

Lesson 16

Approaches to Security

Learning Objectives:

At the end of the lesson, participants will be able to:

- Distinguish between different types of violent threats
- Identify how different analytical approaches to understanding violence lead to different choices of how to address violence.
- Identify and compare the analysis and theories of change of counterterrorism, counterinsurgency, countering violent extremism, peacekeeping, stabilisation and conflict prevention/peacebuilding approaches to violent threats

There are many approaches to violence. This lesson describes the rationale or “strategic narrative” underlying different approaches. This can help civilians understand military and police approaches to security and it can help military, police and civilian political leaders understand conflict prevention and peacebuilding options advocated by civil society to support human security.

1. Terminology

- *International and interstate violence* occurs as states wage war against each other. This type of violence is increasingly rare in today’s world. The majority of violent conflicts today are between states and non-state actors. The terminology for this violence is controversial. What looks like “terrorism” to one group may seem like a justified use of military force to another group.
- An *armed rebellion* against a state usually entails the use of *guerrilla* warfare and a significant military asymmetry between the state and the armed opposition groups. Civil society tends to use the more neutral term of “armed rebellion.” States tend to call these movements “insurgencies.”
- *Terrorism* is a tactic. Terrorism can be used by non-state armed groups or by states themselves. Terrorism has four characteristics: (1) the threat or use of violence; (2) a political objective used to justify violence; (3) the intention to spread fear by dramatic violent acts; (4) the intentional targeting of civilians. All groups may refer people that use terrorism as “terrorists.” But the definition of this term is

subjective. Some would view the actions of a repressive state or state violence and call that state a “terrorist.” Others only use the term terrorist to refer to non-state armed groups.

- *Violent Extremism* is a term that refers to the beliefs and actions of people who support or use violence to achieve ideological, religious or political goals. The term also refer to a contagious, global movement.

Terminology for referring to the groups in conflict is also relative. Different stakeholders use different terms. Military forces use the language of “enemy” and “adversary” to identify those groups that threaten the security or interests of the state. Police may use the language of “criminals.” Civil society rarely uses these terms: for them, and those involved in peace operations, the enemy is the conflict itself. Human rights groups may refer to state and non-state armed groups as “perpetrators” if they use violence against civilians. Other civil society groups use the term “stakeholders” to recognise that all groups that use violence have a set of motivations or a “stake” in some issue.

Military Term	Police Term	Human Rights Term	Civil Society Term
Enemy or Adversary	Criminal	Perpetrator	Stakeholder

Civil society is often equally critical of state and non-state groups that use violence and intentionally or unintentionally kill civilians in their attempts to kill their “enemies.” But calling a group an “enemy” makes it difficult to solve problems through diplomacy or negotiation. Two countries may be in conflict or even using armed force to threaten each other on one issue while collaborating and working together to address a shared problem. The term “enemy” becomes problematic when shifting dynamics create a situation where a group labelled as an enemy becomes an ally to fight against another enemy.

2. Different Conflict Assessment, Theories of Change, and Approaches to Civilians

This lesson compares and contrasts different approaches to violence according to their analysis, their theories of change, and their approach to civilians. Module 4 introduced the concepts of conflict assessment. Different analysis of the causes and dynamics of conflict and violence lead to different theories of change, and this in turn leads to different approaches to security. The diagram below illustrates the three main categories for comparison of different approaches to security. Different approaches to security – including counterterrorism, counterinsurgency, peacekeeping, conflict prevention and peacebuilding are first described, and then they are compared and contrasted according to their different analysis, theory of change and approach to civilians.

