Vol 1, Number 1, January 2017

RELIGIOUS MULTICULTURALISM: A CHALLENGE ON WEST AFRICAN HUMAN DEVELOPMENT EFFORTS

By: Ida Mujtahidah

Abstract: The development of human resource potential which requires a maximum set of supporters. Not only the economic and political stability but also support social elements. The continent of Africa in particular West African region is an area that is composed of different cultures or different religions. Not only Christian and muslim relations but today is precisely coupled with strife Wahhabism that trigger strife with sunni and Shia and more. The challenges faced by tribes or Nations in the West African countries is also related to diversity. This paper will discuss the African community in developing their potential for the sake of development of the country. The method used is a research library with chaos theory as a framework for analysis. The results showed that West African countries with a high potential of resources but have a tenuous bond between culture and tribal practices are high it is difficult to develop existing resources to the maximum.

Keyword: west africa, multiculturalism, human resources development, religious affairs.

I. INTRODUCTION

Multiculturalism means different things to different people. For some it is directly linked to the politics of recognition and of difference (Taylor). In this regard, it concerns an appreciation of the necessity to deal with diversity in ways that affirm the value of different cultures and to respect the various claims made bv minority groups. For others. multiculturalism concerns an explicit policy of protecting particularistic local cultures in the face of hegemonic and global cultures (both Australia and Canada have such self-conscious policies) or it can refer to a loose form of cultural pluralism (Kuper). Since multiculturalism is not a homogeneous concept or practice, it is important to differentiate between multiculturalism as a practical response to diversity and as an aspect of social philosophy advocating particular values with respect to cultural differences. There is no unifying theory of multiculturalism, and its respect for difference finds expression in a variety of political, social, and cultural approaches to problems of diversity.

The concept of multiculturalism does not enjoy widespread currency in African social thought. It is certainly not a topic of debate in early-twenty-first-century intellectual discourse on the continent. There are many reasons for this neglect, but it is undoubtedly connected to the fact that African societies are intrinsically multiethnic and

multicultural. Diversity is not a new thing in Africa. Multiculturalism is premised on challenges to hegemonic cultures occasioned by the large-scale migrations of people who may experience alienation, marginalization, and exclusion in the host country. Sweden, for example, was remarkably homogeneous in a cultural sense prior to the influx of migrant laborers in the 1960s. African countries, in contrast, have entirely different histories. By and large, African states were formed by colonialism, usually to serve the interests of the colonists and, therefore, with little attention paid to the precolonial ethnic allegiances and other forms of belonging. These different histories play a critical role in the extent to which the concept of multiculturalism may be relevant in the African context.

II. HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

After years of neglect, the theme of employment has returned to the forefront of the international development agenda, following on the heels of the global financial crisis and its aftermath. Prominent examples include recent reports by UNCTAD, UNRISD, the World Bank, in addition to the extensive work by the International Labour Organization. The social value of employment has been recognised within this revived attention, bringing the theme close to the heart of the human development approach. However, there is a danger of reducing the 'social' into a utilitarian framework.

For instance, the 2013 World Development Report treats the 'social value' of jobs as the individual value of a job (presumably the wage) plus its various spillover effects, which can be negative, such as environmental costs, or positive, such as social identity, sense of fairness, or gender equality. This idea of spillovers comes from modern welfare economics – an influence that leading thinkers of the human development approach have tried to critique and overcome since the origins of the approach.

Instead, the idea of 'social value' arguably needs to be anchored in a more nuanced sociological understanding, such as the social nature of basic needs. Like happiness, but unlike objective human development metrics, social values are inherently relative and subjective, such as the sense of security and dignity that people derive from work. These perceptions can adapt over time and to changing contexts. The perception of certain types of work as enhancing dignity in a rural agrarian context, for instance, might not persist through the course of Structural urbanization. and institutional transformations associated with development add even further complexities, particularly in a globalised setting where perceptions are conditioned by factors that extend far beyond the local.

Unemployment is a good example of these complexities. There is a consensus that unemployment must be generally avoided not only because it is detrimental to incomes and demand, but also to dignity and social cohesion. However, many policies that address unemployment have been controversial because, for example, they can often result in detrimental effects on peoples' dignity or social status by forcing them to accept substandard employment mismatched with their skill sets, or else by being used to discipline welfare recipients. On the other hand, sufficient social security can allow the unemployed to avoid situations where they are forced to accept any work at any wage. If affordable and accessible schooling options are also available for mature students, spells of unemployment might encourage reskilling and result in increased social mobility, esteem and income. Under

circumstances, the ability to be unemployed could become a source of dignity and advantage. In most developing countries that lack generalized social security, unemployment is generally a status that only relatively well-off people can afford.

The relationships between social and economic values are hugely debated on empirical, theoretical, ideological and even epistemological grounds. The utilitarian argument that the social value of employment is more or less imputed by its monetary market value is particularly problematic in a world in which people are compelled to work and are not necessarily free to withdraw from a hypothesized labour market bargain, whether their compulsion is driven by absolute poverty or else by more nuanced social needs. The lack of freedom to be excluded in this sense can lead to exploitation.

We might also question whether the processes that drive modern economic growth reinforce the social values of employment. The classical Marxist answer is that capitalist processes are fundamentally alienating for labour; the class conflict that follows is what makes capitalism so dynamic, rather than a harmony between social and economic values. As pointed out by Giovanni Arrighi, even Adam Smith viewed the division of labour within production units and the specialization of work into monotonous and uniform tasks as harmful to the moral and intellectual qualities of the labour force. This tension between productivity and social value can be observed today within increasingly complex and atomized factory systems of production distribution, such as in the 'Walmartization' of retail stores across the globe.

Bearing these complexities in mind, it is nonetheless useful to focus on the conditions that might allow for sufficient and sustained social values of employment within development. Redistribution is a hugely important condition given its role in socializing the wealth produced by increasing productivity in order to support forms of employment that would be deemed socially valuable and that would reinforce other human development gains, such as in education. In the absence of such socialisation, the

perpetual quest for increasing worker productivity might well exacerbate certain structural aspects of vulnerability, thereby undermining the social valuation of objective (or absolute) gains made in human and economic developmentWarning radicalism

Islam is the predominant religion of the West African interior and the far west coast of the continent (70% of West Africans); and was introduced to the region by traders in the 9th century. Islam is the religion of the region's biggest ethnic groups by population. Islamic rules on livelihood, values, dress and practices had a profound effect on the populations and cultures in their predominant areas, so much so that the concept of tribalism is less observed by Islamized groups like the Mande, Wolof, Hausa, Fula and Songhai, than they are by non-Islamized groups. [41] Ethnic intermarriage and shared cultural icons are established through a superseded commonality of belief or community, known as ummah.[42] Traditional Muslim areas include Senegal, Gambia, Mali, Mauritania, Guinea, Niger; the upper coast and inland two-thirds of Sierra Leone and inland Liberia; the western, northern and far-eastern regions of Burkina Faso; and the northern halves of the coastal nations of Nigeria, Benin, Togo, Ghana and ivory coast.

