs of government, their functions and their relationship to each other. The constitution also specifies the rights and obligations of the citizens. Although the principle of constitutionalism is not constitution in itself, it limits the actions and activities of government and individuals to constitutional provisions. The basic dictum is that *nobody, no matter how highly placed is above the law and that the law is no respecter of persons.* Consequently, the principle of constitutionalism empowers the judiciary to declare any action that conflicts with the constitutional provisions as null and void and ultra vires. Furthermore, it allows individuals the chance to challenge any action of government viewed as unconstitutional in the law court. The essence, purpose, or importance of constitutionalism include the following:

- To ensure equality before the law
- To limit excesses in the exercise of functions
- To guarantee the protection of fundamental human rights
- To elicit popular sovereignty (through voting and being voted for)
- To ensure judicial independence

Citizen

The concepts of "citizen" and "citizenship" are originally associated with the ancient city-states of Greece where they were used to qualify individuals as

members of their society based on gender, ethnic, and imperial hierarchies (Hoffman and Graham, 2006). While "citizen" is a concept used to qualify a bona fide and legitimate member of the Greek City-State, the concept of "citizenship" describes the processes and methods of becoming a citizen of a society (Marshall, 1950; Abah and Okwori, 2002; Hoffman and Graham, 2006). One may become the citizen of any country by:

- Birth (Place of birth and descent)
- Registration/Marriage
- Naturalization/Application
- Virtue of Honour

Accordingly, there are four main theoretical notions with respect to the conceptualization of "citizen" and "citizenship":

i.   The closure theory: This is associated with the aristocratic practices of the ancient Greek city-states; it restricts citizen and citizenship status to adult male members of the society who have the ability and chance to participate in government to the exclusion of the poor, slaves, foreigners, women, and children (Aristotle, 1962; Hoffman and Graham, 2006). In this context, citizens were only indigenous adult males relieved of menial tasks, national in political orientation, public in service, and have property.

ii.   Communitarian Theory: This considers the concepts of "citizen" and "citizenship" as contractual exchanges between individuals and the community (Miller, 1995). In other words, citizenship status is a concept used to qualify the relationship established based on agreements which define the rights and obligations of the citizens with respect to the powers and duties of the state (Miller, 1995; Omemma, 2006). This implies that citizenship is a reciprocal relationship between the citizen and the state upon which the former owes some patriotic responsibilities to the later which offers public goods and protection in return.

iii.   Civil-republican Theory: This notion perceives the rights of individuals to become citizens not as inherent but as acquired through civil practices (Agena, 2004; Omemma, 2006; Hoffman and Graham, 2006). Hence, one is not a citizen by simply belonging to a community or residing in a territory; but by having present and future capacity to influence politics (Agena, 2004). A citizen is therefore anyone that upholds obligation (e.g. payment of taxes) to the state as basis for protection and provision of public goods (Miller, 1995). In the light of the civil-republican viewpoint,

a citizen is refers to those who play active parts in shaping the future directions of the society or country through political debates and decision-making (Miller, 1995). In this regard anyone who assimilates the culture, traditions, beliefs, and sentiments of state or community as well as contributes to its development qualifies to be identified as a citizen (Miller, 1995). The assertions of the civil-republican proponents are closely associated with the acquisition of citizenship by naturalization as contained in section 35 of Nigeria's 1999 Constitution.

iv. Liberal Theory: The liberal notion as championed by Marshal (1950) holds that "citizen" and "citizenship" are inherent in individuals prior to community, and guaranteed with minimal obligations to the community or state (Miller, 1995). Citizenship in the liberal context emphasise the rights of individuals to be guaranteed and protected by the state. These rights include (a) basic-civil rights which entail freedom of speech, freedom to own property, freedom to worship and equality of justice to all; (b) political rights which embody franchise and rights to criticise government; (c) social rights which require that the citizens be protected against poverty, and have access to education and housing (Marshal, 1950; Hoffman and Graham, 2006; Omemma, 2006). In a sense, citizens must possess these three categories of rights in the state if their participation, welfare, and security are to be guaranteed in the society.

Rights and Obligation

Rights refers to the entitlements accorded to individuals or citizens in the society or state. Most at times, these rights are considered to be inalienable because they are fundamental to human existence without which "man's inhumanity to man" may prevail. There are two basic forms of rights:

a. Civil Rights: This includes rights to life, right to the dignity of human person, right to personal liberty, freedom of movement etc.
b. Political and moral rights: This includes rights to peaceful assembly and association, right to freedom of self-expression, righ to participate in government, and right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion.

Obligation on the other hand refers to the duties and responsibilities of citizens to the state especially with respect to obedience. There are three main dimension to the concept of obligation: Ethics, Jurisprudence, and Politics. In terms of ethics, obligation refers to discharging duties enjoined on one through rational thinking; in the field of jurisprudence, obligation requires man to obey laws to which one is tied to some performance; then, in politics, obligation is concerned with citizens' obedience to properly constituted governing authority.