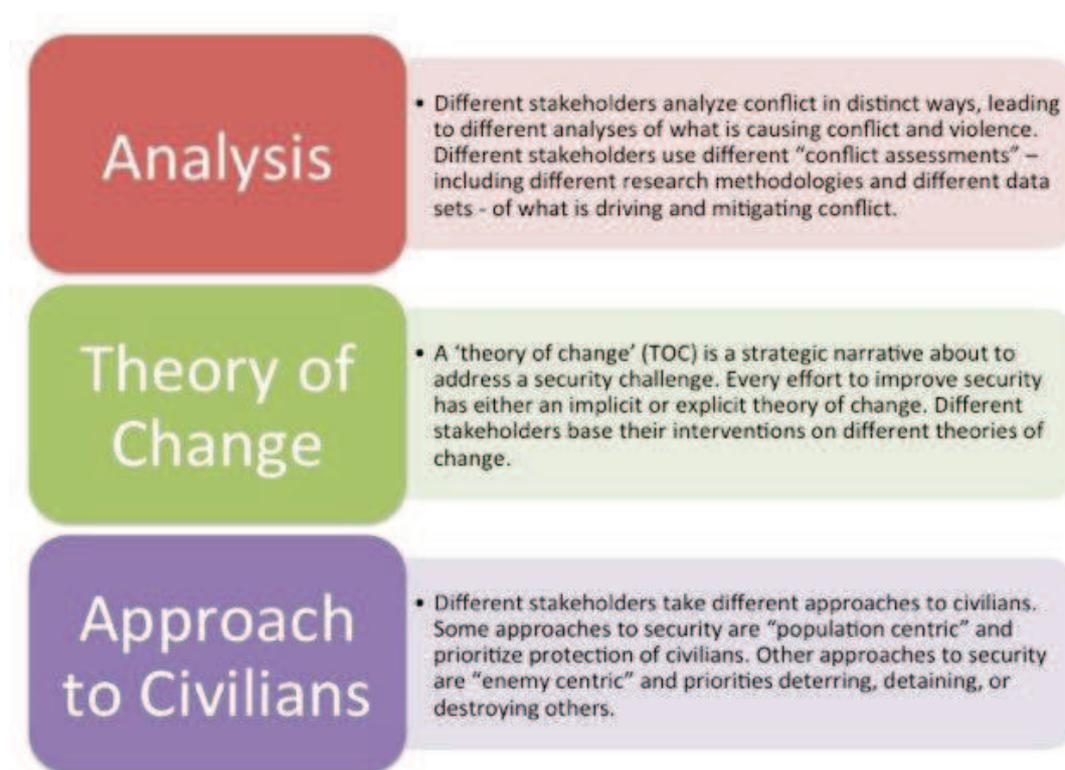


Figure 40: Categories for Comparing Approaches to Security

3. Counterterrorism

There is no common or agreed upon definition of counterterrorism. Each organisation and country defines counterterrorism somewhat differently. In general, counterterrorism strategies aim to prevent and respond to violent acts by non-state armed groups that threaten national interests.

The table below provides a strategic narrative to explain the rationale behind counterterrorism. In counterterrorism, the causes of terrorism stem from specific individuals or groups that use violence to attack state interests. There is often a second analysis that terrorism takes place where there is a lack of state capacity to maintain a monopoly of force.

	Analysis	Theory of Change and Approach to Civilians
Counter-terrorism (CT)	<p>Terrorism is caused by specific individuals or groups that use violence to attack state interests.</p> <p>Terrorism results from a lack of state capacity to maintain a monopoly of force.</p>	<p>Prevent and stop terrorism through these efforts:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Deter, destroy, and detain individuals and groups that use terror</i> • <i>Increase the state's capacity to prepare, prevent, protect, and respond to terrorism, including train and equip state security forces in other countries</i> • <i>Pacify and prevent civil society from supporting terrorist groups</i>

Figure 41: Counterterrorism Strategic Narrative

The analysis of the causes of terrorism often frames the motivations of these groups as “evil.” Counterterrorism rarely refers to structural root causes or drivers of violence. The assumption is that the best way to prevent and respond to this type of violence is to deter, destroy or detain specific individuals or groups that are seen as threats. Counterterrorism is “threats-based” and is usually enemy-centric. States use “enemy targeting” through drone strikes to deter, destroy and isolate groups that use terror. Counterterrorism can also include pre-emptive attacks including capturing, killing, or disabling suspected terrorists before they can mount an attack.

Governments may also take a range of preventive measures to prepare for terrorism. This can include “hardening targets” by putting out barriers to obstruct attacks and developing security protocols in order to protect building, installations or other infrastructure against a possible attack. A “national response plan” outlines the roles for different government agencies and lays out a command and control hierarchy for use in the midst of a crisis. Police, fire, and emergency medical response organisations ready themselves through training and roleplaying to mitigate the effects of terrorist attacks. The military, police, and intelligence agencies may form special tactical units that prepare to handle a terrorist attack. Some countries emphasise law enforcement and “intelligence-led policing;” using criminal justice system to address terrorism.