In view of recent terror attacks in West Africa, Ivory Coast and Burkina Faso have raised fears of growing radicalization of youth in the region. Al Qaeda has claimed responsibility for attacks on a hotel in Burkina Faso's capital in January and an attack on a popular beach resort in Ivory Coast. More than 65 people died in the attacks, many of them foreigners. Experts say radical versions of Islam have been gaining ground in parts of the region like Mali and Niger and gradually spreading to other parts of the region. Analysts and security experts say the financial and doctrinal penetration of Salafism, the fundamental school of thought, advocating for a return to the original ways of Islam in the region and slippery propaganda from militant groups is making recruitment easier.

In Senegal's poor southern region of Casamance, Boucar Gassama, a retired civil servant is still shocked that his 25-year-old medical student son in Dakar abandoned his studies to join the Islamic State. "He's a humanist. During his fourth year at university, he was part of a group that cared for the sick and their peers. For the last two years, he had been doing consultations at the mosque. With this behaviour, he is acting alone. I never thought he would do this,"He said he has since lost contact with his son after an argument over his decision to depart. ISIS propaganda and security sources confirm fighters from countries including Chad, Ghana, Senegal and Nigeria are already in Libya, where the group is consolidating its presence.

However, they represent the minority of between 3,000-6,000 ISIS fighters, with the lion share coming from North Africa and the Middle East. Some religious scholars say more needs to be done to guide students' readings of the Koran which they often rote-learn at religious schools.

"These are not people who grew up with Islam, with an Islamic education. Education is a process. You and I are muslims, and it's not like we just converted. We received a certain type of education, we were taught about love, peace, tolerance, affection, and being open. Where we come from, we were taught that everyone is the same, no matter what their ethnic background or race is," said Imam Cisse Djiguiba. With growing concern in the region about recruitment into ISIS and other militant groups, countries like Mauritania have closed several Koranic schools since January for security reasons. In Mali, where an Islamist insurgency is intensifying, some are calling for audits of mosques and NGOs.

The region is being torn by several conflicts with armed groups fighting to control vast territories for trafficking of all kinds; jihadists are still present in Mali's northern regions; terrorist groups close to Al Qaida threaten to kidnap people; and the sect of Boko Haram terrorises vast stretches of Nigeria, Niger, Chad and Cameroun.

Security forces, including the police, are therefore a key target group for the protection of rights in West Africa. Also, in a region with the lowest human development index and the highest illiteracy rates in the world human rights documentation and knowledge is crucial.

A. PEOPLE OF WEST AFRICA

Culturally, the people of the region belong for the most part to one of three major language families. In the northern and least-populous Saharan regions, Arabs and Imazighen (Berbers; singular Amazigh) of the Afro-Asiatic language family predominate. South of a line connecting the course of the Sénégal River, the Niger River, and the southern two-thirds of Nigeria, Niger-Congo languages are spoken. Along the middle course of the Niger River and around Lake Chad, Nilo-Saharan languages related to those of peoples farther east predominate. These peoples are divided into a very complex ethnic mosaic but may often be conveniently classified by their individual languages.



While in the past two decades, the region of WestAf rica has experienced various armedconflicts, a new s ecurity threat that has emerged is the growing threat of violence by radical Islamist groups. This phenome non has assumed prominence in the aftermath of the 11 September 2001 attacks on the United States of America. Against the background of a politically uns table region, impoverished by poverty, disease, conf licts, and a highrate of illiteracy, a foothold by radic al Islamist groups could destabilize the whole regio n. The recent escalation of violence perpetuated by r adical Islamists groups in the northernparts of Niger ia and other countries poses a grave threat to the regi on as Nigeria is hometo approximately half the popu lation of the region. Some measures that governmen ts,inconcert with other stakeholders can take include poverty alleviation measures, economicdevelopmen t of deprived areas, socio-political reforms, interfaith dialogue and consultations, prevent institutional ization of Sharia law, promotion of good governance and inter-

governmental cooperation. The region of West Afric a is bound by the Atlantic Ocean in the west and sou th, by the Sahara desert in the north, and in the east, by an imaginary line approximately along the present eastern boundary of Nigeria. It is difficult to define the northern and eastern limits of West Africa in geo graphical terms because of the non-

existence of natural geographical barriers marking of f this part of Africa from the rest of the continent. Tw o major movements influenced the West Africa regi on in pre-

colonial era: the dispersion of the Bantu people, whi ch led to the development of many kingdoms andem pires, and the expansion and consolidation of Islam. Between the 11th and 15th century, West Africa was a major trading region, exporting goods to Europe, I ndia, Malinke Sundiata to become renowned throug hout the Arab world for its wealth andlearning. The Mali Empire rose out of the regions' feuding kingdo ms. At its heights, the empire of Mali composed mos t of modern Mali, Senegal, and parts of Mauritania a ndGuinea (BBC Religious Compilation on Africa n. d.). The Mali Empire was a multi-

ethnic state with various religious and culturalgroup s. Muslims played a prominent role in the courts as counselors and advisors. Whilethe empire's founder , Sundiata Keita, was not himself a Muslim, many Malian kingsbecame Muslims. The most famous of them was Mansa Musa. He made Islam the statereli gion and in 1324 went on pilgrimage from Mali to Mecca (Hill 2009). A hundredyears later, the kingdo m fell into decline and became the target of Tuareg r aids. By the 18th century, the northern part of West Africa was a patchwork of city-

states andkingdoms and further south, the Ashanti ki ngdom (in modern Ghana) rose topreeminence. Oth er prominent kingdoms were the kingdoms of Daho mey, Songhai, and Tekur. During this period, traditio nal religion played an important role in the lives of t hepeople of West Africa. Although there were differ

ent varieties of traditional religious practices, almost all these religions had common characteristics; a be lief in the existence of one God above a host of other lesser gods, a belief in ancestral spirits, the idea of sa crifice to induce divine protection and the need to un dergo the rites of passage from childhood to adultho od (BBC Religious Compilation on Africa, .).

