



Conflict, Peace Building and Rural Development

PROCEEDINGS

of the

25th ANNUAL NATIONAL
Congress

of the

RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION OF NIGERIA (RuSAN)

held at

Federal University, Oye – Ekiti, Ekiti State

Between

9 and 12 October 2016



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GENERAL INFORMATION

The Nigerian Rural Sociological Association (NRSA) was formed on January 7, 1981. Its inaugural congress was held from November 7 to 11, 1983 with the theme “Agriculture and Social Development in Nigeria”.

NRSA is a broad-based professional association with membership cutting across universities, agricultural research institutes and other agricultural/rural development agencies both from the public and private sectors. Membership is open to all professionals who are interested in advancing the development of the rural folks.

This volume is the proceeding of the 25th Annual National Congress held at Federal University,, Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti state between 9 and 16 October 2016. The plenary papers contained herein were peer reviewed before publication.

The association gratefully acknowledges the moral and financial contributions of many organisations and individuals to the success of the congress.

SN	Title	Content Authors	Pages
Invited papers			
1	Contemporary issues in peace and conflict in Nigeria: Implications for rural development	Ifeanyi, P. Onyeonoru	5 – 9
2	Global perspectives on concepts, theories and dynamics of conflict management and peace building: Developing frameworks for sustainable development strategies	Kunle Ajayi	10 – 27
3	Presidential Address to FUYOYE 2016 RuSAN AGM and Stewardship Report	Ladele, A. A.	28 – 29
Presented papers			
4	Agricultural development and value chain strategies in Nigeria	Obademi, O. A. and Ivande, P. D.	30 – 36
5	Assessments of farmers-herdsmen conflicts resource sustainability in Oyo state, Nigeria	Owolade, E. O., Adamu, O. C. and Lawal-Adebowale, A. O.	37 – 41
6	Benefits of cooperative membership among arable crop farmers in Oyo State	Sadiq, M. M., Oyelere, G. O. and Adisa, J. O.	42 – 46
7	Econological causes of industrial conflict in Institute of Agricultural Research and Training (IARandT), Ibadan, Oyo state, Nigeria	Bolarinwa, K. K. and Oyeyinka, R. A.	47 – 55
8	Effects of conflict on livelihood activities of settled pastoral Fulani women in Ogun state, Nigeria	Owolade, E. O., Alonge, G. O. and Anoh, K. U.	56 – 59
9	Effects of the adoption of Sampea 7 cowpea recommended production practices on income and level of living among farmers in Sabon Gari local government area in Kaduna state, Nigeria	Dutse, F., Dodo, E. Y., Saddiq, N. M. and Yakubu, L. L.	60 – 65
10	Farmers' perception of recycled agro by-products for swine production: A panacea for ameliorating environmental conflict in Enugu state, Nigeria	Orjinta, K. K., Okwoche V. A. and Ejembi S. A.	66 – 71
11	Intra-household conflict among rural dwellers in Anaocha local government area of Anambra state	Ifeanyi-obi, C. C., Abuta, C. M., Familusi, L. C., Adesope, O. M. and Agumagu, A. C.	72 – 76

SN	Title	Authors	Pages
12	Peace and conflict: The psychological perspective to peace building	Olatunji, O. A. and Omole O. E.	77 – 81
13	Perceived causes and mitigation strategies of conflict between employees and management of Cocoa Research Institute of Nigeria	Ayansina, S. O., Adeogun, O. S., Oyeyinka, R. A. and Oyekunle, O.	82 – 90
14	Principles and strategies for peaceful and successful cooperative businesses in developing economies	Mkpado, M., Ifejirika C. A. and Alabi, O.	91 – 94
15	Roles of social welfare institutions in rehabilitation of delinquents and less privileged children in Port Harcourt, Rivers state, Nigeria	Jaja, G. M., Albert, C. O. and Isife, B. I.	95 – 101

CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN PEACE AND CONFLICT IN NIGERIA: IMPLICATIONS FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Prof. Ifeanyi P. Onyeonoru,

Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria

Keynote paper presentation at the formal opening ceremony of the 25th Annual Congress of the Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria (RuSAN) held on 10th October, 2016 at Federal University, Oye Ekiti, Ekiti state, Nigeria

INTRODUCTION

Peace and conflict perspective identifies and analyzes violent and non-violent behaviours as well as the structural mechanisms related to conflicts with a view to understanding the processes associated with a more desirable human condition. The negative and positive peace framework is the most widely used in contemporary time. Negative peace refers to the absence of direct violence while positive peace connotes the absence of indirect and structural violence (Galtung 1996; Moseley 2003; Chigbu 2009).

Peace is notoriously elusive and does not necessarily mean the absence of conflict. It is generally considered as a contractual relationship that implies mutual recognition and agreement. From its broad perspective, peace refers to a social condition that ensures justice, wellbeing and social stability through formal and informal institutions, practices, and norms (Miller, 2005). The concept of sustainable peace is also noteworthy reflecting a situation in which state actors and non-state actors do not pursue interests that will profit them meanwhile and disrupt the stable state of peace in a near future.

Conflict is conceptualized to mean 'to clash', 'to engage in a fight', 'confrontation' incompatible means or ends. Conflict may be either manifest, recognizable through actions or behaviours, or latent, in which case it remains dormant for some time, as incompatibilities are unarticulated or are built into systems or such institutional arrangements as governments, corporations, or even civil society.

Rural development in this paper refers to the process of improving the quality of life and socio-economic well-being of people living in relatively remote areas often through such activities as the exploitation of land-intensive natural resources such as agriculture and forestry.

Rural development aims at finding the ways to improve rural lives with participation of the rural people themselves so as to meet the required need of the rural area. This is because the outsiders may not understand the setting, culture, language and other things prevalent in the local area. As such, general people themselves have to participate in their sustainable rural development.

Actors primarily associated with conflict or criminality may easily transition to associate with the other; the incentives drawing individuals into both

often overlapping fields have much in common (USAID 2015). This paper is organized around three thematic sections. The first is introductory and deals with conceptual issues. The second is a brief conceptual framework the third section is an overview of global peace. The fourth deals with peace and conflict issues in Nigeria. The fifth looks at the implications for rural development while the final section is the concluding section,

Theoretical framework

The open system perspective is applied in the discussions in this paper. The systems approach aims at addressing the question of "the best way to organize" any (social) system – be it a workplace or a nation state. This relates to the issue of structuring, functioning and the performance of organizations as well as the behaviour of individuals and groups that participate in production. The basic objective in this regard is to systematically discover generalizations that are applicable to organizations - to enhance their understanding and development.

The concept of a system wherever applied conveys the notion of a structure involving complementary relationships between the parts of an entity - their inter-relatedness, inter-connectedness and inter-dependence. Implicit in the meaning of a "system" is that of structured or patterned relationships between a number of elements, which enable the system form a related whole. A system, therefore, portrays an entity made up of interconnected and interrelated parts - in such a way that each part in some way relate to other parts and affect the system as a whole.

An implication of the above is that the effectiveness of a system and the degree of its sustenance as well as its survival depend largely on the level of compatibility of the parts with themselves - in their relationship to the whole. This further implies that there must exist a minimal degree of integration between the parts if there must be harmony.

Considering its general applicability, Marshal (1994) rightly observed that the system concept is applicable to any scientific enquiry where a researcher is concerned with understanding the pattern or structure between any set of parts or units.

The open system perspective is an improvement on the system perspective. It

emphasizes input-output conversion procedures and processes within the system through environmental exchanges - linkages between the output of the system and the environmental sub-systems within which the system operates. Hence, the decisions and policies of governments, the globalization process and conflicts elsewhere will affect social organization in the rural areas and its development (Ritzer 2014).

Overview of global peace

In the light of the open system theoretical framework applied to this study, there is a need to take a look at the global peace scenario with a view to understanding its effects on the Nigerian situation. The world's steady shift away from peace and into conflict inflicted a \$14.3tn (£9.21tn) cost on the global economy in 2015, as nations ramped up military spending while many people lost their jobs, according to Global Peace Index (GPI) 2016. War in Syria, Iraq and Afghanistan wreaked havoc on economies and pushed the level of global peace to its lowest ebb since 2008. Providing services for refugees and internally displaced people was one of the biggest costs ensuing violence (IEP 2016).

In 2014, the world spent 13.4% of its gross domestic product (GDP) on costs associated with violence. This is an equivalence of the total economic output of Brazil, Canada, France, Germany, Spain and the United Kingdom. More than \$3tn was dispensed into military spending. The following information from Global Peace Index 2016 and 2017 further gives indication of the state of contemporary global peace.

- The world became 2.44% less peaceful from 2008 to 2015 (7year period).
- Deaths from terrorism increased by 286% from 4,866 to 32,715 within the same period.
- Battle deaths increased over five folds from 19, 601 to 101,406 within the period
- Battle deaths are at a 25 year high, and the number of refugees is at a sixty years high.
- The economic impact of violence on the global economy in 2016 was \$14.3 trillion in purchasing power parity (PPP) terms. This figure is equivalent to 12.6 per cent of the world's economic activity (gross world product), or \$1,953 for every person, and is three per cent lower than in 2015. The sum is approximately 11 times the size of global foreign direct investment.
- The two indicators with the largest yearly deterioration were the impact of terrorism and political instability. Deaths from terrorism increased by 80 per cent between

2015 and 2016 with only 69 countries not recording a terrorist incident.

- The ten-year trend in peacefulness finds that global peacefulness has deteriorated by 2.14 per cent since 2008, with 52 per cent of GPI countries recording a deterioration, while 48 per cent improved. The global level of peacefulness deteriorated rapidly after the global financial crisis.
- Many countries are at record high levels of peacefulness, while the bottom 20 countries have progressively become much less peaceful, creating increased levels of inequality in global peace.
- Terrorists and armed militia groups are utilizing consumer drones in conflict situations. Armed groups are now using drones to target artillery and mortar fire and the calibration of weapons in battle, in Iraq and Syria, Gaza and the Ukraine.
- During the period 1990-2005, the cost of conflict in Africa was equivalent to the funds granted to the continent in international aid over the same period – both conflicts and aid from during the period amounted to \$284 billion. In other words, the money lost in conflict could have been used in more effective ways, such as addressing the development needs of the people.

Peace and conflicts in Nigeria

More than half of all countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) including Nigeria saw their level of peacefulness deteriorate in 2017. Out of the five countries with the largest deteriorations worldwide, four were in SSA. SSA's level of peacefulness, as measured by the 2017 Global Peace Index (GPI) regional score, deteriorated to its worst level since 2008. Although the region recorded notable annual improvements between 2011 and 2013, SSA's GPI score has been consecutively worsening for the past four years, albeit by different magnitudes (IEP 2017).