4. Counterinsurgency

Like counterterrorism, there is no shared definition of counterinsurgency. In general, counterinsurgency balances enemy centric and population centric approaches, meaning there are both efforts to “deter, destroy, detain” insurgent groups as well as efforts to listen to, understand, protect, and win the support of local populations.

In counterinsurgency, the causes of violence stem from two factors: groups that use violence to attack state interests and a tension between the state-society relationship requiring a need for the state to “win the hearts and minds” of the population. COIN assumes that insurgency threatens fragile states and cause instability. COIN holds to an analysis that insurgents capitalise on societal problems, such as gaps in governance. When governments lack capacity to govern, non-state armed groups can recruit new members from the discontented local population. Counter-insurgency attempts to close the gaps by filling in for key governance activities to marginalise insurgents politically, socially, and economically.

There is overlap between counterterrorism and counterinsurgency. Counterinsurgency (COIN) has a long history. Early attempts at counterinsurgency used violent repression against civilian populations and looked similar to counterterrorism. Today, most counterinsurgency also emphasises non-military efforts. While counterterrorism draws mostly on intelligence, police and military forces, counterinsurgency involves a wider range of civilian efforts “to simultaneously defeat and contain insurgency and address its root causes by improving the state-society relationship.

	Analysis	Theory of Change and Approach to Civilians
Counter-insurgency (COIN)	<p>Non-state armed groups use violence to attack state interests.</p> <p>Insurgency is caused by a problem in the state-society relationship requiring a need for the state to “win the hearts and minds” of the population.</p>	<p>Defeat and contain insurgents through these efforts:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Destroy, isolate, and undermine insurgents and their narratives</i> • <i>Win over the hearts and minds of the population to deny popular support for the insurgency, including</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Limiting civilian casualties</i> resulting from COIN attacks while protecting civilians from insurgent attacks ○ <i>Increasing government legitimacy</i> via governance and development efforts

Figure 42: Counterinsurgency Strategic Narrative

There is also tension between security personnel who advocate counterterrorism with those who advocate counterinsurgency. Counterterrorism is sometimes posed as the approach that is “tough” and “ruthless” with the enemy while counterinsurgency is seen as more complex and using a mix of hard power (violent force) and soft power (diplomacy and development) to address the underlying structural conditions. Counterinsurgency can include house-to-house searches to locate insurgents or forced relocation of local populations in an attempt to “drain the swamp” or the communities who may be intentionally or unintentionally hosting insurgents. Counterinsurgency may attempt to win over the hearts and minds of the population through civilian assistance projects. This type of effort aims to both help to bring legitimacy to the government while undermining the insurgents’ relationship with local populations. Counterinsurgency often includes propaganda and psychological operations that attempt to undermine the mind-set of the insurgents and local populations who may support them.

Since most insurgent groups have inferior military training and weapons, the goal of the insurgency is not to defeat a state-based military force. Instead, insurgents attempt to inflict small but regular casualties that aim to slowly demoralise the military and their civilian supporters. Counterinsurgency experts assert that political, social, and economic programmes are usually more valuable than conventional military operations in addressing the root causes of the conflict and undermining the insurgency. Counterinsurgency guidance warns about the unintended impacts of the use of violence against insurgents.

Sometimes, the more force is used, the less effective it is. Any use of force produces many effects, not all of which can be foreseen. The more force applied, the greater the chance of collateral damage and mistakes. Using substantial force also increases the opportunity for insurgent propaganda to portray lethal military activities as brutal. In contrast, using force precisely and discriminately strengthens the rule of law that needs to be established (FM 3-24: 1-27).⁶⁸

This creates a tension, as the military is asked to achieve a mission without relying on the use of force, which is the military’s primary capability. Stabilisation developed from these tensions implicit in counterinsurgency.

5. Countering Violent Extremism

Countering violent extremism (CVE) is a relatively new concept. It is defined in a variety of ways. Many countries are beginning CVE programmes as a new approach to security. In countering violent extremism, the causes of violent extremism are seen as individual choices of individuals or groups to join others to use violence to achieve political and/or religious goals.

Most frequently, CVE programmes aim to support local communities to resist recruitment into terrorist organisations and assume civil society has an important role in preventing recruitment into groups that use violence. CVE programs use a theory of change that emphasises addressing the “pull” and “push” factors encouraging individuals and groups to commit acts of violent extremism.