B. RELIGIONS IN WEST AFRICA

In the aftermath of the 11 September 2001 attack, th ere appears to be a rise inreligious conflicts in parts of West Africa, most notably in Nigeria. This confli ct appearsto revolve around the perceived rise of rad ical Islam that was born out of theglobalization of A 1 Qaida. Whether or not Islam, and more specifically radical Islam isbecoming more prevalent in the regi on is the main focus of this research. Islam is difficul t to define or generalize. In one sense, it denotes a re ligion, asystem of beliefs and worship, and in other, the civilization that grew up and flourishedunder the aegis of that religion. Islam therefore denotes more than fourteen centuries ofhistory, a billion and a thir d people, a religion and a cultural tradition of enorm ousdiversity (Lewis 2003). Islam is a monotheistic f aith regarded as revealed through Muhammad as the Holy Prophet of Allah (Oxford Dictionary Eleventh Edition). The Holy Prophet Muhammad, who was b orn in Mecca in about 570AD, is credited with theor igin of Islam. The Arabic word "Islam" is derived fr om the Arabic word "AlSalaam" which means peace . The root word of Islam is "alsilm" which means "s ubmission" or "surrender." It is understood to mean "submission to Allah" (Orlich n.d.). There are differ ent sects and grouping of Islam such as the Wahhabi sm, Sufism, and Salafism. Wahhabism is a conservat ive Sunni Islamic sect based on the teachings of Muh ammad ibn18th century scholar from what is today known asSaudi Arabia, who advocated to purge Isla m of what he considered innovations in Islam. Wahh abism is the dominant form of Islam in Saudi Arabia . Wahhabism has developed considerable influence i n the Muslim world through the funding of mosques , schools andother means from Persian Gulf oil weal th. The primary doctrine of Wahhabi is Tawhid, or th e uniqueness and unity of God (Glasse 2001). The pr

incipal tenet of Salafism is that Islam was perfect an d complete during thedays of Muhammad and his S ahaba (prominent companions of Muhammed), but t hatundesirable innovations have been added over th e later centuries due to materialist and cultural influe nces. Salafism seeks to revive a practice of Islam tha t more closely resembles the religion during the time of Muhammad (Hoebink 2007). Sufism is a mystifie d version of Islam. Sufism is a science whose object ive is thereparation of the heart and turning it away f rom all else but God (Zarruq 2008). SeveralSufi sect s, such as the Mourides and Tijani in Senegal, follo w the tenets of Islam asinterpreted by those sects' fo unding prophets. Arab traders, and the Berbers of No rth Africa, brought Islam to West Africathrough the northern part of Africa. The Berbers converted to Isl am as far back as the 7thcentury and through their c ommercial transactions and influence on northerners , wereable to spread Islam quickly among inhabitant s of the region. In West Africa, large citieslike Timb uktu, Goa and Djenne, had large Berber and Arab p opulations and with themcame Islam from the Midd le East. On the east coast of Africa, a new culture ca me aboutfrom the mixture of Arab traders and Afric ans living together. City States like Zanzibarand Kil wa were a testament of the greatness of the two cult ures building together andsharing knowledge. There is evidence that many rulersconverted to Islam not becausethey wanted to be Muslims but rather for ec onomic and political reasons. Islam continued to spr ead with its trade links to the Arab world, convertin g many West Africans who sawIslam to be lucrative because of its economic prospects (Kalagenesis 200 9). In West Africa, great kings like Mansa Musa of th e Mali Empire, who made the Hajj to Mecca, on his r eturn from the trip, brought many famous Islamic sc holars from Cairo to build new schools and mosques in Timbuktu. These Islamic scholars later beganto d emand strict interpretation of Islamic law as the Mu slim population grew largerMansa Musa's pilgrimag e projected the Mali Empire's enormous wealth and potential, which further attracted many Muslim trade rs and scholars. Local leaders took keeninterest in th e Islamic legal system and Islamic theology. Timbuk

tu became a center ofIslamic learning and civilizatio n and established Sankore University, the first Musli mUniversity in West Africa (Doi 2006). Many majo r towns became the principal focus ofIslam and relat ions were established with the Arab world in the Mi ddle East. The varioustrade routes between West Africa and the North made places like Gao, Timbuktu, Sijilmasa, Taghaza, Borneo in northern Nigeria and Hausa land very important (Hill2009).

The British occupation of Egypt in 1882 strengthene d the rise of anti-British andanti

Western sentiments, particularly among Islamic sch olars, which gave rise to PanIslamism. Over the ye ars, this British occupation led to the formation of v arious militantIslamists groups such as the Muslim Brotherhood, which fought against British colonialr ule. These groups soon spread throughout Egypt, Su dan, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Palestine and North Afr ica (Servold n.d., 46)Throughout the nineteenth cent ury and in the beginning of the twentieth century, Su fis stood at the forefront of the Jihad against Europe ans in all parts of Africa. TheLibyan, Omar alMukht ar, led the struggle against the Italian occupation; th e SomaliSayyid Muhammad Abdullah Hassan led th e struggle against the British, Italians and Ethiopians ; and other less known Islamic Sufi scholars, such as those who took part in the Maji Maji rebellion again st the Germans in Tanzania (Terdman 2007). Gradua lly, this militant form of Islam penetrated both inlan d and southwardthrough the activism of major chari smatic figures that inspired intense resistance agains tEuropean domination. These activities sowed the s eeds of resistance against the colonial powers and lo cal leaders that supported them. This process of Isla mization in Africa didnot cease after the colonial pe riod and continues even today with the result that so meAfrican Muslims now carry on a tradition that ha s had a long history in certain areas of subSaharan A frica. Christianity finally came to West Africa with t he arrival of the Portuguese and Dutch in the 15th ce ntury. Although there were previous attempts to intr oduce thereligion, these attempts did not yield any p ositive results. The indigenous peoplehowever, cont inued to indulge in their own traditional religious pr

actices until the 19thcentury when Christian mission s to Africa increased because of antislavery crusade s and the interest of Europeans in colonizing Africa. In areas where people had already converted to Isla m, however, Christianity had little success (BBC Re ligious Compilationon Africa n.d.). Christianity cam e as an agent of change to West Africa in that it brou ght newopportunities to some and destabilized the p ower base of others. In the Gold Coast, present day Ghana, Christianity culminated in a series of battles and wars between the Ashanti kingdom and the colo nialists. These Christian missions brought education ,literacy and slave trade to the shores of West Africa . Although the practice of slavery hadoccurred all o ver the world for many years, this was the first time that so many people from one continent had been tra nsported to another against their will. Spread of the Christian religion, at this point, was minimal and li mited to the coastal regions (BBCReligious Compil ation in Africa n.d.).

Radical Islam may be described as a group of Musli ms with extremist views whowant to bring about fu ndamental change. It has normally been associated with the MiddleEast, South East Asia and parts of N orth Africa. Radical Islam has been associated withI slam largely because of various interpretations of th e Qu'ran by many people to achieve groups or indivi dual objectives. Radical Islam is commonly promot ed through extremeacts of violence and terror such a s that promoted by Osama bin Laden and Al Qaida.I slamic fundamentalism is a conservative religious m ovement that seeks a return toIslamic values and Isla mic law (Sharia) in the face of Western modernism, which it seesas corrupt and atheistic (Britannica Co ncise Dictionary). Radical Islam is thereforedifferen t from Islamic fundamentalism in the sense that whil e radical Islam seeks to bringabout change in a radic al way, Islamic fundamentalists aim to return to the f undamentalsof Islam in the face of what they percei ves as corrupt and atheistic tendencies of Western culture.

It is pertinent to note, however, that both radical Isla mists and Islamicfundamentalists seek to bring abou t change. The former seeks radical changes usually b

yviolent means and the latter by a return to the fund amentals of Islam. Many people haveassociated radi cal Islamists with fundamentalism perhaps because of the difficulty indifferentiating one from another. Fundamentalists seeking change or a return to thefu ndamentals of Islam may not necessarily be associat ed with violence. It is fair to state,however, that fund amentalists with extremist Islamic views who seek to bring aboutradical changes through violence can be e referred to as radical Islamists.