The Nigerian society is a plural one characterized by emergent social formations and identity constructions in search of socio-economic and political relevance and, or recognition in the often-contested Nigerian project. Conflicts associated with these cannot be easily judged at their face values since they often have overlapping social, economic, political, socio-cultural and religious undercurrents. For example, a conflict that looks purely ethnic may be under-laid by religious concerns and hence, better viewed as ethno-religious. This is because geo-political creations were done by socio-

cultural and religious considerations. Besides, socio-cultural or religious norms often mesh such that it is rather difficult to disaggregate them. Hence, conflict analysis regarding issues in Nigeria would require a critical diagnosis and understanding of the undercurrents and its overlaps.

Conflict at all levels of Nigerian society is mostly driven by competition over resources. The ruling classes – political and military compete for oil and government contracts from which they steal for their own benefit with impunity. Election or appointment to influential government positions can translate to significant opportunities to amass wealth. A winner-take-all attitude among politicians and between parties leads to candidates employing divisive, identity-based rhetoric to secure votes and political control, often with little regard for national unity. This results in elections-related violence, rioting and rising identity-related tension. Poor service delivery due to diverted funds and low capacity of some elected officials to implement policies perpetuate grievances from one election cycle to the next. Poor natural resource management and increasing competition for land leads to conflict. Climate change, displacement due to Boko Haram violence in the North East, and encroachment on nomadic herdsmen's corridors and grazing reserves have decreased the land available to both pastoralists and farmers (Democracy International, 2014).

Conflict is endemic in Nigeria and links strongly to the theme of poor governance. In the oil-rich Delta region conflict has arisen over the lack of widespread benefits from petroleum and the devastating environmental impacts of massive oil spills. In the Middle Belt population pressures have sparked deadly disputes over land usage that have gone unattended to by official institutions and are being exacerbated by religious affiliations of the affected communities. In the Northeast, what was once a civil protest against the profound level of corruption in government has now morphed into a deadly insurgency that aligned itself with the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (or ISIS) and threatens the stability of not only northern Nigeria, but also of other Lake Chad Basin countries. Although oil resources have, to an extent, "masked" the underlying issues driving conflict, the time these resources bought was not put to good use to address the root causes of the violence (USAID 2017). These points to weak institutional capacity (Zartman 1997; Albert 2005). Also in the South-East Nigeria, feeling of marginalization have led to separatist agitation on the platform of the Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB) which has resulted in deadly clashes with Nigerian military.

The nature of conflicts in some ways constitutes a threat to the security of the state. Violence in the North and Middle Belt is particularly dangerous insofar as it pits mainly Muslim herdsmen and mostly Christian farmers against one another in a nation almost equally divided between the two groups. The long-running conflict in the Niger Delta Region is of special concern because it is basically a struggle for control over Nigeria's most strategic natural resource – crude oil

The above scenario may have bearings with the prevalent high level of horizontal and social inequality, perceived or real injustice, youth unemployment, lack of good governance and overall poverty in the society. Hence, members of the ruling classes often take advantage of this unsavory situation to mobilize their constituencies for conflicts – in their own narrow personal interest. This often results in political violence, inter-ethnic clashes, separatist agitations, communal clashes and ethno-religious conflicts. Weak institutional capacity often results in industrial conflicts such as strikes and lock outs which are often long and intensive. These are sometimes executed with impunity without recourse to extant labour laws (Onyeonoru, 2004).

The scope of conflicts is also attributable to the absence of a viable conflict management mechanisms that could enable all parties to adjust to changing conditions and agree to peaceful solutions. In the light of this policy vacuum, violent conflict over land use is increasing, a trend that is most dangerous when it plays out along ethnic and religious lines. It has been exacerbated by criminal activity, including large-scale cattle rustling in rural areas where state security is absent or insufficient, as well as by unprofessional and inflammatory media coverage that has sparked revenge attacks (Democracy International, 2015; Iheduru and Mohammed 2013).

Another important factor in conflicts in Nigeria is the illegal importation of arms into the country. The Nigerian Customs Service (NCS) intercepted and seized 661 brand new pump-action rifles stored in 49 boxes in truck in Lagos State on the 22nd of January 2017. This was followed by another set of seizure of over 1,100 arms of various sizes and designs at the Tin-Can Island Command of the Service. Barely a week after, the command intercepted yet another set of 475 rifles.

It does seem that the Nigerian society is experiencing conflict transmutation such that with the lowering of the incident of a particular crime the incidence of another increases. This points to a shift in criminal operation from one type to another – when the noose is tightened at one end the criminals shifts to another. Although there is little or no dis-

aggregated data to further interrogate this, cursory observation indicates, for instance, that as the incidence of armed robbery was declining due to more sophisticated police surveillance that of kidnapping resurged.

The threat posed by Islamist terrorist groups continues to weigh on Nigeria. Economic cost of violence in Nigeria constitutes 11.6% of Nigeria's GDP. Nigeria was ranked 149 out of 163 countries in 2016 and 2017 respectively (IEP, 2016; 2017).

Conditions that predisposed countries to conflict in the first place also predispose them to violent crime. Such conditions include weak governance, poverty, inequality, social exclusion and natural resource wealth. Moreover, actors primarily associated with conflict or criminality may easily transit to associate with the other since the incentives drawing individuals into both often overlapping fields have much in common (UNDP 2013; USAID 2015).

Most notably, in spite of an improvement in Nigeria's score on political instability due to her first democratic transition from government in power to opposition during the 2015 Presidential election, it was still ranked 40 out of 44 among Sub-Saharan African countries. The incapacity of the state to provide services and security or mediate disputes, such as in the Middle Belt where communal and tribal violence is widespread, or to enforce sovereignty over its own territory in the face of the Boko Haram challenge, are glaring examples of how poor governance including official corruption has weakened the state. Security services have been hollowed out as resources are siphoned off, leaving the police and military outgunned, out-equipped, and out-willed by Boko Haram terrorists. These weaknesses, once perceived, embolden dissident groups to further challenge state authority and leaves citizens with little choice but to settle their political and communal grievances on their own, however violently. It is likely that the Nigerian state's ability to manage conflict or address the underlying causes of conflict will continue until the institutions of the state become committed to governing in a more transparent, competent and accountable manner (IEP, 2016).

Implications for rural development

In line with our open system perspective, it is noted that conflicts in the wider Nigerian society affected the rural areas in Nigeria and constituted disincentive to rural development. First the huge sum stated above which was (is) expended in conflict management and post-conflict rehabilitation in the North-East of Nigeria where Boko-Haram insurgency could have been invested in rural development.

Apart from occasional communal clashes rural areas are often conceptualized as peaceful and serene environment. This may not easily fit the current scenario in Nigeria as rampaging herdsmen armed with automatic rifles engage in cattle rustling, attack rural farmers and burn their residences dislocating them from their sources of livelihood located in agriculture in, communities in several communities in states such as Anambra State, Oyo State and Benue State, killing and maiming their victims in the process. Boko-Haram terrorists also sacked villages in the North-East, leading to serious displacement crisis. The post conflict re-construction requirements constitute a huge drain on resources such as would have been invested in infrastructural development in the rural areas.

According to the Global Peace Index 2016, conflicts over the use of scarce natural resources between farmers and herdsmen are on the increase due to:

- growing pressure on natural resources, the growth of herds and the extension of cultivated areas outpacing population growth, partly due to climate change.
- destruction of crops by cattle and other property (irrigation equipment and infrastructure) by the pastoralists.
- burning of rangelands and Fadama and
- blockage of stock routes and water points by crop encroachment.
- rural areas may experience the protracted presence of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) as a result of a conflict or a disaster. Ex-combatants may be demobilized to rural areas with grave consequences.

Conflicts affecting the rural areas have led to loss of yields and income accruing rural farmers through agriculture; loss of livelihood, destruction of home and farm, bodily injury or death of family members, emotional exhaustion and frustration with implications for the exacerbation of poverty. Conflicts also push rural populations, below the poverty line, into destitution, feelings of helplessness and generate violence (www.ilo.org/rural).

The highest security threat facing Nigeria today – the violent Boko Haram insurgency – is largely a consequence of poor governance over many years. The lack of economic growth and opportunity in the northeast, limited political participation, ethno-religious extremism, poorly performing schools and health care systems, combined with blatant corruption are cited as key factors in the genesis of Boko Haram more than a decade ago. But Boko Haram is hardly the only manifestation of the

breakdown in people's confidence in the legitimacy of the Nigerian state (USAID 2015).

Violent conflict affects social groups differently. Conflict increases women's vulnerability to sexual violence and rape. Levels of domestic violence and other forms of violence are exacerbated in stressed environments, putting women in fear for their personal safety and integrity. Rape increases the risk and spread of sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS, and unwanted pregnancies. In addition, it may result in the victim's rejection and marginalization from the community. Other basic economic and social rights, such as access to health, food and education are also affected in times of communal violence.

CONCLUSION

The fragility of the Nigerian society predisposes her to conditions of conflict. The fragility and conflicts arise from a complex combination of political, social, economic, socio-cultural and ethno-religious factors. The high poverty profile of the country and widening inequality among its constituents as well as weak institutional capacity and corruption generate resource allocation discontent, agitations and conflicts.

The conflicts have grave implications for rural development as huge resources are expended in arms acquisition and conflict mitigation, regrettably at the expense of rural development. The dislocation of rural people from their sources of livelihood located in agriculture as well as destruction of farms and agricultural products during conflicts further impoverish people in the rural areas.

The need to improve on the institutional capacity of Nigeria cannot be overemphasized. This, if done, will enhance the capacity of the Nigerian state not only to dispense justice and ensure equitable distribution of resources but to also restore confidence in its nascent democracy as a system of governance that can ensure inclusiveness for the benefit of the citizenry.

Agricultural extension workers can be trines in the area of peace work to prevent, manage and reduce conflicts in rural settings and participate in peace-building and post conflict reintegration efforts.

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Pdf Boosting Rural Areas' Resilience to Conflicts and Disasters

Jenifer Bond, Human Security Perspective dfcentre.com/wp-content/uploads/.../Policy-brief-11-082-LIFE_Jennifer-Bond.pdf

GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES ON CONCEPTS, THEORIES AND DYNAMICS OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT AND PEACEBUILDING: DEVELOPING FRAMEWORKS FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Professor Kunle Ajayi, PhD

Institute of Peace, Security and Governance, Department of Political Science, Ekiti State University
Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria

Lead paper presentation at the formal opening ceremony of the 25th Annual Congress of the Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria (RuSAN) held on 10th October, 2016 at Federal University, Oye Ekiti, Ekiti state, Nigeria

INTRODUCTION

No society can develop or survive without conflict. To many critics, this hypothetical take-off will sound alarmist and anarchical. However, this is historical reality of the human race since ages. Human race has been in the mercy of production and reproduction of conflict. Peace and conflict have become both sides of a coin. The more peace is sought after, the more it is constantly punctuated by conflict and war. Conflict is an in-born (a congenital) character of living things, including humans and animals. Because of this, no society or state, no matter how powerful, has ever recorded permanent peace in history. Known history has been one of peace and war. Old societies, modern states and the international community have brokered and signed many peace treaties (and declaring truce and armistice after wars), but achieving permanent peace has remained an elusive ambition of the human race old wars are being displaced and gaining ascendancy by new wars.