	Analysis	Theory of Change and Approach to Civilians
Countering Violent Extremism	Individuals and groups use violence to achieve political and/or religious goals	<p>Improve human security through these efforts.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Address the “Pull” factors</i> that pull individuals to join extremist groups. These include creating jobs, developing positive narratives or “counter-narratives” and supporting the voices of religious moderation • <i>Address the “Push” factors</i> that push individuals to join extremist groups. These include addressing political, economic, and social disenfranchisement, government corruption, and addressing economic hardships, such as climate-change induced droughts

Figure 43: CVE Strategic Narrative

Stabilisation

There is no agreed upon definition of stabilisation, and different countries implement a stabilisation approach in distinct ways. Stabilisation draws on an analysis that security requires supporting the capacity of a government that is unable or unwilling to provide services to the population or is not viewed as legitimate by the public. Key examples of stabilisation approaches to security include Iraq, Afghanistan and Libya. Stabilisation approaches to security are often foreign-led with emphasis on externally defined concepts of law and order. States decide to deploy a stabilisation force and accompanying civilian programme to another country when their own national interests are at stake.

	Analysis	Theory of Change and Approach to Civilians
Stabilisation	<p>Non-state armed groups attack and destabilise states.</p> <p>Violence is caused by a problem in the state-society relationship requiring a need to build state capacity.</p>	<p>Improve human security through these efforts.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>State-building</i> to improve state capacity for security, rule of law, sustainable economy, good governance, social well-being • <i>Whole of government approach</i> to coordinate civilian government agencies and the military.

Figure 44: Stabilisation Strategic Narrative

In stabilisation, the causes of conflict and violence stem from non-state armed groups that attack states and a problem in the state-society relationship requiring a need to build state capacity. Stabilisation emphasises a “state building” to improve state capacity for security, rule of law, sustainable economies, good governance, and social well-being. Security sector reform, addressed in Lesson 18, is often part of a stabilisation mission to improve state capacity. Stabilisation also emphasises the use of a “whole of government” approach that coordinates government civilians and military forces. Some stabilisation missions explicitly took on the human security paradigm, as it created a strategic narrative for linking military, police, and civilian approaches to security. The basic idea of stabilisation is that foreign capacity and leadership will transition to local “host nation” leadership. Stabilisation literature tends to emphasise the need for “local ownership” though there is little evidence of successful practice in this area.

Some states seem to view stabilisation missions as an addition to their counterinsurgency or counterterrorism approaches. These states tend to devote significantly greater resources for military forces than civilian capacities. Other states lead stabilisation with greater emphasis on civilian capacity. The stabilisation approach to security has brought new attention to the challenges of civil-military-police coordination. However, as outlined in Lesson 9 on Approaches to Multi-Stakeholder Coordination, states using a stabilisation approach tend to focus more attention to coordinating internally than with external stakeholders.

6. Peacekeeping and Peace Operations

The UN and regional organisations like the African Union use peacekeeping and peace operations as their primary approach to security. UN Peacekeeping is traditionally guided by three basic principles: consent

of the parties; impartiality; and non-use of force except in self-defence and defence of the mandate. Unlike military forces from just one country, peacekeeping forces bring added legitimacy as they represent a consensus between multiple countries that are willing to share the financial burden of peacekeeping and are able to sustain peacekeeping and police forces in an on-going multidimensional mission.

Since the genocides in Rwanda and Srebrenica, which happened despite the presence of peacekeeping troops, there has been a tendency to make the mandates of peacekeeping missions more robust and comprehensive, sometimes including the use of offensive force. The 2015 UN High-Level Independent Panel on United Nations Peace Operations (aka the HIPPO Report) identified four areas of focus and principles for future peace operations. These include the following:

Primacy of politics: Political solutions are necessary to achieve sustainable peace and human security. Military and technical engagements are not sufficient to achieve security.

Responsive operations: A full spectrum of responses and approaches to security should be tailored to each, specific context. The term “peace operations” reflects this idea.

Stronger partnerships: No one stakeholder can achieve security on their own. Coordination among diverse stakeholders are necessary.

Field-focused and people-centred: Local ownership is necessary and protection of civilians is critical to the success of all approaches to security.

In peacekeeping and peace operations, the causes of conflict and violence stem from political conflicts that often result from problems in the state-society relationship. Peacekeeping and peace operations emphasise a full spectrum of options for responding these challenges, with a special emphasis on conflict prevention and peacebuilding.