Radical Islam can be traced as far back as the 13th C entury when the armies of Islam waged war, destroy ed and completely conquered Persia, which at that ti me hadbeen exhausted by many previous wars. The defeat of Islam and the advent of the Industrial Revo lution turned Europe and Western economies into d eveloped nations (Demant 2006, 26, 39)

Over time, as some analysts have argued, the collap se of the Soviet Union and theend of the Cold War r esulted in the gradual rise of radical Islam. During t his period, radical Islam metamorphosed into a comp lex ideology manifesting itself in various forms such as kidnapping and terrorist attacks. Islam, which sta rted in the early days of Muhammad, has often been t urned into a radical ideology by some and has been used several times by various Muslim sects to propa gate their own group interests (Pipes 2000). While m any followers of the religion would regard radical Is lam as a religion, others may want to visualize it as a n ideology, just like fascism, communism and Marxism.

In West Africa, characteristics of radical Islam can be traced to around the 18thcentury, when Uthman D an Fodio, a Fulani scholar, led a major jihad 1802. With the helpof a large Fulani cavalry and Hausa pe asants, Fodio overthrew the region's Hausa rulersand replaced them with Fulani emirs. The movement led to centralization of power in the Muslim community, education reforms, and transformations of law. Uthman Dan Fodioalso sparked a literary revival with a production of religious work that included Arabictexts and vernacular written in Arabic script. His he irscontinued the legacy of literary production and education reform (Hill 2009) During that period of Briti

sh colonial rule, the Muslim north perceived itself a sseparate from the Christian and animist south. The British modified indigenous practicesas necessary to assure the continuation of colonial rule, but they did not fundamentally disturb Islamic practices in the n orth. They permitted the application of Sharia in so measpects of criminal law and removed some of Sh aria's more stringent penalties such asstoning, amputation, and death (Falola 1999).

In northern Nigeria, the most conflictridden cities in cluded Kano and Kaduna, where there were substant ial Christian communities. In addition to Sunni activ ism forSharia, violenceprone Shia sects also emerge d. These sects have been involved inclashes in Kano , Kaduna, and Zaria, where they were most promine nt and referred to Avatollah Ruhollah Khomeini as t heir source of inspiration for revolutionary leadershi p(Falola 1999). Many believed that this attempt to i mpose Islam in all spheres of lifeagainst African tra ditional religion marked the beginning of radical Isla m in the region. In recent times, the idea of rejecting modernity in favor of a return to the sacredpast with its varied and ramified history has given rise to a nu mber of movements. Themost important of these un doubtedly has been that known, after its founder, as Wahhabism (Lewis 2004). Additionally, the phenom enon of radical Islam, which calls on Muslims to use violence, has become a common feature in some We st African countries.

The 11 September 2001 attacks awoke the world to a sophisticated form of Islamic terror whose network was worldwide with far reaching consequences. The attacks also ushered in an era of a new wave of violent attacks by radical Islamist groups. Recentefforts by Al Qaida leadership to extend its bases into Africa and events in recent past insome countries, especially Nigeria, suggest a growing trend of radical extremist activities in West Africa. In the most recent violence in 2010, a group calling itself the *BokoHaram* unleashed mayhem on the population in some north ern states of Nigeria resulting in the deaths of about 700 people (Bauchi 2009). Other radical groups have alleged, among other issues, that Christians have encroached on their farms and grazing landsdriving t

heir communities into economic deprivation and poverty. This brings to fore thesettlers and indigenes problem, which alludes to the role of economic resour cemisallocation as a potential source of religious conflict (Paden 2010).

A range of socioeconomic and psychological factors have been associated withthose who have chosen to radicalize to include the bored and frustrated, succe ssfulcollege students, the unemployed, the second a nd third generation, new immigrants, pettycriminals, and prison parolees. Invariably, these individuals se ek other likemindedindividuals and often form a loo seknit group, cluster, or network. Commonalities a mongthese individuals' age, residence, schools, inte rests, personality, and ethnicity are criticalin determining who becomes a member of a particular group or cluster (Sageman 2004).

Islam represents about 50 percent of the population in the West Africa regiongainst approximately 40 pe rcent for Christians. Social changes in West Africa h avegiven rise not only to a complexity of religious e xpressions but also diversity and divergence of theol ogical expression. There are fundamentally different views of Islamwithin the religion. There is the Ahm adiyya, which has a theology quite different from the patterns of worship in orthodox Islam. There are va riant groupings referred to as Sufisects, such as the Tijanaiyya, Qadriyya and the Badirriya (Assimeng 2) 010). While these various movements have difference es, which sometimes resulted in conflicts in the regi on, they have generally co-existed in relative peace. The process of radicalization, often described by ma ny authors, seeks to attributecertain factors to the ca use of radical Islam. These factors include large Mu slimpopulations, poverty and unemployment, illitera cy and marginalization amongst others. Aclose look at the region however indicates other underlying fac tors. For instance, Gambiaand Guinea, with signific ant numbers of Muslims and deplorable poverty lev els, have notrecorded significant activities of radical Islamists. Senegal, a country with about 95percent Muslims has also not experienced violent activities of radical Islam. Nigeria onthe other hand, with abo ut a 60 percent population of Muslims, has been ray

aged byviolence by radical Islamist groups. There ar e indications therefore that other factorspeculiar to t he region may be responsible for the radicalization o f the Islam.Arab Berbers introduced Islam in West Africa from North Africa through trading.

Islam coexisted with West African traditional religi on until the era of colonial rule when radical Islamist groups began resistance against to what they percei ved to be oppressionand an affront to Islam.

In the post independence era, when militant Islamic struggles continued in otherparts of the world, West Africa remained relatively peaceful and devoid of a ny serious religious conflict until the latter parts of th e 20th century. The 11 September 2001 attackon the United States ushered in an era of increased violenc e by Muslim radicals in certain countries in the regio n especially in Nigeria. The interest and presence of radical groupsin Africa assumes an alarming dimens ion in the wake of political violence in Nigeria andr eflects West Africa as a viable region for the growth of radical Islam. This hasmanifested itself through s elfradicalized sympathizers of global Jihad, which f ollow thestrategy and doctrines of AlQaeda and its s upportive clerics and scholars. In the recentpast, the world has witnessed a growing presence of newly fo rmed radical jihadi groupsin Nigeria and other parts of West Africa using violentconflicts to radicalize A fricanIslamic elements, recruiting and bringing the African arena under the Jihadi "globalumbrella" (Te rdman 2007).