The question, therefore, is what has made conflict and war so pervasive and permanent peace so elusive? Attempts to response to this challenge has convoluted into scholarly attempts at generating theoretical frameworks for the understanding and analyzing the nature, pre-dispositional and precipitating factors, motives, accelerators, triggers, consequential impact and management of conflicts/war.

The attempts here is to address, albeit, from a global perspective, the concept, dynamics, theories and management of conflicts and impact on sustainable development. It also generates some pathways and strategies for attaining sustainable goal-end development. The rest of the narratives are ordered into nine sections namely: concept and universalism of conflict; categorizing conflicts; analytical theories of conflict; cost of conflict; conflict management frameworks; concept and ingredients of peace-building; contemporary conflicts in Nigeria, generating pathways for sustainable development; and, concluding remarks.

Concept and Universalism of Conflict

Conflict is a product of social interactional process. It is a behavioural character exhibited at one

point or the other. It constitutes a hostile behavioural attitude exhibited between individuals, groups, communities, societies and states. Conflict depicts a situation or condition of disagreement or incompatibility between two or more social entities on certain issues. Such disagreements most often centre on competition for or incompatible material interests and basic values (Butler, 2009). Coser provides a sociological definition of conflict as “a condition which one identifiable group of human beings is engaged in conscious opposition to one or more other identifiable human groups because these groups are pursuing what are or appear to be incompatible goals” (Dougherty and Pfaltzgraff, Jr, 1981: 182). Coser further translates the term to mean a “struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power, and resources in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralize, injure, or eliminates their rivals”. In this sense, conflict ensues when there is competition over some scarce resources which may be material, status or position. Conflict in this wise occurs when one party tries to prevent others from achieving their aims while it tries to maximize or promote its own chances and opportunities. Ajayi (2002) explicates conflict as social interaction which brings forth a situation which has contentious and conflicting outcomes. Accordingly, he sees it as a form of human relationship which is negative in nature.

Conflict can be positive or negative. Conflict is positive when it is non-violent in nature or involves non-violent outcomes. It is negative when it involves hostility accompanied by violence and resulting in physical harm. Violent conflicts can result to war with the use of instrumentality of force. Conflict therefore equates war when the contentious party resorts to armed struggle. Akpuru-Aja (2007) has a similar understanding of conflict. According to him, conflict is an attitude behavior, action or a process that introduces strains and stresses into relationship between two or more parties which perceive each other as a threat or stumbling block to each other that will result in frustrating the other in attaining a set of goals or furthering one’s interests.

The epidemiology of conflict is worldwide. It has a universal occurrence. Conflict has an ubiquitous existence as it occurs everywhere in the

world. No part of the world has been so lucky to have permanent peace nor unlucky to be locked permanently in conflict.

Conflict mapping manifests that all geopolitical regions of the globe has suffered violent conflicts at one time or the other. Neither has no society, group or sovereign state can lay claim to the permanency of peace and conflict. The global dimensions of conflict are often triggered by such issues as differentials of race, culture, religion, gender, ethnicity and class. As Dougherty and Pfaltzgraff, Jr (1981) noted, conflict is a universally ubiquitous and permanently reoccurring phenomenon within and between societies. They further acknowledge that conflict is not necessarily continuous or uniformly intense, as many societies experience periods of relative peace, both internal and external. Even in this modern era, no state, no matter how well armed or enjoyed economic abundance accompanied by high quality of wellbeing for its citizens, can claim custodian of permanent peace. Armament by states for the purpose of achieving security creates more tension leading to conflict than securing sustained peace. For instance, armament programmes by countries such as Iran, Iraq, Pakistan, Bangladesh, South and North Korea has created more tension and conflict in the respective regions. Suspicion that Saddam Hussein was amassing weapons of mass destruction (WMD) in Iraq led to the Gulf War II and which eventually led to the destruction of Iraq and capital punishment for Saddam. Iran's ambition to acquire nuclear power was cleverly and diplomatically resolved through the 2015 Iran Nuclear Deal between the country and the United States of America (USA), thereby de-escalating tension in the axis. The constant bickering between USA, South Korea and North Korea is over the latter's nuclear programmes. In defiance to the global outcry, North Korea constantly tests nuclear war-heads and consequently escalating tension in the region. It hinges its resolve and hardline posturing on its nuclear power acquisition on the need to guarantee its national security and protect itself against perceived aggression by the South Korea and USA. The latter has nuclear establishments and military standby forces in South Korea to protect its national interest and those of its allies in the region, especially South Korea.

The two-time experiences of war by the world (WWI and WWII), old wars and incessant occurrence of post-cold war new wars, all which involved sovereign states and non-state actors respectively, manifest the universalism of conflict and war. While inter-state wars have declined in occurrence, terrorism and other forms of insurgency have taken the centre stage. Osama bin Ladin's Al

Qaeda undermined USA's homeland Security to attack the Twin-Towers and the Pentagon in September 11, 2001. The attacks led to the collapse of the Towers and the death of more than 3,000 people, including 19 hijackers (Statistic Brain, 2016). Other terrorist groups have since emerged. The Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS) have been responsible for the current terrorist activities and the civil war in Syria and Iraq. The violence in the two countries has lasted five years and ongoing. Intervention efforts by Russia and America to de-escalate the violence are yet to yield fruits. The scale of destruction in the two theatres of war has assumed outrageous proportions.

The Boko Haram terrorism, which started in 2009, has devastated the Nation's North East region of Nigeria with casualties close to 20,000, and it spilled over to Cameroon, Chad and Niger it has resulted into about seven million refugees and internally displaced persons across the countries (The Nation, 2016). Other zones of the world are not exempted from conflict epidemic. The only differentials in the universal character of conflict are the motivators and variation in intensity and impact.

Dimensions and Varieties of Conflict

Conflict has two broad dimensions, which are also perceived as its nature. Its dimension depicts the form it takes. Conflict is either violent or non-violent. Not all conflicts are violent. Cessation of interactions between two or more persons or groups, which may involve none exchange of pleasantries, or states terminating diplomatic relations with each other, is within the range of non-violence conflict. This can be referred to as soft conflict. It is non-adversarial in nature. The consequence, at the most, is psychological damage rather than physical destruction and recording of casualties. Violent conflict remarkably differs from non-adversarial, soft conflict. It involves application of force involving instruments of harm and destruction to persons, property and the environment. Violent conflicts can take the form of demonstrations and riots, militancy, insurgency and war. Though, not all demonstrations are violent. The agitations for the creation of a sovereign Biafra in Nigeria by the Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB) and the other groups has been peaceful and non-violent while the agitators for the liberation of the Niger Delta region of the country under the aegis of the Niger Delta Avengers (NDA) and others have been violent leading to armed struggle resulting in the bombing and destruction of oil pipelines in the region leading to extensive damage to the environment. These groups have violently engaged the Nigeria's Armed Forces.

Conflict can also be dominant or recessive, controllable or uncontrollable, resolvable or insolvable depending on the circumstances of their initiations (Dougherty and Pfaltzgraff, Jr, 1981). Conflict may be dominant, uncontrollable, insolvable when the motivating catalysts are fundamentally rooted or concerned state actors ignore such conflicts unaddressed or their termination or resolution are mismanaged. The Sudanese civil war in Darfur has lasted more than 20 years.

The Biafra agitations resurged after an interlude of about 40 years after the Biafran civil war, 1967-1970, which claimed more than one million casualties, including 50, 000 soldiers (Naij, 2016). The transition to democratic rule in 1999 re-awaked the consciousness of the irredentists, this manifesting the resilience of the demand and the failure of war or force to resolve the conflict between the Igbos and the Nigerian state.

In terms of variants, conflict could be political, economic, cultural, ideological, ethnic or religious. Political conflict can arise over contestations over political positions. Who becomes the president or provincial/state governor? Who becomes a senator? Electoral contestations can lead to large scale violence if parties and supporters perceived electoral maladministration in the forms of vote fraud and declaration of false results. The genocidal war that took place in Rwanda had its foundation in electoral mismanagement. The post-election violence in Cote d'Ivoire in 2010 was precipitated by the electoral manipulations by the then incumbent presidency. Fe and his wife are facing trial before International Criminal Court (ICC) for crimes against humanity perpetrated during the crisis. Many of the civil war in Africa are politically motivated. Such electoral manipulations often dovetail into legitimacy crisis.

War and conflict could be precipitated by economic factors. Inter-state wars can be fought because of national endowments at borders points, which could be solid minerals or crude oil or gaseous deposits. The 1990 invasion of Kuwait by Iraq was motivated by oil resources. Iraq was pushed into such action because of the down-turn in its economy, which had been depleted by an almost one decade of war with Iran. The Britain-Argentina war of 1982 arose over counter-claims of the ownership of the mineral rich Falkland Island. Nigeria and Cameroun fought wars over the oil rich Bakassi Peninsula until it was resolved by arbitration before the International Court of Justice (ICJ), which ceded the disputed Peninsula to Cameroun in 2002 (Ajayi, 2014). The opposition of Sudan to South Sudan's secession was for the latter's rich deposit of crude oil.

Social conflicts borders on exhibition of opposition to certain social behaviours either by a group, organization, or the state. This may include issues such as inequality, discrimination on the basis of race, religion or ideology. Social conflict can also occur as a result of class inequality, a struggle between the large poor masses and the minority wealthy elites. Constant bickering will always erupt where economic and wealth possession creates a gulf between the rich and the poor. Peace cannot prevail in the society where the majority are beggars and destitute. Industrial conflict is a subset of social conflict. Workers constantly take on the employers for better working conditions, and where such demands are not addressed by management, workers often result to industrial actions, including, strike actions, Pickering and violent demonstrations.

Ethnic conflict or identity conflict has been at the root of many civil wars the world over. Claims of ethnic superiority and marginalization in the sharing of societal resources cannot but ignite conflict. Religion, like ethnic identity is also a conflict generator arising from denial of others of right to their choice of creed and faith. Any society where religious freedom is denied or where there is no religious imposition can never know peace.

It needs to be stated from the on-set that there is no single theory that can provide a comprehensive understanding of conflict, and therefore, there is an avalanche of theories propounded by scholars from different disciplines, including, sociology, Political Science, Social Psychology, Psychiatry, and Economics. Each of them tends to look at conflict from different contextual planes. While Sociology will examine conflict from the perspective of groups, Social Psychology will see it from the angle of interpersonal relationship. Political Science/International Relations will tend to focus more on conflict ignited by political power relations intra-nationally and internationally.

Contending Theories of Conflict

There are contending theoretical postulations that serve as useful paradigmatic tools for analyzing conflict bordering on its nature and characteristics, structure, behavior, casualties, consequent outcomes and how it can be managed and terminated. These theories can be categorized into classical and new theories.