	Analysis	Theory of Change and Approach to Civilians
Peace Operations	Violence results from political conflicts.	Improve human security through these efforts. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Peacekeeping</i> to offer protection of civilians and to provide time for a political solution to the conflict • <i>Conflict prevention and peacebuilding</i> to develop political, economic, and structural solutions to the conflict • <i>Whole of society partnerships</i> to coordinate stakeholders to support human security

Figure 45: Peace Operations Strategic Narrative

7. Local Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding

Local conflict prevention and peacebuilding approaches to security are distinct from and pre-date the more recent attention to large-scale peace operations. Due to perceived failure or slowness of state-based institutions to prevent violence, universities, religious organisations, NGOs and other civil society organisations developed new approaches to negotiation, mediation, dialogue and reconciliation. Local conflict prevention and peacebuilding efforts began in the 1980s in parts of Africa, Asia and Latin America in places where the state itself was perpetrating atrocities.⁶⁹ Civil society accumulated an impressive track record of helping to end wars in countries like South Africa, Liberia, and Guatemala leading to functional states with new democratic constitutions. Elsewhere, civil society prevented outbreaks of violence at the subnational level through careful Track II diplomacy and mediation and developed their own strategies for the protection of civilians in the midst of armed conflict.

Conflict prevention refers to activities that take place before violence begins and that aim to stop violence from breaking out. Once significant violence begins, managing and transforming conflict becomes more difficult.⁷⁰ Conflict prevention is a component of the larger field of peacebuilding. Peacebuilding refers to a range of activities at any stage of conflict to prevent, mitigate, or transform conflict.

Conflict prevention and peacebuilding have three components:

- *Address the immediate drivers of violence* (e.g. operational efforts such as preventive and crisis diplomacy, intergroup dialogue, media strategies, economic sanctions, observer missions or rapid response forces).
- *Transform the structural root causes of violence* (e.g. economic and political reforms, developing infrastructures to support peace and manage conflict, justice and security sector reform and development.)
- *Support mitigating factors that foster resilient responses to conflict* (e.g. supporting voices of moderate religious actors, women, youth, and other civil society actors) and recognise that cycles of violence can cause widespread societal trauma that decrease a community’s resilience.

Conflict prevention and peacebuilding make a distinction between direct violence and structural violence.

- *Direct violence* refers to physical harm committed by one person or group against another. *Structural violence* refers to the disabilities, disparities, and even deaths that result from systems, institutions, or policies that foster economic, social, political, educational and other disparities between groups. These disparities create grievances. Insurgents exploit these grievances to gain public support.
- Several of the approaches to security covered in this lesson acknowledge that the behaviour of states impacts levels of violence. International and interstate violence occurs when the economic, political, or security policies of one country challenge the interests of other countries.

Human security is the goal of conflict prevention and peacebuilding. Unlike other approaches to security, local conflict prevention and peacebuilding efforts take a long-term approach. Local people take the initiative to respond to security challenges where they live. There is no “exit strategy” since local people will continue working to improve human security are not confined by mandates or project timelines.

Peacebuilding asserts that the relationship between levels of state structural violence and terrorist or insurgent groups is often cyclical. Non-state armed groups often thrive where they are seen as an alternative to government corruption and repression. Non-state armed groups typically develop within states that have two characteristics:

- States that are elite-captured are more prone to corruption, discriminate against certain groups, and are less citizen-oriented.
- States that do not observe human rights, particularly those that use military or police force to repress political dissent.

	Analysis	Theory of Change and Approach to Civilians
Local conflict prevention and peacebuilding	Violence results from a cycle state that are elite-captured and do not observe human rights, and non-state armed groups that challenge the state.	Improve human security through these efforts. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Improve governance by building a citizen-oriented state and improving the state-society relationship</i> • <i>Empower civil society to partner with the state and hold the state to account</i> • <i>Use dialogue, negotiation, and mediation to develop political, economic, and structural solutions to the conflict and to improve relationships between social groups</i> • <i>Whole of society partnerships to coordinate stakeholders to support human security</i>

Figure 46: Local Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding Strategic Narrative

8. Comparing the Analysis and Theories of Change

Analysis of the causes of conflict influences the strategies for addressing violence. Some approaches to security use violence to deter, destroy or defend against an adversary. A reliance primarily on the use of military and police force assumes that individuals and groups that use violence “only understand the language of violence.” They use the metaphor of “fighting fire with fire.” Individuals and groups that use violence are themselves seen as the problem and response must thus target and eliminate them.