Although many studies have pointed to certain unde rlying factors, which facilitatethe process of radicali zation of Islam, West Africa does not fully lend itsel f to suchinterpretations, prompting an analysis of ot her factors. This thesis was developed with astudy of the phenomenon of radical Islam, using Nigeria and Cote d'Ivoire as casestudies.

c. SUSCEPTIBILITY OF AFRICAN MUSLIM S TOWARDS RADICAL ISLAM

Charlotte and Frederick Quinn, in their book, *Pride, Faith, and Fear: Islam inSubSaharan Africa*, says I slam in West Africa is referred to as local Islam whe re thereare no institutions of higher Islamic learning, ordained clergy or international body toregulate doc

trine. Without any specific educational or doctrinal s tandards beyondadherence to the five basic tenets of Islam, there is considerable variety among thepreac hing and practices of individual mosques. Islam ove rlaid with traditional local beliefsystems usually has provided its own explanation about life and death an d how to dealwith reverses and good fortunes. Elem ents of folk belief, rituals and music were retained an d given an Islamic overlay. Thus, the blending of Isl amic with preIslamic cultures was a distinction of Isl am in West Africa to which the prayers of Sufi mystics and thelanguage of the Quran was added.

They observed that despite the leaderless nature of I slam in the region, Sufismand several brotherhoods have expanded throughout the region beyond nation al borders. For instance, Senegal's Tijaniya has a lar ge following in northern Nigeria and the Mouridina c lerics follow peripatetic Wolof traders throughout West Africa, Europe, and North Africa.

According to Hussein D. Hassan, in a Congressional Research Service Paper, Islam In Africa, African M uslims, like other Muslims in Asia, the Middle East and therest of the world, seem to be locked into an i ntense struggle regarding the future directionof Isla m. At the core of the struggle are questions about the way in which Muslimsshould practice their faith. T his scholar asserts that the majority seems to prefer t o remainon the moderate, tolerant course that Islam has historically followed. However, are latively smal 1, but growing group would like to establish a stricte r form of the religion, one that informs and controls a ll aspects of society. He noted that although the maj ority of Muslims in Africa are Sunni, the complexity of Islam in Africa is revealed in thevarious schools of thought, traditions, and voices that constantly con tend for dominancein many African countries. Afric an Islam is not static and is constantly being reshape d byprevalent social, economic, and political conditi on. Hassan states that African Islam has both local a nd global dimensions. On the local level, experts ass ert that African Muslims operate with considerable autonomy anddo not have an international organizat ion that regulates their religious practices. This facta counts for the differences and varieties in Islamic p

ractices throughout the Africancontinent. On the glo bal level, however, African Muslims belong to the U mma, theworldwide Islamic community, and follow global issues and current events that affect the Muslim world with keen interest. With globalization and new initiatives in information technology, African M uslims have developed and maintained close connections with the wider Muslim world.

Lamin O. Sanneh in his book, The Crown and the Tu rban: Muslims and the WestAfrican Pluralism, revea ls that when Islam first appeared in West Africa, peo ple wereintrigued, curious, puzzled perhaps bewilde red but seldom hostile. The warm receptionreceived by Muslims enabled them to flourish and the indige nous people found theirusefulness as important trad ers and Arab importers of a written language. In tim e, Muslim commercial enclaves grew in size and infl uence, attracting converts from the local population. As time elapsed, converts practiced the old African t raditional beliefsand at the same time drawing on th eir new found faith, which became inconsistent with earlier custom and usage. As knowledge increased, t he practice of Islam became lax. Thebook reveals th at persistent visits to West Africa by prominent Isla mic scholars raised thegeneral standard of observan ce by bequeathing requisite symbols of Islam, like th eQur'an, a legal document, a turban, prayer rug, so me prayer beads, a silk gown and otheritems. It furth er notes that Muslims took a favorable view of Afric a's religious openness, found affinity in certain pract ices and exploited gaps in local techniques and reso urcesand asserted the primacy of Muslim scripture, l aw and practice. This dynamic historicaltheme of af finity and challenge, accommodation and primacy h elped establish Islam inWest Africa.

Not everyone, however, alludes to the growing influ ence of radical Islam in thesubregion. In his book, *T he Dark Sahara*, Jeremy Keenan, is of the opinion t hat citingthe need to combat the growth of Al Qaida in Africa is a deception by the U.S. toestablish bases in the region and pursue its multiple imperial object ives in the name ofsecurity.

John Paden, in an article, "Is Nigeria a Hotbed of Isl amic Extremism," disagrees with the assertion that ra

dical Islam is on the rise in Nigeria. He notes that rel igiousviolence in Nigeria must be understood as part of a complicated political context in acountry striving to maintain national unity amongst an ethnically diverse population splitevenly between Christians and Muslims. Paden states that Nigeria is not a hotbed ofIslamic extremism but one of Islamic moderation. He observes that while much of WestAfrica's Islam is influenced by Sufism, the Sokoto Caliphate has maintaineddecidedlyWest African version of Islam, less dependent on external Arab influences.

D. WHAT MAKES RADICAL ISLAM APPEA LING TO WEST AFRICA MUSLIMS

The question of why extremist groups continue to b e able to attract followersperpetually seems irrationa l especially in the face of social stigmatization, emot ionalseparation from one's family, professional risks , and police harassment. Yet recruitingefforts nevert heless continue to draw members into the fold. Davi d Mc Cormack, in hisOccasional Paper Series titled, The African Vortex: Islamism in SubSaharan Africa notes that while the historical complexities that allo wed the penetration of radical Islamare many, greate st consideration is generally given to two potential s ources. First is themixture of dire political, social an d economic conditions that arose from the inability of African states to forge representative governments and strong economies following the collapse of colo nialism in the 1950s and 1960s. He observes that wh ile Africa has takendesirable steps in recent years a way from its economic and political backwardness, t hesehave not been enough to discourage its large M uslim populations from the Islamist lure, as Africa c ontinues to be plagued by unaccountable and corrup t governments and underdeveloped economies. Iron ically, he notes that, where democratic transformatio n istaking place, Islamists have been afforded greate r freedom to implement their program, while someti mes painful but important economic reforms have cr eated dislocation used as ammunition by Islamists. Undoubtedly, poverty, disenfranchisement and gene ralsocietal disorder play a role in making African M uslims susceptible to Islamistinfluences.

In his book, The Crisis of Islam, Holy War and Unho

ly Terror, Bernard Lewisstates that almost the entire Muslim world is affected by poverty and tyranny. B oth of these problems are attributed to American eco nomic dominance and exploitation, thinly disguised as globalization. He notes that the increasingly wret ched economic situation inmost of the Muslim worl d and subSaharan Africa, compared not only with th e West butalso with the rapidly rising economies of East Asia, fuels these frustrations. To buttressthe poi nt further, he observed that the World Bank reported that in the 1990s, the combined gross national produ cts of Jordan, Syria and Lebanon, three of Israel'sne ighbors, were considerably smaller than that of Israe 1 alone. He also cited World Bankreports in 2000, w hich stated that the average annual income in the Mu slim countriesfrom Morocco to Bangladesh was onl y half of the world average. He concludes that these problems, coupled with the combination of low pro ductivity and high birth rate results in a growing pop ulation of unemployed, uneducated and frustrated y oung men

E. SOCIO-POLITICAL IMBALANCE

Sociopolitical imbalance and its associated problem s of poverty and deprivationremain a significant part of the north. Many people feel discriminated agains t on account of their ethnicity, religion, and region. I n the northwest of Nigeria, only 25 percent of pregna nt women use clinics compared to 85 percent in the southeast and maternalmortality rates in the northea st are 939 percent higher than in the southeast. Additionally, core poverty in the northeast is twice as high in the north west of the country than in the southeast. There is also discriminatory allocation of government projects and grants and differential access to key sectors of the economy, such as oil and gas and tele communications (Langer, Mustapha, and Stewart 20 07, 9).