Karl Marx, a sociologist and political economist, provides premier scholarship on the earlier theories of conflict. He postulated the social class theory of conflict. The Marxist theory provides a scientific explanation of the causes of conflict in industrial societies. He sees conflict as a product of

historical class struggle in socio-economic systems. Based on dialectical materialist account of history, Marx conjectured that capitalism would inevitably produce internal tensions leading to its own destruction (Wikipedia, 2016a). He believes that “economic determinism” influences the nature of relationship between the two great classes in the society—the bourgeoisie, who are the capitalists and owners of the means of production, and the proletariat, the workers and who prepares labour power and engage in wage labour. The theory further enunciates that the nature of relationship between the two classes is conflictual, arising from intensifying contradictions between the two. The economic system results in inequality arising from the exploitation of the working class by the bourgeoisie class which appropriates and privatizes the surplus product produced by the workers in form of surplus value or profit (Wikipedia, 2016a; Ajayi, 2016). The workers are paid living wage and denied appropriate compensation for their labour and sweats. As the contradictions become apparent to the workers, social unrest or struggle between the two antagonistic classes intensifies, and eventually results into social revolution of the workers. Revolution is often accompanied by violence leading to radical change. Marxism believes that once capitalism is destroyed, the class system would also cease and the class basis for exploitation and conflict relations in the society would terminate (Ajayi, 2016).

The pioneering efforts of Karl Marx in theoretically analyzing conflict have paved the way for modern theories. C. Wright Mills has been credited to be founder of modern conflict theory. He came up with what is referred to as Power Elite Theory of Conflict. According to him, social structures are created through conflict between people with differing interests and resources. Individuals and resources, in turn, are influenced by these structures and by the unequal distribution of power and resources in the society (Wikipedia, 2016a). He argues that the interests of the elite were opposed to those of the people, the masses. Mills therefore prophesized that the policies of the power elite would culminate in increased escalation of conflict, production of weapons of mass destruction (WMD) and possibly the annihilation of human race (Wikipedia, 2016a). In this wise, Mills sees the fusion of corporate elite (i.e. captains of industry) with the Pentagon, and the White House in the United States of America to forge Military-Industrial Complex as a classic case of elite’s policy interests to promote violent conflicts worldwide.

Inequality theory of conflict is articulated by Alan Sears, a Sociologist. The basic tenets of his thesis were enunciated in his 2005 work. According

to him, inequality in societies produces conflict. This conflict based on inequality can only be overcome through the fundamental transformation of the existing relations in the society, and it is productive of new social relations (Sears, 2005). Accordingly, the disadvantaged people in the society have structural interests that run counter to the status quo, which will lead to social change. Sears elicits that exploitation and oppression are limiters of change in the society as they suppress the human potential embodied in people’s capacity for creativity, and thereby repress the engine for economic development and change. He sees ideology as representing consensus. It is argued that there is no genuine consensus in any society. Rather, the more powerful in societies impose their conceptions and interests on others have then accepted their discourses. He believes that consensus does not preserve social order, but it entrenches stratification and inequality in the society. Sears, like Karl Marx, sees the role of the state as partial. According to him, the state serves the particular interests of the most powerful (the elite) while claiming to represent the interest of all. He therefore sees representation in democratic governance as ideological illusion. Finally, Sears sees international financial organizations such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank as contributing to the underdevelopment of the Third World through their policies and thereby consolidating inequality between them and the Developed Economies of the world.

There are other post-classical theories pioneered by Karl Marx. In this group, are Ethnic/Identity theory, Religious theory, Race theory, Frustration-Aggression theory, Cultural theory, and Merchant of Death theory. These theories can be classified modern theories of conflict. Ethnic theory, identity theory and cultural theory shares similar propositions. The three identifies group or sectional properties as bases of relationship. Eriksen (2001) explains ethnicity as the property of a relationship between two or more several groups. He points out that ethnicity does not occur within groups, rather it exists between groups. It is therefore an inter-group phenomenon. Ethnicity does not conflict or warfare as erroneously believed by many. Instead, as opined by Eriksen, sources of ethnic conflict can be traced to resource scarcity in the society. This implies that where there is resource abundance, ethnic conflict is rare. The relationship between groups is determined by their access to available resources within their ecosystem.

Ethnic manipulations by the political class to feather its own political interests especially during elections can also yield conflict. Political elites often play ethnic cards for their survival. This has always

been the case, for example, in Nigeria when certain politicians are alleged of criminalities such as tax evasion and corruption. Nnamdi Azikwe alleged in 1979 that he was being disqualified from contesting the presidential election of that year based on tax evasion because he was an Igbo man (Nairaland Forum, 2016). Currently, the former First Lady, Patience Jonathan's allegation of corruption is being given ethnic colouration by her Ijaw ethnic youths, who are threatening violence if she is tried for corruption (Okhomina, 2016).

Identity theory postulates that conflict is fuelled by the particularistic identity politics that serve as the main sources of "new wars" (Butler, 2009: 59). According to Butler, the acknowledgement of manipulation of group identity by elites is very important, as it is the resonance of group identity within the populace. Identity politics, as designed or created by elites, is therefore seen as crucial to the process of creating and sustaining a climate of violence in relation to a real or perceived grievance between groups. Religious theory of conflict emphasizes spirituality or faith differences as engines of conflict. Religion provides a symbolic identity for those who share or embrace a particular faith. It is a kind of ideology which shapes the ways of life and thinking of the believers. Religion professes moral values and tends to provide answers for the world of unknown. It therefore offers a "sense of security". Religion can be a tool for achieving peace and a means of fomenting violence. Religious extremists have been forerunners of trouble and conflict in many parts of the world. Religious extremists in the likes of Al Qaeda and Boko Haram have resorted to terrorism and violence to promote their religious beliefs. The two terrorist groups are opposed to any other religion other than radical Islamic faith. Consequently, the former is opposed to any Western and Western-originated religions, especially Christianity. Other religious faithful are treated as infidels. Boko Haram, which has its roots in North East Nigeria, apart from opposed to other religions, sees other Islamic sects which are not radical in nature and orientation as polluted and therefore not genuine or original. The group therefore not only burnt churches, they also destroyed mosques and killed Islamic Clerics that did not embrace its own form of Islam religion. There are also Jewish extremists in Israel who are noted for killing Islamists, and Sikh militants in India had waged violence on government for the purpose of securing the latter's attention while in Japan, the Buddhist New Religious Movement engaged in nerve-gas assault on the Tokyo's subways as a way of recognizing its leader as Christ (Juergensmeyer, 2015).

Cultural identity is not a strong force for generating conflict in a mono-cultural society, but becomes problematic in hetero-cultural societies. All cultures are considered equal in values. However, some cultures tend to see themselves as superior to others; and therefore tend to impose them on the other cultures. Attempts to resist these have often lead to violent conflicts. Globalization is noted to be responsible for the increase in culture-oriented conflicts. According to Juergensmeyer, among the three problems brought by globalization is identity. Others are accountability and security. Identity is embodied in ethnic, religious and cultural affiliations or belongingness. The three affinities have made impossible, any more, the existence of a totally homogenous ethnic, cultural and linguistic community. Globalization has assisted in the spread of race, ethnic groups and language across the world. Kaldor (2006: 79), in trying to assess the instrumentality of group affiliations, sees "identity politics" as "movements which mobilize around ethnic racial or religious identity for the purpose of claiming state power. This implies that apart from being used to have access to a fair share of societal resources, ethnic, cultural and religious identities can be converted to a potent weapon of taking over government as the cases in Iran when the Shah administration was toppled by the Islamic leader, Ayatollah Khomeini in 1979. The Taliban sect did the same in Afghanistan while the Arab Spring was, to a large extent, driven by religious ideology. The constant violent crises between Hausa-Fulani and Southerners and between Yoruba and Hausa people in Lagos, Shagamu, Ado-Ekiti, (2015) all in Nigeria have often underscored by diversities of identity.

Frustration-Aggression theory sees conflict as a product of frustration arising from fundamental disappointments and failed expectations. This is a psychological theory of conflict which is pioneered by Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mower, and R. Sears (1939). The theory, according to Fredman and Schustack sees aggression to be the "results of blocking or frustration, a person's efforts to attain a goal". Similarly, Dennen (2016) sees frustration as thwarting of a goal response. Frustration actualizes the motivational forces that drive aggression or hostilities as the final response. Though, a revisit of the hypothesis by Zillmann (1979) has posited that it is not in all cases that aggressive behavior presupposes the existence of frustration, and that not all frustrates experiences lead to hostile or aggressive behaviour. Every day, we observe hostile reactions from failure to attain goals or objectives by people. A student who fails an examination or a job interview can be frustrated to commit suicide. Or it could be a parochial fan of football club who takes his/her own

life after the team loses a crucial match, may be the final of a football competition.

Merchant of Death theory of conflict is more of political economic in orientation. The theory was propounded in 1934 by Engelbrecht and Hanighen and it was used to attack the industries and banks that supplied and funded the Great War, World War I (Wikipedia, 2016b) and it was later popularized by anti-war movements. Concretely, investors and manufacturers of armament are referred to as “Merchants of death”. A merchant of death is a company, nation, or person that sells military arms in the international market, usually, to the highest bidder and without scruple or regard to political ramifications” (Wikipedia, 2016b; Random House (1997).The manufacturers and sellers are driven by profit-making. They sell to both sides on the war divide. They do not have adversaries nor enemies or opposition when it comes to marketing their products. Profit-making does not know enemies.

The key tenets propositions of the theory include, that violent conflicts and war occur because arms manufacturers are promoting such hostilities in order to sell their products. The more there are war outbreaks, the more they sell and make profits. Consequently, they need to instigate occurrence of war for their economic interests. There is also collaboration between the state and the military industries. This is referred to in the United States as Military-Industrial Complex (MIC). The industry generates employment opportunities for the citizens while the state benefits further through taxation and foreign exchange generated. In order to keep enjoying these economic benefits, wars are deliberately promoted overseas.

Another dimension is war armaments research. War/military researches constantly invent new technologies of war such as unmanned missile carriers, including drones. Research outcomes also produce weapons of mass destruction (WWD) such as nuclear armaments and gaseous war-heads to be tested in real war situations to assess their efficacy and later marketed on a global scene. Weapons are legally and illegally sold to both states and insurgent and terrorist groups. It is estimated that about \$5billion worth of light weapons are traded illegally every year to the worlds’ conflict zones(Collins, 2007). It is believed that the United States entered World War I “mainly as a result of its own military trade and loans to the Allies”. United States military wares manufacturers needed to sell their products to the warring states. Mercenaries have become included in the merchants of death group. Apart from state armies, there are also private armies, there are also private recognized by international law. Foreign mercenaries may operate individually as employees

of private military or security companies. They are commercialized armies often hired by weak states and groups such as terrorists in order to buoy up their military capacity against the opposing side. It is estimated that as many as 100 private military companies (PMCs) operate in about 110 states around the world with an estimated income of about \$100 billion per year (Collins, 2007). With these economic benefits to the state, manufacturers, mercenaries and PMCs, it will be their best advantage if there are violent conflicts and wars in all parts of the world. It is the assumed that if there are no weapons to fight, there would probably be no war. On the other hand, it is the belief that wars are instigated and promoted by the merchants of death to serve their economic interests.