Some approaches to security take a wider view of security challenges. The “lenses” they use to view the conflict not only include the individuals and groups that use violence but also the wider context where these groups are able to recruit and mobilise others. Non-state armed groups are seen as the “smoke” or symptoms and not the “fire” or root causes of the problems. State characteristics such as specific international or national security, political and economic policies that exclude or repress certain groups push individuals and groups away from using political methods to address their grievances and make it more likely these groups will use violent methods. Global trends such as economic hardship, climate change shocks, availability of weapons, and religious rifts are also seen as root causes contributing to conflict. Instead of “fighting fire with fire” these other approaches advocate “fighting fire with water” or a combination of “fighting fire with both water and fire.”

While counterterrorism, counterinsurgency, CVE, stabilisation, and peacekeeping focus on operational and tactical approaches to disable immediate threats, conflict prevention and peacebuilding – both in peace operations and local initiatives – focus on changing the broader context. Advocates of counterterrorism and counterinsurgency approaches view the underlying problem as the state’s lack of a monopoly of force. Advocates of stabilisation view the problem as the lack of state capacity to provide for society. Advocates of conflict prevention and peacebuilding perceive the underlying problem as the state’s lack of legitimacy and poor state-society relations.

9. Comparing the State-Society Relationship

Lesson 5 outlined the history of relationships between state security forces and society. In many countries, the state has historically viewed civil society as a threat or as passive wards of state security strategies. The spectrum of approaches to security in this lesson also relate to the state-society relationships.

Most of the approaches to security acknowledge a growing need to put more emphasis on protection of civilians and empowering civil society. Leaders in counterinsurgency and peacekeeping are shifting both training and doctrine to focus on protection of civilians. New approaches to stabilisation, CVE, conflict prevention and peacebuilding approaches are placing more emphasis on *empowering and supporting civil society* to support human security. This *Handbook* is a result of the new attention to the roles of civil society and the need to improve coordination between security forces and civil society in any of these approaches to security.

Counterterrorism approaches often use the term “*pacification*” to describe their efforts to keep civil society from supporting non-state armed groups. Current counterterrorism laws and policies often intentionally “pacify” or unintentionally have the effect of preventing civil society from its efforts to address humanitarian needs, protect civilians, and use conflict prevention and peacebuilding methods. In many countries, it is illegal for civil society to offer negotiation training to non-state armed groups or to use mediation between state and non-state armed groups to achieve a political solution to conflicts. Given that most peace agreements come about because of civil society-led mediation efforts, counterterrorism legislation inhibits potential political solutions.

The Madrid Agenda arising from the 2005 Madrid Summit on Democracy and Terrorism emphasised the need to treat terrorism as criminal acts to be handled through existing systems of law enforcement and with full respect for human rights and the rule of law. This human rights-based approach to counterterrorism emphasises (1) taking effective measures to make impunity impossible either for acts of terrorism or for the abuse of human rights in counter-terrorism measures. (2) the incorporation of human rights laws in all anti-terrorism programmes and policies of national governments as well as international bodies.”

10. Comparing the effectiveness of approaches to violence

There is little research that compares and contrasts the different approaches to security outlined in this lesson. Researchers within each approach tend to cite research that supports the effectiveness of the approach they are

currently taking. Organisations tend to see problems as being caused by factors that their organisation can fix. This is true for military, police and civil society.

The Human Security Report⁷¹ documents that overall, violence is decreasing and the main reason is the coordinated efforts to support peacebuilding to address root causes. Yet a number of researchers document that violent extremism is on the rise, despite over a decade of investing primarily in counterterrorism and counterinsurgency. More than 90% of all terrorist attacks occur in countries with gross human rights violations.⁷²

The RAND Corporation, a military-affiliated think tank in the US has produced some reports that compare the effectiveness of different approaches to “How Terrorist Groups End.”⁷³ As illustrated here, research affirms that most terrorist groups terminate via political processes and policing, not by military force or victory. More research is needed to compare and contrast the effectiveness of different approaches to security and to compare the financial costs and the intended and unintended impacts of each approach to security.