Despite the large number of Ibos in Lagos and Kano, Hausas in Shagamu and Yorubas in Funtua, their ab sence from modern governance structures in their re spectiveareas of abode is a testimony of the extent of their marginalization. In many parts of the country, such as Plateau, Nassarawa, and Taraba states, some Nigerians are labeledindigenes and others, settlers.

The former claim to be the natives and owners of the landwhile all others are regarded as tenants. In daily existence, the indigenes contend that allopportunities must go to them to the exclusion of the settlers. These exclusionary politicssow the seeds of violence. Muslims, who are marginalized even for reasons as idereligion, become peeved and seek to do same in areas perceived to be dominated by the (Langer, Mustapha, and Stewart 2007,).

The state of Sokoto, for instance, is relatively peacef ul as compared to otherstates. There is however, the existence of inequality between indigenes an settlers withdiscriminatory practices based on religion and ethnic divides. There is evidence of discriminatory p ractices in terms of job opportunities, conditions of work, educational opportunities, and basic amenities are not equality distributed. Settler communities lac kaccess roads and good schools. The nonindigenes of Sokoto are only allowed to vote, butnot to be vote d for. Except for token appointments, political appoi ntments are reserved for the sons of the soil. The non indigenes are employed on contract and pay highers chool fees than the indigenes (Langer, Mustapha, an d Stewart 2007). A region with a high fertility rate co upled with lack of employment opportunities invaria bly would result in a large number of disgruntled un employed youth who thenbecome disillusioned with life. If a group is excluded from political power and marginalized economically, group consciousness ari se and disparate subgroups will bebrought together under a common identity to create a more effective r esistance (Steward2009). These groups of people ar e the willing tools of any radical Islamic group or lea derwho seeks to recruit them. Religious leaders, Mus lim and Christian, did not distance themselves from therhetoric of the politicians. The politicization of th e religious sphere and injection of political rhetoric with faith was one of the underlying factors of the cr isis. For instance, as their followers were subject to p olice pestering and brutality, Muslim leaders did not hesitate to make pronouncements against this state o f affairs. Their political militancy and partisanship ca me to the surface when Imam Boubabar Fofana, the spokesperson of the Superior Council of Imams of C

ote d'Ivoire, stated that Muslims have no qualmgivi ng their support to Alassane Ouattara, if the commu nity deems him the bestcandidate. He said Muslims should not be blamed for their support for Ouattara, becauseit is as legitimate as the support the Baule pe ople give to Bedie, and the support that theBete peo ple give to Gbagbo as well. The repression that the Muslims underwent duringthe elections and Gbagbo 's utterances forced the Supreme Leader of the Musl ims to statethat the regime of the current President was built by the blood of the martyrs of Islam(Konat e 2004). Just like the Muslim congregations, the Chri stian church was steeped in the political strife, with c hurch leaders choosing sides openly. Archbishop Be rnard Agre of the St. Paul Cathedral of the Plateau, Abidjan, was cited for being instrumental in thereje ction of the candidacy of Mr. Ouattara. The bishops of Cote d'Ivoire, during aconference convened in Se ptember 2000, in Yamoussoukro, a few days before thepresidential elections of October 2000, released a common statement where they publiclyopposed Ou attara's candidacy. They argued that in the opinion o f the people of Coted'Ivoire, some candidates raise more problems than they solve. For the sake of thec ountry, therefore, which is dear to all Ivorian, be it n aturalized or native, they ask theseleaders to be brav e and wise enough to reconsider their stand and pull out of the political race (Konate 2004).

These developments condoned the stratification of t he citizens of the country byreferring to them as Ivor ians by origin and Ivorians by adoption, which was t he rhetoricof the politicians. Under normal circumst ances, wisdom and religious values, virtues ofpeace and tolerance, respect of the other, the condemnatio n of injustice in whatever formit presents itself, and the separation of religion from the State as enshrine d by the Constitution of Cote d'Ivoire would have re strained religious leaders from assuming acentral rol e in the political arena (Konate 2004). From their pr onouncements, leaders of these two religious institut ions were polarized along political lines, and religio n thusbecame a determinant factor in the politicalTh e conflict also led to emergence of militant progovernment youthorganizations, the Young Patriots.

While the Young Patriots initially were able tomobilize a wide crosssection of the population in Abidjan, they soon developed intourban militia forces under the control of the government, consisting exclusively of peoplefrom the southwestern part of the country, the home region of President Laurent Gbagbo(Stewart 2009, 23). The Young Patriots were used sever al times to conduct violent demonstrations against ot her ethnic groups. The writer witnessed several instances wherethe government propagated demonstrations by the Young Patriots even against the United Nations forces.

F. PROMOTION OF INTER-FAITH DIALOGUE

Religion and ethnicity are part of the political proces s in most West Africancountries. Both Nigerians an d Ivorian politics are split along ethnic and religious lines. The government of Nigeria should organize re gular interfaith dialogue between Christians and Mu slims to promote peaceful coexistence of both religi ons in the society. The Nigerian government should i ntensify its use of the Christian Association of Niger iato dialogue with credible Muslim organizations to sensitize their members to refrain fromviolence and resort to peaceful means of resolving differences. T he government shouldtransform the National Inter-Religious Council (NIREC) to a more communityen trenched institution with active branches in all the st ates and support judicial conflictmediation. The gove rnment of Cote d'Ivoire should foster interfaith dial ogue by regularmeetings of the Supreme Council of Muslims and the Conference of Archbishops. At the local levels, local leaders, senators, and mayors sho uld be empowered to involve localChristian and Mu slim leaders in peace building efforts. Additionally l ocal politicians and nongovernmental organizations should be encouraged by the Ivorian government tos ponsor and organize regular dialogue between repre sentatives of all the major ethnic groups. This should not take place after violence has broken out but mus t be a regulafeature of the local government authorit ies.

G. RESOLVE SETTLERS AND INDIGENES DISTINCTION

The settler and indigenes distinction in northern Nig

eria is manifested in Coted'Ivoire by the concept of *Ivoirité*. With a quarter of the population affected by the concept in Cote d'Ivoire, it is almost certain that civil strife will resurge if the issue of *Ivoirité* is not p roperly addressed. The government of Nigeriashould initiatea national process aimed at addressing the sett ler and indigene problem. This should bring together key leaders from all the settler and indigene communities to find anamicable settlement to the problem. The government should aim at a new land reform policy for the affected areas.