Essentially, some of the features of political obligation include the following:

- It requires everybody to be interested in the way government is managed.
- Political obligation tends to guarantee legitimacy and effectiveness.
- Political obligation informs people to obey the authority of those in power and also desires them to be critical about the way authority is exercised.

Some of the theories of political obligation include:

❖ Divine theory: The divine theory postulates that all authorities come from God; hence, obedience or disobedience to political authorities invariably imply obedience or disobedience to God. Hence, citizens should obey political authorities as that would mean obeying God.

❖ Prescriptive theory: This theory shares the view that obedience to constituted authority is based on the principles of established customary rights

❖ Idealist Theory: This theory assumes that it is morally right for man to obey the authority of state since the essence of the state is to enhance the good living conditions of the people.

❖ Consent Theory: This postulates that the decision of individuals within the society to obey the commands of the state is because the formation of the state is as a result of the people's consent.

Without prejudice to the foregoing expositions, there are conditions upon which civil disobedience may occur:

- Abuse of political power
- Inability to provide essential services
- Inability to safeguard state sovereignty etc.

Democracy

Government of the people, by the people, and for the people. The origin of democracy is traced to Athens in Greece. It is derived from Greek word "demos" (people) and "Kratos" (rule). Democracy therefore implies "rule by the people". It further entails direct participation and representative terms of the rule by the people". It further entails direct participation and representative terms of the rule by the people. It should be noted that "people" in this context does not mean "everybody" in the literal sense; this is because there are limitations to democratic participation excluding such persons as children, lunatics, convicts, aliens and occasionally women, on issues like voting in and / or contesting elections. Even in Athens, children, women, slaves and aliens were excluded from political participation.

The concept of democracy is therefore seen as manifestly vague and flexible with contentious meanings owing to the varied definitions and interpretations of

different scholars. Nevertheless, Abraham Lincoln's popular conceptualisation of democracy as government of the people, by the people, and for the people seems to have stood the taste and tests of time above any other. This definition saliently emphasised three fundamental issues for the citizens and the state.

i.   As government of the people, democracy vests sovereignty on the people to choose their leaders and hold them accountable. In other words, the power to determine who should occupy positions of authority rests with the people either directly or indirectly.

ii.   As government by the people, democracy entails that all eligible citizens participate actively in the decision-making process.

iii.   As government for the people, democracy is primarily concerned with serving the welfare and security needs of the citizens.

Hence, in any democracy, political recruitment and decision-making directly or indirectly rests with the people to serve their welfare and security needs in the society. In a sense, democracy is a system of government designed to guarantee (a) peaceful choosing and replacing of leaders through free and fair elections; (b) the active participation of the people, as citizens, in politics and civic life; (c) protection of the human rights of all citizens; and (d) rule of law, in which the laws and procedures apply equally to all citizens (Mackenzie, 1958). These issues form the basis upon which the conditions for the effective working of democracy are derived.

Public Administration: Public Administration is the process of harmonizing and coordinating the activities of twwo or more people to acomplish certain goals or ends in the interest of the masses. In another sense, administration refers collectively to the senior personnel in the executive branch of government who are responsible for coordinating and executing policy in the interest of all. In essence, public administration refers to all the processes and activities designed to give effect to government policies and programmes. Public administration can be viewed as:

- An academic discipline: The study of the public sector concerned with the theory and practice of governmental administration
- An activity or process: The Mechanism or institutions through which public policy is put into effect.
- A profession or Career: one's occupation, means of livelyhood, and self-actualization.

Specifically, public administration deals with the following:

✓ The activities of government, its agencies, and institutions.
✓ Processes and activities directly or indirectly related to the formulation and/or implementation of public policies and programmes by the various agencies.
✓ Practices, rules and regulations and procedures employed in determining policy and/or carrying out the activities of the executive arm.
✓ Powers and duties of the public administrative personnel who perform the managerial duties, and those responsible for the day-to-day execution of public policy.
✓ Reform measures aimed at restructuring government business, attitudes, and orientations of public officials.

Political Economy: Political Economy as a sub-field of Political science is both a discipline and an approach. Political economy is a discipline to the extent that it is studied as a body of knowledge. As an approach, or methodology, it is anchored on the Marxist theory of Dialectical Materialism (Economic Determinism) which holds that the substructure (economy) determines the superstructure (socio-political lives of the people). In other words, political power is a function of economic power. Political economy explains the interplay of politics and economics in the society whether at the national or international levels. Political economy as an approach tries to analyze the economic structure which determines the leadership structure in the society. At the national or domestic level, political economy looks at how economic conditions of a nation determines the people's socio-cultural, religious, and political lives. At the international level, political economy is concerned with the division of the world into the North and the South, the developed and developing nations or the rich and the poor countries of the world as well as how these divisions affect their interactions in the global system.