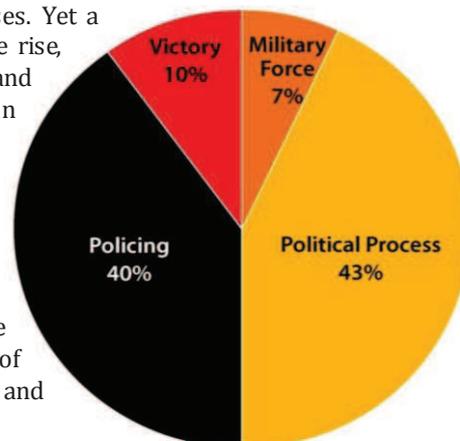


Figure 47: Seth G. Jones and Martin C. Libicki, *How Terrorist Groups End* (Santa Monica, Calif.: RAND Corp. 2008), 19.

11. Coordination between different approaches to security

Ideally, all approaches to security would complement each other; however, these approaches can conflict with and undermine each other in practice. There are internal conflicts within and between countries about which approach to security is the best. Some civilian leaders favour a hard, military response to punish and kill their adversaries. Other civilian leaders advocate greater emphasis on addressing political conflicts and structural root causes. Likewise some military and police leaders insist there is “no military solution” or “no police solution” to problems of terrorism, criminal violence such as drug and arms trafficking, or non-state armed groups. They assert the need to develop “non-kinetic” and nonlethal approaches to address governance, economic, and social aspects driving violent conflict. Other military leaders demand a harsh military response to deter and punish those who use violence, whether other states or non-state groups.

There are also tensions between governments and civil society over which approach to security is best. Civil-military-coordination on security is essential precisely because different stakeholders hold a different analysis of the problem, use different strategies to pursue security, and take a different stance on the role of civil society. Civil-military-police dialogue and consultation is essential to improve understanding of these differences, and to identify areas of common ground where diverse stakeholders can coordinate their efforts.

REVIEW

This lesson compared and contrasted different approach to security including the different analysis each approach uses to understand the causes of violence and the different theories of change in the interventions each approach uses to attempt to prevent or stop violence.

Citation

⁶⁸ *Counterinsurgency: US Army Field Manual 3-24*, (Washington DC: US Department of the Army, 2006), 1-27.

⁶⁹ See for example the Nairobi Peace Initiative-Africa, ACCORD in South Africa, the West African Network for Peacebuilding and various civil society peacebuilding initiatives that began in parts of Asia and Latin America in the 1980s.

⁷⁰ Michael S. Lund, “Conflict Prevention: Theory in Pursuit of Policy and Practice,” *The Sage Handbook of Conflict Resolution*. Eds Jacob Bercovitch, Victor Kremenyuk and I William Zartman. (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2009).

⁷¹ *Human Security Report 2014*, (Vancouver, British Columbia: Human Security Research Report, 2014). See: <http://www.hsrgroup.org> accessed October 2015.

⁷² *Global Terrorism Index 2014*, (New York, New York: Institute for Economics and Peace, 2014).

⁷³ Seth G. Jones and Martin C. Libicki, *How Terrorist Groups End* (Santa Monica, Calif.: RAND Corp. 2008), 19.

Lesson 16

Learning Exercises

Anchor

10 minutes

Anchor the content in this lesson with an open question. Participants can share in groups of two or three people their response to this question:

- In your experience, what is the most effective approach or strategy to improve security in your country?
- What experiences shape this belief? How do you judge whether an approach to security works or does not work?

Add

20 minutes

Present the PowerPoint slides or ask participants to discuss the lesson readings in a small group.

Apply

25 minutes

The goal of this exercise is to compare and contrast different approaches to violence drawing on the different analyses and theories of change outlined in this lesson. Create small mixed groups of 5-6 people with one person from each scenario stakeholder team. Within each group, each person can make the case for one or more of the approaches to security they would advocate for use in the scenario. You can use your own personal opinion and/or guess what the stakeholder role you are playing would advocate.

- What are the dangers of other approaches?
- What are the benefits of the approach you advocate?

After 20 minutes of dialogue in mixed groups, the facilitator asks the entire group for their observations.

- What did you notice about the different ways people talked about the causes of violence?
- What did you notice about the different theories of change people used?

See the “Scenario-based Learning” section in the [Handbook on Human Security: A Civil-Military-Police Curriculum](#) for explanation of the scenarios and teams.

Away

5 minutes

To end the lesson, the trainer can ask participants to divide into groups of 2 or 3 people. Participants can share with each other their reflections on this lesson.

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