The government of Cote d'Ivoire should institute co nstitutional reforms aimed ataddressing the problem at the national level. This could be preceded by a na tionalreferendum to ascertain the level of support be fore taking the issue to the legislature.

The international community represented by the United Nations, United States, African Union, ECOWA S and other stakeholders like France and Burkina Fa so should support the government in establishing a new socio-

political climate based on equality, tolerance and mu tual respect for all parties in the Ivorian conflict. Cot e d'Ivoire shouldembrace a concept of universal citi zenship rights for all the citizenry.

H. CURTAIL EXTERNAL ISLAMIC INFLUENCE

The government should curtail external Islamic influences fromcountries such as Saudi Arabia, Pakista n and Iran. This can be achieved through themonitor ing of states' interaction with other nations by the federal government. Thefederal government should a lso explore diplomatic avenues to reduce interaction betweensuch countries and individual state The West Africa subregion in recent times has witnessed a number of radical Islamists activities, raising security concerns for a region already saddled by poverty, disease and conflicts. Some, like Keenan, see the increased awareness of radical activities in West Africa as a ploy by the U.S. and western allies to propagate it s imperial motives.

Keenan's views, for instance is contrary to those who believe that the activities of radicalIslamist groups have been prominent.

CONCLUSION

The government of Nigeria should set conditions for economic development ofpoor communities especially those in the northern parts of the countries. There e should be investment in infrastructure to improve social services, provision and access to basicamenities to all people irrespective of their ethnic or religious background. Governors should encourage trading be etween the northern states and other neighboring countries to increase trade and expand markets across the northern half of the country. In this regard, the governments should invest in the construction of rail and road networks linking the north and neighboring countries to facilitate economic development.

The government of Cote d'Ivoire should develop th e northern parts of the countryby building and exten ding water and electricity facilities. It should also pr ovide tax reliefto companies directly involved in eco nomic development in the northern parts of the count ry. Islam over the years has coexisted with traditiona l religion for a long time. Thedecline of Islamic influ ence, blamed on the West, gave rise to the birth of a n ideologycalled Islamism. This ideology has been g enerally characterized by violence, perpetuatedThe governments of Nigeria should improve local gover nance structures in the northern parts of the country. The federal government should be transparent espec iallyduring local and national elections. Governmen t officials should be held accountable to the people th rough by upholding the tenets of justice and equality , freedom, probity, and accountability. This would en sure the reduction in the levels of corruption by gov ernmentand public officials and thereby boost confi dence of the population in the government's ability t o administer its affairs. From the above analysis, soci opolitical imbalanceinfluencesthe ability ofindividu als and groups to resortto violence especiallywhen t hey groupunder the banner of religion.

REFERENCE LIST

Akindes, Francis .2004. *The roots of the military-political crises in Côte d'Ivoire*. Research Report no. 128. Uppsala: Nordic Africa Institute. Alao, Abiodu

n. *Islamic radicalization and violence in Nigeria*. Co untry Report.www.securityanddevelopment.org/pdf/ESRC%20Nigeria%20Overview.pdf.(accessed12A ugust201).

Aluaigba, T. Moses. 2009. Circumventing or superi mposing poverty on the Africanchild? The Almajiri syndrome in northern Nigeria. Childhood in Africa 1, no. 1:1924. www.afrchild.ohio.edu/CAJ/articles/AluaigbaCAJ2009.pdf (accessed 17November 2016 Alusine, Jalloh, and Toyin Falola. 2008. *The United States and West Africa: Interactions and relations*. New York: University of Rocheter Press.

Ambert AnneMarie, Patricia A. Adler, Peter Adler, and Daniel F. Detzner. 1995. Understanding and evaluating qualitative research. *Journal of marriage and the Family* 57, no. 4 (November): 879893. http://links.jstor.org/sici (accessed 12May 2016).

Armstrong, Karen. 2000. *Islam, a short history*. Ne w York: Random House Inc.

Assimeng, Max. 2016. *Religion and social change i n West Africa, an introduction to thesociology of reli gion*, 2nd ed. Accra, Ghana: Woeli Publishing Associated Press, 2009. Nigeria accused of ignoring sect warning before wave of killings. *The Guardian*. Ayla, Schbley. 2004. Religious terrorism, the media and international islamization terrorism: Justifying the unjustifiable. *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism* 27, no. 3:207233. http://www.informaworld.com/smpp/content (accessed 4 April 2016).

Ayodeji, Olukoju. 2001. NigeriaThe history of Nigeria by Toyin Falola. TheGreenwood Histories of the Modern Nations. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press. *T he Journal of African History* 42, no. 2 (2001): 307-Azinta, O. F. 2004. Terrorism and its impact on national security, Service Paper. NigeriaTactics Wing, I nfantry Centre and School, Jaji, Kaduna Army.

Bauchi, Ogbodo Patience, and Uduma Kalu. 2009. Nigeria: Why we hit Bauchi, Borno,says Boko Hara m. *Vanguard*. http://www.allafrica.com/stories/2009 07311070.html (accessed 22 July 2016).

BBC. 2016. The story of Africa: African history fro m the dawn of time. West Africankingdoms. http://w ww.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/specials/1624_story_of _Afria

_____. 2016. The story of Africa: African history fro m the dawn of time. Religion,http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/specials/1624_story_of_Africa (acces sed 12June 2016).

Berman, Eli, and Stepanyan Ara. 2004. *How many r adical Islamists? Indirect evidence from five countri es.* http://dss.ucsd.edu/~elib/funfert.pdf (accessed 8 August 2016).

Boudon, Laura E. 2002. *Cote d'Ivoire*. Selfdetermin ation Regional conflict profile.http://www.selfdetermine.irconline.org/overview/OVicoast.pdf (accesse d 20September 2016).

Britannica Concise Dictionary. http://www.britannica.com/ (accessed 9 April 2016).

Center for Inquiry. 2016. *Sharia, violence and Niger ia,* Institution for the Secularizationof Islamic Societ y. http://www.centerforinquiry.net/islam_in_the_world.(accessed 11 August 2016).

Chen, Daniel L. 2005. *Islamic resurgence and social violence during the Indonesianfinancial crisis*. In *In stitutions and Norms in Economic Development*. Edited by Mark Gradstein and Kai A. Konrad. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 2006.

CIA. 2016. World fact book, Africa: Nigeria. https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ni.html (accessed 4 August 2016).

Clinton, Hillary. Quotations of religious intolerance. *ReligiousIntolerance.org*.www.religiousintolerance .org/quot_intol.htm (accessed 7 July 2016).

Collier, Paul, and Nicholas Sambanis. 2001. *Unders tanding civil war, evidence and analysis*. Vol. 1 Afric a. Washington, DC: World Bank Publications.

Danfulani, Habila Urmar. *The Jos peace conference and the indigene/settler question inNigeria politics*, Draft Paper Presentation, ASC, Leiden, University of Jos, Nigeria. http://www.ascleiden.nl/Pdf/paper-Danfulani.pdf (accessed 18 August2016).