There are other newer theoretical models for conflict analysis. These models are referred to as post-modernism theories. These categories equally embrace a wide range of theories by scholars of conflicts, which include: Environmental/Ecological theory; Feminism theory; Greed and Grievance theory; and New Barbarism theory to mention a few.

Environmental/Ecological theory stresses the importance for human survival. It stems from the 1994 work of Thomas Home-Dixon (Bestwick and Jackson (2011). The land, sea and the air space constitute the environment. All natural resources are located in the environment. The exploitation of the natural resources has therefore become a major source of conflict all over the world. The environment is subjected to economic activities such as farming, exploration of minerals, recreational activities and sports. It is also subjected to technological innovations. The environment is constantly at the mercy of human beings through their activities. The increasing connection between the environmental/ecological changes has led to the growing efforts evolving theories of environmental dispute resolution.

Carius and Imbusch (in Hagmann, 2005:15) assert that “environmental changes and the increasing scarcity of natural resources play a decisive role in the emergence of conflicts”. The scarcity per se does not generate conflict. It is the ensued competition by individuals, groups, and states that evoke conflicts. Disagreements over land ownership and animal grazing are major problems in many countries, including Nigeria. Oil exploration and exploitation by oil multinationals has caused environmental pollution. Oil spillage and gas flaring have devastated and polluted the environment across as the cases of oil spillage in California. The Niger Delta region of Nigeria remains a hotbed of conflicts arising from violent protests by agitators for clean environment.

Nature has also contributed to environmental crisis the world over. Climate change has prompted climate and weather extremes, which particular affect the agricultural sector and the behaviour of farmers. Drought, heavy flooding, extreme heat and extreme cold are experienced in many parts of the world (Norrington *et al*, 2012). Apart from driving food insecurity, climate change has caused other disaster risks and humanitarian emergencies such as violent conflicts between farmers and herdsmen over grazing resources, with attendant casualties and destruction to property. The Horn of Africa, embracing Kenya, Ethiopia, Uganda and Sudan, has been entrapped in climate induced violent pastoral conflict (Schinmer, Geerken, Orr, 2012; Umer and Negash, 2012; Yntiso, 2012; Omondi, 2012). In the same manner, Nigeria has been battling with violent conflicts between farmers and Fulani Herdsmen over cattle grazing. The Fulani herdsmen of Northern Nigeria have been driven to migrate with their animals towards South due to climate change drought effect leading to vegetational (grass) scarcity in the North. The cross-fire between two groups has caused about 3, 000 casualties, farms destroyed, houses burnt and cattle killed or stolen (Adeoye and Alagbe, 2016). The core assumption of environmental theory, therefore, is that, environmental quantity and quality of a country or region is casually linked to the presence or absence of conflict (Hagmann, 2005). Population increase across the world is also causing immense pressure on the land. As population increases, land space for use is decreasing. Hence, there are incessant claims and claims over land leading to tension and violent conflicts. It can hence be proposed also that to prevent environment-induced violence, there is the need to ensure environmental security at all times.

Greed and grievance theory addresses the issues of privatization of public resources and corruption by individuals or groups. Collier and Hoeffler pioneered the theory. It sees greed and grievance as motives for conflict (Beswick and Jackson, 2011). The model opines that where there are a large proportion of unemployed young men in the population, probably proxied by lack of education, and where there are opportunities for instant gratification through looting, greed may be an important motive for violent conflicts. (Beswick and Jackson, 2011). The theory averred that the risk of civil war is highest in those countries where opportunities for greed-based rebellion are high. The degree of dependence on natural resources for foreign exchange earnings, through primary commodity exports poses the highest vulnerability to greed-based rebellion. Collier and Hoeffler are of the opinion that, the poor are prone to violent conflict because they

have a comparative advantage in violence, implying that, it is cheaper for them to engage in violence because they forgo little else in the way of alternatives. Applying this model, the current militancy in Niger Delta is driven by greed and grievance. Notable individuals established their own militant organizations such as MEND, Niger Delta Avengers etc, recruited unemployed and mostly unemployed young men as members, to pursue private aggrandizements. Many of the militant leaders are allegedly stupendously rich arising proceeds from oil and corruption. The civil war in Sierra Leone was prompted by the greed for forest resources and illegal diamond exploitation by the war-lords as a means of enriching themselves at the expense of the state (Campbell, 2003).

New barbarism conflict theory was popularized by Robert Kaplan's 1994 work. The Kernel of the theory is that, in understanding conflict, it is necessary to study the divisions within society, most often, on tribal or ethnic basis. That developing societies are depicted as pre-modern, or traditional, and prone to violence in general and internecine violence in particular (Beswick and Jackson, 2011). Kaplan (1994) maintained that, barbarism vulnerability occurs:

In places where the Western Enlightenment has not penetrated and there has always been mass property, people will find liberation in violence. He cited Sierra Leone, the entire West Africa and the underdeveloped world as the microcosm of his idea. It is concluded that the withering away of the central governments, the rise of tribal (ethnic) and regional domains, unchecked spread of diseases, and growing pervasive of war are the characteristics of barbarism. In essence, the weak states, where the economy as the backbone of the state has collapsed and people tend to resort to sectionalism, primordial ties and outsourcing from other means, such as faith healing, are prone to constant outbreak of violent conflicts and civil unrests. The governments of such states are not better in their dealings erupting violent conflicts as they confront and suppress with maximum force rather than handling them with peace tools of diplomacy.

Lastly, is feminism theory. This is also referred to as feminist sociology. It analyses the gender issue in relation to power and focuses on sexual orientation, race, economic status and nationality. It recognizes the historical systemic oppression and domination of women by men (Wikipedia, 2016c). That, men are more favoured than women in the society, and the former are given greater opportunities (politically, socially and economically). Feminism is the belief, therefore, that men and women desire equally in all opportunities,

treatment respect, and social rights (Study.com, 2016a). It is the contestation of feminists that, until discrimination, oppression, suppression, prejudice, stereotypes and marginalization of women are stopped in the society, there can be no peace. There are varied types of feminism including radical feminism, cultural feminism, liberal and social feminism. Radical feminism sees “all men are women oppressors”. Feminists are not satisfied with the mere equality of men and women kin power relations but also canvassed for the total elimination of patriarchy, which imposes male supremacy as product of social roles and institutionally structured design (study.com, 2016b). It needs to be reiterated once again that, no single theory can explain and analyze conflict, as literature is a wish of variants.

Nexusing Conflict, Peace, Security and Development: Values and Costs

Why is peace desirable and why is violent conflict abhorred? What are the influence and impact of the two on development? Peace and conflict have roles to play in development drives. Peace is desired to provide a conducive environment necessary to plan and actualize development. Mental peace is desired for sound reasoning, knowledge production and invariably for cutting-edge research leading to innovations and inventions. All facets of the economy and the governance systems cannot operate without peace. Incessant political violence could destabilize the state and it can arouse mutiny in forms of military coup or counter-coup. In the same vein, the real sector of the economy will become unproductive when confronted with unabated industrial strikes by labour unions. Only when farmers enjoy peace that they can cultivate and harvest farm produce or rear herds. Schools, including universities can only promote the much desired knowledge economy when there is relative peace. When university students riot, the school is closed down, signalling stoppage of academic activities for the durable of the closure. Academic development at this stage is halted in such university.

Security, like peace, is desired and it is a prerequisite for development. While is the absence of violence, security connotes absence of fear or threats to one's life or safety to one's life and property. Violent conflict and war erodes or undermines peace and security. Affirming the deleterious impact of conflict and war, Collins (2007) observes that violence inflicts human suffering and/ has dire local, state and global effects.

War casualties constitute a denial of human capital to development. World War I recorded 18 million battle deaths and over 23 million wounded (Wikipedia, 2017a) while World War II claimed over

80 million lives were lost, including soldiers and civilians (Wikipedia, 2017b). The Nigerian civil war, 1967-1970, as observed earlier, resulted in the death of about one million people. Youths within productive age often constitute the largest population of war deaths. The Rwanda's genocidal war of 1994, apart from resulting in more than one million deaths, it nearly wiped off the entire population of young and adult males in the country (Shaw, 2003). This provided opportunities for women to dominate governance, especially the post-war national parliament, in which women constitute about 63.8% (IPU, 2016). Apart from battle deaths, wars and violent conflicts also produce Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) and refugees within and outside the country respectively. For instance, the Boko Haram terrorism in Northeast Nigeria caused the death of 100,000 people, resulting in more than 59,000 widows and 20,000 orphans, according to provincial/state government sources (Akinrjomu, 2016). The insurgency has produced more than 2 million IDPs and 200, 000 refugees located in neighbouring the countries of Cameroun, Chad and Niger Republic. Damage to socio-economic development infrastructure is another aspect of losses incurred during violent hostilities. Still on the Northeast of Nigeria, Boko Haram terrorists have caused extensive destruction to schools, hospitals, banks, telecommunication facilities, bridges, water systems, police posts and public buildings.

At a global level, there are 24.5million refugees and asylum seekers with about 5 million of residing in Africa (UNCHR, 2016). The global figure, according to UNCHR, constitutes 2.9% of the world's economy, but which are unproductive and cannot contribute to economic development.

Wars and conflicts also have impact on the economy in many other aspects. Economy of war is a major aspect. Huge sums of money are appropriated to pursue wars. Scarce resources that ordinarily used for industrial and socio-economic development are diverted to the war. In some cases, tax is increased to finance war thereby placing additional burden on the populace. The intervention of Nigeria in Liberia and Sierra Leone's civil wars in the 1990s caused the country about \$12billion (Agubamah, 2015; dauda, Ahmad, Mohammad, 2017) in peacekeeping. Currently, the militant attacks on oil installations in Niger Delta has caused Nigeria the loss of about N1.4 trillion in revenue, excluding shortage of gas (Naiji, 2016b). The loss was for the period of February and July, 2016. This will certainly have a serious implication for the nation's development budget for the year. Already the country is going through economic recession, partly contributed by the insurgency in both Northeast and Niger Delta regions

in the country. All these point to the fact that prolonged wars often affect the economic fortunes of the society and the state, and the global system at large. The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) will decline and social welfare will suffer. This happens especially in the developing countries with a weak economic structure and mono-cultural export economy.

In spite the enormous costs of war, conflict and war have positive values. It must be known that conflict is only hated by people when it involves destruction to life and property. Conflict has a social function. It induces socio-economic and political change. In the first instance, violent conflicts and war are justified when peace and change is made difficult, especially by political authorities. Tyrannical and dictatorial regimes are dethroned by violent demonstrations by the populace or through military coup. The Arab spring, which swept off totalitarian regimes in Egypt, Tunisia and Libya are clear examples of political change induced by violent means. In this way, as reasoned by Beswick and Jackson (2011), conflict is a social strategy for reordering social relations and reform socio-economic and political structures.