International Relations
International Relation like other concepts in social sciences lacks a generally or universally accepted definition. Rather, various scholars have defined it in different ways according to their perceptions. The fact that the concept has no overriding definition made Philip (1948) to note that the term "International" is misleading since it suggest that one concerned with only the relations of one Nation (or State) to other nations (or States)". He suggests that the term "Transnational Relations" should rather be used in place of "International Relations" to include all relations that transcend national boundaries. Notwithstanding his contention, International Relations can be perceived both as exclusive affairs of states as well as interactions among non-states across national boundaries. Perception of international Relations with focus on States, view it as the sum total of the transactions, interactions, and

exchanges among states in the economic, social, cultural and political spheres. In other words only countries are the actors in international relations. Although this could have been true at the earlier stage of world's development it is difficult today to limit international relations to the activities of states alone because there are several other participants in international events that are not states. On the other hand, international relations go beyond the state-actors to include non-state actors such as individuals, groups and organisations etc. Without prejudice to the foregoing, international relations can be defined as social science processes, transactions or interactions that take place between or among individuals, groups of people, associations or organisations, governments or its agencies living or operating from different territorial units.

Conflict
The concept of conflict has faced diverse definitions and interpretations. Coser (1956) defined conflict as a *struggle* over values and claims to scarce *status, power,* and *resources* in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralize, injure, or eliminate their rivals. This definition corroborated the earlier assertion by Hansfield (1943) that conflict refers to a breakdown of normal activities of an organization in such a manner that the individual or group involved experience disharmony in working together. These definitions imply that the individuals or groups involved in conflict will not just stop working together as a team, but can go on to devise means, strategies, and tactics to frustrate and mar the efforts and intents of the perceived opponent(s). This submission is captured by Pondy (1969) when he explained that conflict ranges from *passive resistance* to *active aggression*. Essentially, Flippo (1980) noted that conflict occurs when two or more people or group perceives that they have (a) incompatible interests or positional differences (b) interdependent activities towards attaining the goals. Hence, as Katz and Kann (1978) rightly pointed out, persons, groups, organizations and nations engage in conflict when they interact directly in such a way that the actions of one tends to prevent or compel some outcomes against the resistance of another (cited in Odoh, 2006). Meanwhile, conflict refers to disagreements, misunderstanding, disharmony, confrontations, and struggles over values (status, power, resources) arising from clash of interests and interdependence of activities, which may or may not be expressed violently.

Though some scholars often perceive conflict very negatively, Flippo (1980) remarked that a total absence of conflict would be unbelievable, boring, and a strong indication that "conflict is being suppressed" at the expense of organizational progress. Kerzner (1998) also captured the inevitability and significance of conflict when he observed that it is an essential part of social

change in the society, institutions, and organizations without which they may become redundant, dictatorial, and monotonous. There can be conflicts about (a) the perception of how things are (conflict of facts); (b) how things should or ought to be (conflict of values); and (c) who is entitled to have what (conflict of interests) (Heirich, 2006). It is therefore not an aberration to expect conflicts in any social system.

Authority: This refers to the legal right to give orders or commands and compell obedience as a duty. Exercise of authority derives from one's office and the role the person plays in a given society. Authority which is usually derived from the consent of the people commands respect, influence, and confidence; it also serves as a test of government's popularity. This explains why even the military government tries to legitimize its authority by seeking the consent of the people on policy issues and trying to justify their actions. In any democracy, the electorates constitute the source of political authority. There are also traditional, legal, and charismatic sources of political authority.

- The traditional sources of political authority anchor on existing customs and traditions of a society. The traditional sources give rise to political authorities like the Eze (Obi or Igwe) in Igbo; Oba in Yoruba; and Emir in Hausa-Fulani Kingdoms.
- The legal sources of political authority derive from a body of rules and regulations governing a given society; e.g. Constitution.
- The charismatic sources derive from extra-ordinary natural personal qualities which endears popular acceptance of the individual as a leader.

There are various types of authorities:

i. Political Authority: The right to make decisions, policies, and command obedience derives from written official documents such as the constitution.

ii. Coercive Authority: This involves the use of force to compel acceptance and obedience from the people out of fear.

iii. Charismatic Authority: An Authority that secures the right to rule through the consent of people basedon the individual's extraordinary qualities.

iv. Delegated Authority: This refers to authority confered on a subordinate to exercise certain powers on specified matters.

v. Technical Authority: The exercise of technical authority derives from being a skilled expert with the know-how and required professionalism.

vi.   Traditional Authority: The right to exercise power based on customs and traditions.
vii.   Legal Rational Authority: The right to exercise power based on law by legally qualified persons.
viii. Positional Authority: The right to exercise power based on position held by an individual.

Distinction Between Power and Authority

i.   The exercise of power requires some element of force and sanction while the exercise of authority does not.
ii.   The punishment associated with disobedience to the power that be, is more grave than the punishment associated with disobedience to a constituted authority.
iii. The main attribute of authority is legitimacy while the main attribute of power is might.
iv.   The fear of sanctions compels obedience to power, while legitimacy arising from rules, regulations, customs, traditions, and charisma compels obedience to authority.
v.   Authority can be delegated while power cannot be delegated.

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