Deegan, Heather. 1995. Contemporary Islamic influence in sub-

Saharan Africa: Analternative to development agen da, the Middle East environment, Cambridge: StMal o Press. http://www.islamfortoday.com/subsahara.ht m (accessed 18 August 2016).

Demant, Peter. 2006. Islam and Islamism: Dilemma

of the Muslim world. Westport, CT:Praeger Department of State. 2016. Country profile. http://www.state.gov/p/af/index.htm.(accessed 5 September 2016).

Diamond, Jay Larry. 1988. *Class, ethnicity and dem ocracy in Nigeria, the failure of theFirst Republic*. New York: Syracuse University Press.

Dickson, David. 2005. Political Islam in Sub Sahara n Africa: The need for new researchand diplomatic agenda. US Institute of Peace, Special Report.

http://www.usip.org/pubs/special reports/sr140.html (accessed 26 August 2016).

Doi I. Rahaman. 1979. The planting and diffusion of Islam in AfricaSouth of the Sahara, Al Ittihad. http://www.everymuslim.net/index2.php?option=com_content&do_pdf=1&id=52 (accessed 15 November 2016).

_____. 2006. Spread of Islam in West Africa: The em pire of Ghana. http://www.islamreligion.com/article s/304/viewall/ (accessed 8 August 2016).

Egwu, S. 1992. Agrarian question and rural ethnic c onflicts in Nigeria. A paper presented the CODES RIA conference, in Africa, Nairobi, Kenya.

Ejembi, Clara. 2003. *Strategic assessment of social sector activities in northern Nigeria*, USAID Northern Assessment Report. http://pdf.usaid.org/pdf_docs/PNACT131.pdf (accessed 5 May 2016).

Encarta Dictionary. 2009. http://www.filebuzz.com/findsoftware/Free_Full_Version_Of_Encarta_Dictionary_2009/1.html (accessed 30 November 2016). Esposito, John L., and Joanne J. Myers. 2002. *Unhol y war: Terror in the name of Islam*.www.cceia.org/resources.transcript.

Flint, John. 1960. The build up of nationalism in col onial Nigeria.-

Nigeria: Backgroundto nationalism. By James S. Co leman. Berkeley: University of California Press. *The Journal of African History* (1960): 180-

181. http://journals.cambridge.org/action/displayAb stract; jsessionid=460DFC7C5265AA941E578492E FBCC2A6.tomcat1?fromPage=online&aid=322988 8 (accessed 30 November 2016).

The Free Dictionary. http://www.thefreedictionary.c om (accessed 30 August 2016).

Fumni, Olonisakin. 2008. *Militancy and violence in West Africa: Local factors and external influences in trends and dynamics*. Glasse, Cyril, 2001. *The new e ncyclopedia of Islam*. 3rd ed. Rowan and Littlefield. http://www.questia.com/PM.qst?a=o&se=gglsc&d=5001924365 (accessed 11August 2016).

Global Security.org, 2009. Nigeria christian/muslim conflict.Military.http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/world/war/nigeria-1.htm (accessed23June 2016 Glover, John. 2007. *Sufism and jihad in modern Sen egal: The Mourid order*. New York:The University of Rochester Press.

Guro, Almas. 2007. The political implications of economic adjustment. Crisis, reformand political breakdown of Cote d'Ivoire. Perspectives on Cote d'Ivoire: BetweenPolitical breakdown and Post conflict pe ace. Discussion Paper 39. NordiskaAfrikainstitutet, Uppsala.

Hassan, Hussein D. 2008. Congressional Research Service (CRS) Report, *Islam in Africa*.http://www.a ssets.opencrs.com/rpts/RS22873_20080509.pdf (ac cessed 13 August2016).

Hill, Jonathan N. C. 2016. Sufism in northern Nigeri a: Force for counter-

radicalization?Strategic Studies Institute, US Army War College, Carlisle.

Hill, Margaret. 2009. *The spread of Islam in West Africa*, Stanford Program on International Cross-

Cultural Education (SPICE) Digest, Freeman Spogli Institutes for International Affairs. http://www.spice.stanford.edu.Hinds, Marian. *Illiteracy and violence*: *Confusion about cause and effect*.http://www.readingstore.com/index.html (accessed 16 November 20 16).

Hoebink, Michel. 2007. *Salafism's simple message appeals to Muslim youth*. Frost's Meditations. http://www.martinfrost.ws/htmlfiles/oct2007/salafism_appeals.html(accessed 10 November 2016).

Hogdson,M G.S. 2004. *Theorder of assassins*. http://www.encyclopedia.com (accessed30 August 2016). Jane's Information Group. 2009. Nigeria Mujahidee n (Nigeria), Group-Africa-Active.

Jane's World Insurgency and Terrorism. http://www.janes.com/articles/Janes-World-Insurgency-and-

Terrorism/Nigerian-Mujahideen-Nigeria.html John, I. A., C. A. Nkanta, A. Z. Muhammed, and A. D. Pinto. 2007. Gun violence inNigeria: A focus on ethnoreligious conflict in Kano. *Journal of Public H ealthPolicy*. http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17955007 (accessed 7 May 2016).

Journal of International Affairs 6, no. 2 (June-July 2001): 1.

Juergensmeyer, Mark. 2001. *Terror in the mind of G od: The global rise of religiousviolence*. London: Un iversity of California Press.

Kalagenesis, Blog. http://www.blacktalkradio.ning.com (accessed 16 July 2016).

Keenan, Jeremy. 2009. *The dark Sahara: America's war on terror in Africa*. New York:Pluto Press.

Konate, Siendou. 2004. The politics of identity and violence in Cote d'Ivoire. *West AfricaReview* no. 5. http://www.westafricareview.com/issue5/konate.

Lamin, Sanneh O. 1997. *The crown and the turban! Muslims and West African pluralism*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Langer, Armin, R. Abdul Mustapha, and Frances St ewart. 2007. *Horizontal inequalitiesin Nigeria, Gha na and Cote d'Ivoire: Issues and policies*. CRISE W orking PaperNo 70. University of Oxford, Departme nt of International Development, QueenElizabeth H ouse.

Marshal, Paul. 2004. Outside encouragement: Shari a rules Nigeria-

with the help offoreign Islamists. http://www.hudson.org/index.cfm? fuseaction=publication_details& id = 4687 (accessed 17 August 2016).

McCormack, David. 2005. Occassional Papers Serie s, Number 4, *An African vortex:Islamism in Sub Sah aran Africa*. Washington DC: The Center for Securi ty Policy.http://www.centerforsecuritypolicy.org (ac cessed 23 April 2016).

McLeod, Douglas M., and Frank Hairgrove. 2008. S upport for the caliphate and radicalmobilization. www.start.umd.edu/start/.../20080131_caliphate_and_r adicalization.pdf (accessed 29 August 2016).

Meredith, Martin. 2006. The state of Africa-

A history of fifty years of independence. United King dom: The Free Press

PROCEEDINGS ICTESS UNISRI 2017 ISSN: 2549-094X

Vol 1, Number 1, January 2017