At times, violent or armed conflicts are justified. Conflict can be utilized to achieve peace. Armed conflict can be employed to counter or neutralize aggression or war. There could be “conflict against conflict” or “war against war”. Frantz Fanon advocated violence for violence in his anti-colonial struggles in Algeria which assisted in the defeat of the French imperialists and the subsequent gaining of independence in 1962. Fanon led the Algerian war to secure political freedom for his people. He believes that de-colonization must occur through a violent process (Fanon, 1965; Killmeier, 2016). There may be “war against war” (Wikipedia, 2016d). The United States of America’s entry into WWII was to end the Japanese aggression after the latter bombed America’s territory of Hawaii in 1941 with more than 2,500 casualties recorded (Reference.com, (2016; Rosenberg, 2017). American involvement eventually ended the war in 1945. Armament and nuclear proliferation are often employed in international politics as means of deterring other states from attacking them. Balance of Power (BoP) and balance of terror (BoT) and foreign military policies sourced their roots from the deterrence military philosophy, especially during the Cold War era.

Rolling Back Conflict: Conventional and African Approaches

Conflict is a dynamic process. It is a process that starts with initiation and ends with termination. No conflict lasts forever as no peace condition lasts

forever too. Peace is often interfaced with conflict and vice versa. The throw backs of conflict in relation to its negative consequences and the valued role of peace in development imply that conflict must be terminated.

There are two major approaches for terminating conflict, which conflict management and conflict resolution. The two processes are remarkably different from each other. Conflict resolution addresses the fundamentality of conflict in terms of unearthing the tap-root of the case and the consequently resolve the dispute with the approval of the terms of settlement by, and to the satisfaction of, all parties. It is long-term process but the end product is lasting, if not permanent. Conflict management, on the other hand, concerns interim measures to transform a conflict. The under-bush causes of the conflict may not be known, as parties are not ready to address such. In essence, conflict management “concerns an on-going process that may never have a solution” (Wikipedia, 2016e). Conflict resolution is a long-term process while management is short-term. Whichever strategy to be used depends on the nature of each cause and the degree of willingness and cooperation of the parties. There is no tailor-made strategy applicable to all disputes.

The conventional conflict management and resolution often encompass non-violent mechanisms, but at the other end, they may be violent (e.g war to stop war). In summary, conflict management techniques bring about a temporary end to conflicts while conflict resolutions aims at ensuring a lasting peace by trying to establish a permanent cessation of disagreement or hostilities between the parties.

The conventional conflict management techniques include diplomacy, negotiation, bargaining, compromise, consensus, mediation, arbitration, permissible force and peace-building. Diplomacy is one of the oldest strategies of resolving disputes between communities, groups and states. It is of more use in international politics. Diplomacy, negotiation, bargaining, compromise and consensus primarily involve the need for communication between the disputing parties. The parties must come together on a face-to-face situation and engage the processes of bargaining, negotiation, making compromises and finally reaching on consensus on agreed decisions. These processes normally involve the leaders of the warring parties. At the state level, the President/Head of State, Prime Minister, Ministers and other designated state officials are often involved in the processes. Diplomacy is much more associated with states’ officials. Diplomacy has varieties namely; political, cultural and economic diplomacy. When nations participate in the World

Cup or World Athletics competition, they are engaging in cultural diplomacy.

Bargaining is essentially a peaceful process of resolving differences. When parties maintain a hard posturing on issues at stake, signalling the failure of bargaining, then, the focus of management of the dispute shifts to negotiation. In negotiation, each party wants to induce change in other groups while accepting as little change as possible for itself (Ajayi, 2002). And when this happens, a party or other parties may result to military diplomacy in order to have upper hand in negotiation with the opponent.

Compromise is essential in bargaining and negotiation. It is a process which requires parties in a dispute to be ready to shift position, no matter how small, as against a fixated position. It is a process of securing of a win-win for all the parties rather a win-all and lose-all outcome. Compromise ensures that all disputing parties are satisfied with the outcome bargaining and negotiation processes.

Negotiation mechanism has been criticized as unduly promoting the image, profile and popularity of warlords through mass media coverage and thereby conferring on them some sort of public legitimacy who should ordinarily regarded as criminals (Kaldor, 2012).

Unlike diplomacy, bargaining and negotiation, mediation and conciliation processes involve the intervention of third parties. It is a signal that the disputing parties cannot manage their differences and disagreements by themselves. Both processes are facilitated by a third party. In both cases, the disputants willingly or voluntarily submit themselves for the neutral, external party's intervention. The mediator facilitates communication between the parties to enable a settlement. It is not the business of the mediator to either offer potential solutions or ensure that compromises will be honoured. The mediator's role is significantly to create the conditions for the parties to acknowledge that the conflict is a problem to themselves.

Conciliation, as third party conflict management mechanism, impartially examines all issues at stake and attempts to define the terms of settlement acceptable to the parties as may be requested by them (Merrills, 1984 cited in Ajayi, 2002-Conference Journal). As a requirement, the warring parties must willingly refer the conflict to the neutral body, who/which must be apparently seen as neutral, independent and impartial. In both mediation and conciliation, the terms of settlement of the dispute are not binding on the parties, they may accept or reject the outcomes. The conciliator could be individuals, a body or a commission set up for the purpose.

Arbitration is also a third party intervention in conflict management process. It is often employed to intervene in intractable conflicts, and it involves legal processes in resolving the conflict, based on the extant legal provisions. Under municipal laws, any party to a dispute can initiate arbitration before a competent court or tribunal with cognate jurisdiction on the matter at stake. The third party arbiters may be referred to as judges. However, under International Law, all parties to a dispute must agree to present their case before the International Court, which may be International Court of Justice (ICJ) or International Tribunals set up for specific cases. Once, all parties agreed to submit to the International Courts, the judgment outcomes are binding. The ICJ pronouncement of 2002, which ceded the ownership of the Bakassi Peninsula to Cameroon, remains binding on Nigeria. Arbitration mechanism, especially at the International level, is believed to be the most objective and impartial means of resolving conflicts. Cases before municipal courts can be influenced, particularly in soft states like Nigeria where the judicial systems can be compromised through corruption.

Peacekeeping and Peace enforcement are other strategies used in managing armed conflicts, which could be intra-state or inter-state in nature. Unlike diplomacy, bargaining, negotiation, mediation and arbitration, peacekeeping and peace enforcement involve the application of threat or actual use of force to secure peace or compel warring parties to resort to diplomacy and other means to resolve their disputes. Both peace-keeping and peace-enforcement are usually undertaken by international bodies, such as the United Nations, African Union, European Union, ECOWAS etc. Specifically, peace-keeping is interposition of military force between two warring states or groups in a violent conflict or war. The force is referred to as peace-keepers. The force creates a buffer Zone between the two hostile groups with a bid to stop exchange of fire. The peace-keepers must be absolutely neutral, and must not become part of the war by exchanging fire with any group. The mandate is purely to separate the two groups by inter-positioning the force between the two.

Peace-enforcement comes into play when peace-keeping enforce fails to stop crossfire hostilities either by one or all parties involved. It is simply the employment of force against any non-complaint actor to ensure embracing "negative peace" by the parties (Beswick and Jackson, 2007). The parties are forced to embrace peaceful negotiations which include bombing the military bases of the recalcitrant parties and thereby weakening the capacity to advance in the war and

consequently embrace non-violent means of resolving conflict.

Apart from these global conventional conflict management approaches, Africa has unique traditional ways of resolving conflicts and achieving peace in the society. The traditional methodology and techniques depend on the traditional beliefs and cultural behaviour of each society. In essence, there are variations from society to society, and they are unwritten protocols. These traditional/cultural techniques include:

- i. Intervention by traditional rulers and chiefs. Most traditional societies in Africa practice chiefdom. There are traditional chiefs in Zulu in South Africa, Kenya, Ghana etc. *Obas*, *Obis* and *Emirs* exist in the Yoruba, Igbo and Hausa-Fulani cultural settings in Nigeria. In the Yoruba setting, the Oba and his Chiefs resolve conflicts right from the quarters and ending at the Oba's palace. Only critical cases like the issues of tussle over land and contestation of chieftaincy positions get to the palace court. In many cases, the palace court serves as the Supreme Court with its decisions taken as final by the parties. The Chief Oba and the chiefs rely more on elderly wisdom and historical knowledge to arbitrate conflicts before them.
- ii. Oath-taking constitutes another effective means of resolving conflicts in many African societies. Oath-taking is a spiritual mechanism. Every society has its traditional belief system with shrines, ethics and unwritten codes of conduct. These cultural/traditional are often prejudicially and sneeringly referred to as "gods" or "deities" or "*orisa*". For instance, Ogun, Oya, Yemoja and Egungun etc. Each deity has its own shrine, creeds, code of dressing and symbols of worship. Ogun god is noted for a shrine composing irons/metal materials (cutlasses, hoes, guns etc) with palm fronds. Oya and Yemoja gods are associated with rivers. Sango god is associated with thunder and fire. Parties in a dispute in a particular cultural setting will be asked to swear into oath with the gods to proof his/her innocence on the issues of dispute, which could be on land ownership, adultery with another person's wife, murder case etc. The guilty often abhor the oath-taking for the fear of the spiritual implication, and may immediately plead guilty and consequently seek forgiveness. Swearing with gods of water (river), land (soil), air the sun, moon,

star, masquerade, Opon-Ifa and other symbols have their efficacy in resolving conflicts in traditional settings. Likewise, in the Indian cultural-religious setting, oath-taking with cow and the sun is common in some ethno-cultural groups.

- iii. Placing fetish symbols on the objects of contestation also has its efficacy in managing conflicts in traditional settings. Putting sacrificial palm fronds (*mariwo ope*) and charms (*oogun*) on any object in Yorubaland, will make those not having a rightful claim to it to retreat as the spiritual consequences could involve immediate death. The Igbo in Nigeria utilizes the efficacy of traditional shrines, masquerades and fearful statutes to mediate conflicts. It is the belief that only the innocent can swear with the gods and survive its consequences.
- iv. Nakedness through streets by sane adults is an abomination in the African cultural setting. Naked showing, especially by women, is as old as tradition and culture in many African systems. Naked showing by women portends bad omen and it is expected to bring bad fortunes to the targets involved in particular conflicts/crimes. For instance, in Yoruba culture, the Oba must not see naked women in protest against him. If he does, the Oba will either abdicate the throne voluntarily or wait to die mysteriously. This has become a potent tool to deal with tyrannical kings in the culture.

Beyond the traditional setting, naked showing, especially of the breasts is fast becoming popular in settling non-traditional conflicts such as political/electoral conflicts, issues of welfare by students and contractual financial conflicts by the rich and the elite. The 2007 governorship election in Ekiti State, Nigeria, was allegedly rigged by the party which won, the People's Democratic Party (PDP). The Action Congress of Nigeria (CAN) believes its candidate won the election. ACN adopted judicial and traditional means to reclaim the stolen mandate. Traditionally, the Women Wing of the party mobilized elderly women in the state to stage a public protest with naked breasts and invoking traditional curses on the electoral thieves (Ajayi, 2010). In the same vein, some women in Sanga, Kaduna State stripped naked before the Governor of the state to protest lack of security and indiscriminate killings in the community in 2014 (Thisday, 2014). In Akwalbom State, Nigeria, women members of the PDP threatened to parade the streets of the state capital, Uyo in protesting the alleged malpractice that characterized the party's governorship primary in

2014 (The Sun, 2014). Beyond the shore of Nigeria, University students in Witwaterstand, South Africa, publicly protested against with the naked breasts over hike in tuition fees and police brutality (Dachem, 2016; Thandiubani, 2016). Generally, naked protest by women is a taboo in Africa with mysterious consequences on targets. Nakedness has also employed to settle financial conflicts in relation to debt collection. It has become a tool to settle financial conflict between a money lender and a debtor who is unwilling to payback. In this instance, a businessman in Abuja, Nigeria stripped stark naked in front of his debtor's house and rained curses in order to compel to pay him back his money (Olowolagba, 2016). The debtor reportedly redeemed the debt immediately as the debtor knew the traditional implications of the creditor's actions. The involvement of this naked man reflects the fact that naked protest is not limited to women in African justice mechanism.

Sex is another non-conventional, peace-making instrument. Sex is a weapon of war as it is also a tool of achieving peace in the society. Rape as a sexual act on women, is employed by both soldiers and insurgents to weaken their opponents. It poses as a psychological and emotional violence not only on the women victims but also on the opposing belligerents and the entire community at the receiving end. Sex is also a tool for mandating conflict actors to embrace peace. In this situation, women decide to deny their spouses sex until men in opposing parties in a dispute come to terms and engage in diplomatic negotiations to end the conflict. This was the case in Kenya in 2010. The year's presidential election became a protracted violent conflict. The women in Kenya across party lines came together and agreed that they should deny their husbands sex until electoral conflict was resolved. Prostitutes in the country were also ordered to deny their clients same (Ajayi, 2010). The electoral dispute was eventually resolved without resorting to armed hostility.

The totality of the use of the traditional means to settle disputes is within the realm of alternative dispute resolution (ADR), which is fast becoming a vogue in the modern system. Its attraction as alternative paradigm to conflict management arose from its numerous advantages. ADR advocacy emerged and gained popularity because of the perceived pervasion of justice in the conventional courts, especially in the developing politics. Many of the judges are corrupt as they receive gratifications including bribe, and thereby compromise justice. Lately in Nigeria, three justices were sacked by the National Judicial Commission (NJC) for abusing their office by accepting gratifications from litigants before their courts

(Citifmonline, 2016), Similar disciplinary measures have also been meted to 21 corrupt judges in Ghana over proven cases of bribery and corruption (Sahara Reporters, 2015). Susskind and Weenstein (1980) have also noted that the contemporary courts are facing number of disputes, many of which are complex in nature. Apart from the fact that the courts are over-loaded, many of the judges lack the technical competence to effectively administer justice on the complex cases. These cases of over-loading and undue delay in determining judgments are not known to traditional and cultural justice systems.

Preventing Conflict Relapse: Concept and Components of Peace-building

Conflict transformation does not end with the termination of hostilities between warring parties. The termination of hostility is just a first phase in the process of managing violent/armed conflicts. The next stage is concerned post-conflict peace-building. The conventional peacemaking discussed deal more with the arrest of physical violence aspect of conflict while peace-building is more concerned with emotional and psychological aspects of transforming conflicts with a view to ameliorate the conditions that could cause a relapse of the conflict after the initial cessation. It is a process of un-trapping the conflict trap. Post-conflict management is more desirable in deeply divided societies, which could be along race, ethnic and faith. Re-integrating and reconciling the divides are often a big challenge in post-conflict societies.

How can conflict transformation be achieved across cultures? How can the ex-combatants be re-integrated into the society? Is there any room for forgiveness? How can conflict re-production and re-generation be prevented? Peace-building process provides the tools for over-coming these post-conflict challenges. In this seen, peace-building is technical explained as the intervention designed to prevent the start or resumption of violent conflict by creating sustainable peace (Wikipedia, 2016g). The process addresses the root causes of potential causes of violence create a societal expectation for conflict resolution and stabilize the society politically and socioeconomically (Wikipedia, 2016g). It is a mechanism of reconciling and normalizing relationship between former warring factors (Adebayo, 2013). Akpuru-Aja (2007) refers to peace-building as post-conflict confidence building measures. The central concerns of peace-building are to: One, preventing conflict relapse and, two, according to Wikipedia (2016g), ensuring improvement in human security after conflicts by all concerned actors including: government and agencies, non-governmental organizations, civil

society groups, the entire community and governmental international organizations, including peace-keepers; and non-governmental international humanitarian agencies (e.g the Red Cross, Rotary International etc).

Essentially, peace-building, according to Barnett *et al*, (2007) are three dimensions, which are:

1. Stabilizing the post-conflict
 2. Restoring state institutions; and
 3. Dealing with the social and economic issues
1. Stabilizing the post-conflict zone. The activities here aim at reinforcing the state's post-conflict stability and removing conditions that could make or encourage former combatants from seeing war attractive anymore. The basic mandates here include, which are referred to as the ADR, which encompasses:

- i. Disarmament
- ii. Demobilization, and
- iii. Re-integration.

Arms and ammunitions, and other weapons of war such as bows and arrows, machetes, cutlasses, knives etc are withdrawn from ex-combats on all sides and destroyed. Ex-combats can be encouraged to surrender their arms and ammunitions through regimes of compensation and amnesty. The ex-combats are needed to be re-integrated to the society. In most cases, ex-combats are scorned and negatively perceived by the society as killers and consequently should not live in the society with others. This thinking could be attributed to the failed referendum meant to validate the peace deal by Columbia with the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Columbia (FARC) which fought the country for 52 years. Fifty-six per cent (56%) of the electorates voted against the deal, claiming that they did not trust that the rebels would not return to war (New York Times, 2016). Series of psycho-assurance activities must be organized to ensuring that the former rebels are socially re-integrated with the rest of the society. The ex-combatants need to undergo mental and social re-orientation as to how to behave and relate with the rest of the civil society. The second component concerns re-building the state capacity to function effectively again by providing the basic infrastructure (public goods) for the post-conflict society to regain normal life. The third dimension is restoring or reinforcing the post-conflict's society to manage conflicts peacefully and promote socio-economic development.

Strategizing peace-enhancing frameworks for driving sustainable development

It has been nexussed that peace and development have symbiotic relationship. Peace, security and socio-political stability are basic

ingredients for development. Peace provides the contextual milieu and psycho-social conditions to muster and nurture development, In essence, without security and stability engineered by peace, there cannot be development at all levels of social formation-individual, family and community levels, local, state/provincial and national governments, regional and global levels.

Peace is also a scarce social commodity. It is not a free commodity like air. Conflict is easier to come-by than peace. Because peace is more difficult to come-by than conflict, it is therefore a scarce commodity with higher demand than its supply.

It is therefore necessary that societies and governments at all levels and the international system must pursue conditions that can produce and re-produce peace leading to security and stability for the purpose of achieving sustainable development for human race.

The following paradigms are therefore suggested:

Peace Marketing through Peace Education

Many people do not know the essentiality of peace, especially in the developing economies where unemployment among youths is on the high side. In such environment, people tend to see conflict as more attractive to peace. Peace, as a social commodity, needs to be marketed and constantly advertised like consumable goods and services.

Peace education becomes a best tool for marketing the peace product. Specifically, peace education is the “process of acquiring the values, the knowledge and developing the attitudes, skills, and the behaviour to live in harmony with oneself, with others, and with the natural environment” (Wikipedia, 2016h). Peace education is therefore a means of inculcating peace into the psychology, consciousness and thinking as desirable and profitable than conflict. The process demands that peace thinking must be taught at both formal and informal levels.

At the formal levels, including all categories of schools, from primary to the tertiary levels, peace education curriculum must be a compulsory subject like English Language. Also, at the informal levels, comprising homes, work-places, religious centres and other social gatherings such as marriage ceremonies, peace education be continuously delivered as profitable ventures for sustainable development. Non-violent means of settling disagreements and disputes, and conflict management skills will constitute components of the peace education curriculum.

Good Governance for Social Justice

Peace cannot prevail where social injustice is a domineering phenomenon. Gross inequality in any society will lead to a situation where most people will be wallowing in abject poverty while a few is stupendously rich. Such a society can neither know peace nor development. The mass poor will not allow the few rich to enjoy its wealth. Crime commission will be high. The growing economic inequality in Nigeria in the contemporary Nigeria is the direct catalyst for such crimes as the Boko Haram insurgency in the Northeast, the militancy in the Niger Delta, Kidnapping as an “economic venture” across Nigeria, armed robbery, drug and human trafficking. Unless the wide gap between the rich and the poor is abridged, it will be impossible to achieve relative peace that can drive development.

Good governance at all levels is therefore desired. This can be achieved by designing policies that can promote human welfare and relative equality in the society. Re-distribution of public resources through policies such as free education or making education affordable for all through reduction of school fees at all levels in nation’s education system and re-industrialization of the economy to alleviate the current mass unemployment among youths. Currently, about 70 million youths are jobless. This large population of idle hands cannot but precipitate aggressive violence and crimes in the society arising from frustration. Corruption in both the public and private sectors must also be checked to provide enough resources for funding social amenities and development programmes.

Promoting Agriculture for Food Security

No nation can achieve peace and development where the majority of the population is hungry. Food availability in large quantity will ensure food security and make food items affordable to all. Most Nigerians are hungry as they lack the economic capacity to buy foods. The current galloping inflation in the country has hiked the prices of food items beyond the reach of the poor who are in the majority in the country. Developing the agricultural sector for food security and the promotion of the agro-industrial economy is essential. Any nation that cannot feed its populace through its agricultural produce cannot achieve sustainable peace and development.

Religious Centres and Peace Evangelism

Religious centres including churches, mosques and traditional shrines are veritable avenues for peace evangelism. As religion can serve as generator and accelerator of violence, it can also be positively used to prevent violent conflict and

advance peace. The faithful should be constantly challenged to serve peace-makers and peace-builders in their communities. Congregation members should be trained in the skills of conflict management, resolution and peace building through regular seminars, workshops and regular preaching.

There are about 38,000 church denominations in the world (World Video Bible School, 2016). Nigeria is endowed with the highest number of churches, probably more than any other country in the world. In Nigeria, and Africa as whole, there are more churches and mosques than schools, research centres and industries (Afrikan news and History, 2013), and Nigeria is among the top 10 most religious nations in the world (Afrikan News and History, 2013). Nigeria, at a crude calculation, cannot have less than five (50) million churches nationwide with about 500,000 to one million in Lagos alone. These rich religious resources should be converted to avenues for preaching and evangelizing peace.

Mass Media and Peace Journalism

The mass media such as television, radio, the social media and the press have a global reach to billions of people. This is made possible by the advancement in Information and Communication Technology (ICT). The world is now enjoying globalized media which made live streaming of happenings in the world possible to all at the same time, no matter the location and time. The media can be abused to serve as tool for violence by media actors; journalists and reporters. But it is better if the global reach power of the mass media is harnessed to promote peace education and report less of violence.

Investing in Peace Research and Popularizing Peace and Conflict Studies

With particular reference to Nigeria, governments at all levels need to invest in peace research. No amount is too much to secure peace because of precursory importance for development. Government should devote funds to establish Institutes/Departments of Peace and Conflict Studies or Peace and Security Studies in all Public Universities. Only about five universities, including Ekiti State University, have the study of Peace, Conflict and Security as a discipline. Peace is desired by all and therefore, everyone has a role in achieving it. Peace and Conflict Studies and other related Studies should be made up to all subject combinations as qualified for the study. The discipline should be well funded so that it can come up with cutting-edge research findings on how to prevent violence and achieve relative peace for sustainable development in the society.

Establishing Peace Corps in all Schools and Tertiary Institutions

Government should establish Peace Corps in all schools, from primary to tertiary levels. This could be in forms of clubs and associations with voluntary membership like Boys Scout, Boys Brigade, Girls Brigade, Man O'war etc. Corps members should serve as propagators and evangelists of peace, engaging in peace education and denouncing violence in their dealings. Propagating peace culture and marketing peace as a worthwhile enterprise for development.

Government Commitment to Sustainable Development Goals (SDG)

The United Nations SDGB is a comprehensive package on how sustainable development and achieve reduction in poverty can be achieved in all countries of the world. The package, which was adopted on 25 September, 2015, has 17 component goals, which are; No Poverty; Zero Hunger; Good Health and Well-Being; Quality Education, Gender Equality; Clean Water and Sanitation; Affordable and Clean Water and Sanitation; Affordable and Clear Energy; Decent Work and Economic Growth; Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure; Reduced Inequality; Sustainable Cities and Communities; Responsible Consumption and Production. Others are: Climate Actions; Life Below Water; Life on Land; Peace Justice and Strong Institutions, and, Partnership for the Goals. The goals are set principally to "end poverty, protect the planet and ensure prosperity for all" (United Nations, 2016). The philosophy of the goods which are to be achieved by 2030 as deadline, is that if the enabling conditions or facilities are removed through the 17 key components, the avenues for conflict and violence would be reduced in all communities, states and the international system. The Commitment of everyone, civil society, groups, organizations, the private sector and principally, governments is cardinal to achieving the goals. Governments at all levels in Nigeria are therefore challenged to show commitment to achieving the goals. The current economic recession in the country is a limitation to the accomplishment of the goals. The Federal, State and Local governments in the country must provide emergency solution to overcoming the recession so as to discourage conditions that can deepen violent conflicts generation in the country. The aftermath of the economic hardship is already manifesting in the rising rate of kidnapping, armed robbery, sexual violence (rape), renewed military in the Niger Delta and upsurge in cases of human and drugs trafficking.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The Study has been to establish, through the analysis of some contending theories, the pre-dispositional and precipitating factors, accelerators and triggers of conflict and war in societies. No single theory is satisfactory enough for the analysis of conflict, and therefore, literature is awash with avalanche of theories. This implies that, conflict and peace researches are in the active mode rather than dormant. The varied views reflect and affirm the dynamism in conflict as a social process and a subject of study.

Peace and conflict are nexussed with sustainable development. Without peace, there cannot be development, and under-development will always trail societies enveloped in protracted armed conflict. The forging of synergy between peace and development therefore makes the management and resolution of conflicts to become an imperative for all societies, nations and the interventional community. The need to combine conventional conflict management techniques with traditional alternative dispute resolution is advocated. Not all cases can be justly and effectively adjudicated in courts and tribunals. The issue of land ownership in Nigeria is more of a family issue that can be best resolved through cultural justice system involving the elders.

Governments in Nigeria must be committed through appropriate policies aimed at promoting social justice, gender equality, environmental justice, mass employment through agro-industry and non-agro-industries. Governments at all levels must muster the political will to sufficiently invest and market the peace enterprise for the overall stability and security of the state as prerequisite conditions for sustainable development.

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PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS TO FUOYE 2016 RUSAN AGM AND STEWARDSHIP REPORT

Prof Ladele, A. A.

Presidential address at the formal opening ceremony of the 25th Annual Congress of the Rural Sociological Association of Nigeria (RuSAN) held on 10th October, 2016 at Federal University, Oye Ekiti, Ekiti state, Nigeria

INTRODUCTION

Protocols:

The National Executive Council of RuSAN,
Chairman and Members of COC, FUOYE 2016
Distinguished Guests of honour
Delegates of RuSAN 2016 congress

First let me express gratitude to God almighty for grace to have another AGM after the last one held at LAUTECH in 2015. I would also like to commend all who made it a point of duty to still participate in this year's congress, despite the economic recession, political and social instability we cope with at the national level. It is a demonstration of our belief in the course of RuSAN as a professional body.

This congress being an election year, I would like to take some time to the milestone against the mission of our Association and the agenda I desired we should embark upon within my tenure as President. I have decided to step aside to pave way for better achievements that will take us to next level. It would appear there would significance shakeup in the NEC, as some other positions might be vacant according to informed grapevine.

I would like to remind us what I presented as my vision/agenda in 2012 as follows:

My Vision/Agenda for RuSAN [2012 -2014]

Vision: *To make RuSAN to come up amongst the leading professional associations in Nigeria, that is able to overtly identify with the plights of the Nigeria rural community; and contribute towards a sustainable rural transformation in Nigeria; and by extension across the globe.*

Agenda

1. *Get in touch with policy makers through taking interest in their programmes concerning the rural folks and as much as possible contributing to such.*
2. *Partner with relevance research institutes, development agencies and NGOs on research and development activities considered beneficial to the rural sector of our economy.*
3. *Link up to the rural sector/farmers through grassroots linkages [with CBOs, rural leaders and local government authorities]. Effort would be made to sensitize and technically empower them through*

awareness creation, advocacy, back-stopping and training.

4. *Link the grassroots to the policy makers to participate effectively in policy making.*
5. *Activate the zonal/state chapter of RuSAN for effective RandD activities at the local levels to move the Association beyond the monolithic annual congress at the national level.*
6. *Update all records/database [both administrative and financial records] of NRSA.*
7. *Networking:*
 - a. *Generate membership directory [both e-copy annually and hard copy bi-annually].*
 - b. *Linkage/Affiliation to International Rural Sociology Association and African Rural Sociological Association.*
 - c. *Membership drive-wooing inactive and new members from the growing university system, ADPs, NGOs and Farmers' Associations.*

While it might take quite some time to achieve our laudable vision, it is easily discernable if the journey thus far is a drawback, stagnancy or progress, through how much of the agenda have been realised.

The modest achievement that we might have made is arrogated to the entire membership and the executive members under my leadership. I would like to briefly outline our major successes in the last four years.

- a) Registration of the Association as a professional body with Corporation Organisation Commission.
- b) Establishment and sustained maintenance of our website, through which we register our Association's internationally and process of publications by online submission of articles.
- c) Continuous publications our proceedings and two issues of our journal annually without any itch.
- d) Yearly national annual congress held with any break.
- e) Interactive sessions with the grassroots during some of our congresses thus deepening our linkage with the rural folks.
- f) Take off of state chapter agenda, with several states at varying level activities and

at least one branch (RuSAN Rivers State Chapter), duly and firmly inaugurated.

- g) Financial solvency, though we still have a lean pursue.
- h) Development of membership database.
- i) Crafting our congress themes towards critical and contemporary social challenges, thus reawakening the interest of sociologists and other social scientists to our agenda.
- j) Constitution review towards structuring our march to the contemporary realities.
- k) Improving our international presence by the approval of RuSAN as associate member of International Rural Sociology Association.

It could be seen that except at individual levels where our members were able to penetrate the policy arena in advisory or / and consultancy engagement, we still have a lot to do as a body. Our limited success in this area could not be dissociated from the distracted nature of our political class and technocrats. This implies more needs to be learnt to be able to penetrate this sector, for more progressive development agenda. Our achievement in grassroots linkage might also appear thin collectively, many of our members are impressively reaching out diversely across the nation. This is evident by activities posted in socio-media and the RandD reports.

It is however expected that with the growing state chapter agenda, much more in these realms could be achieved. While our accomplishments might not be all that we could have possibly done, I guest majority will agreed with me that we have not done badly judging from where we were coming from. We have been able to advance the hard work of the founding fathers at least to a significant extent.

At this juncture I would like to implore the incoming executive to continue where we stopped and set for herself realistic goals towards deepening

and broadening the impact we should make on rural development.

I should express my profound appreciation to all members of the National Executive Committee of RuSAN and particularly those who have doggedly volunteered their time, intellect, financial and social resources for the good of RuSAN for about a decade. In this class, I have our Vice President I, Professor Yomi-Alfred; Treasurer, Dr. Modupe Adebode and the General Secretary, Dr. Banji Adisa.

I wish we could still have a good number of this outgoing executive membership in the next, so as to keep certain useful aspects of our historical antecedence.

Those our members who have served in one committee or the other and particularly, our reviewers and the editorial team, headed by our indefatigable Editor-in-Chief, Professor Ademola Kuponiyi. I also thank all the members of this great association who have stood with the association during her hazy days.

I also thank and bless our new members who are our hope for a brighter future. May the almighty God bless our laudable aspirations for the down trodden rural folks with great success. I would like us to know that in the annals of rural sociology, rural sociologists of the developed nations, particularly in the United State of America, contributed to proffering lasting solutions to social problems at critical stages of their development. We therefore, professionally have a greater stake in the social upheavals that permeate our nation in recent time.

Long live, RuSAN; long live Nigeria.

Thank you all and God bless

Prof. Ademola A. Ladele
Out-going RuSAN President
 2012 to 2016

AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND VALUE CHAIN STRATEGIES IN NIGERIA

¹Obademi, A. O. and ²Ivande, P. D.

¹Educational Foundations and General Studies, Federal University of Agriculture, Makurdi

²Home Science and Management, Federal University of Agriculture, Makurdi

Correspondent contact details: agnfunkebademi@yahoo.com, ivandepd@yahoo.com, 08039785691

ABSTRACT

This paper examined the importance of value chain strategies on agricultural development in Nigeria. How value chain can be used whereby small-stake holder farmers are linked to markets, finance, inputs, equipment and information through larger commercial farmers and traders who had the capacity to invest in the chains. Various historical sources were consulted to get the necessary information on the value chain agricultural programme. The value chain agricultural programme centres on the ability of small-stake holder farmers to increase the efficiency of their farm business with improved production and post-harvest handling practices. Innovative value-added activities developed on farms or at agricultural experiment stations are sources of national growth through changes either in the kind of product or in the technology of production. The paper concluded that to achieve agricultural development goals, the value chain approach should be used to solve a major national problem.

Keywords: Value chain, Agricultural Development.

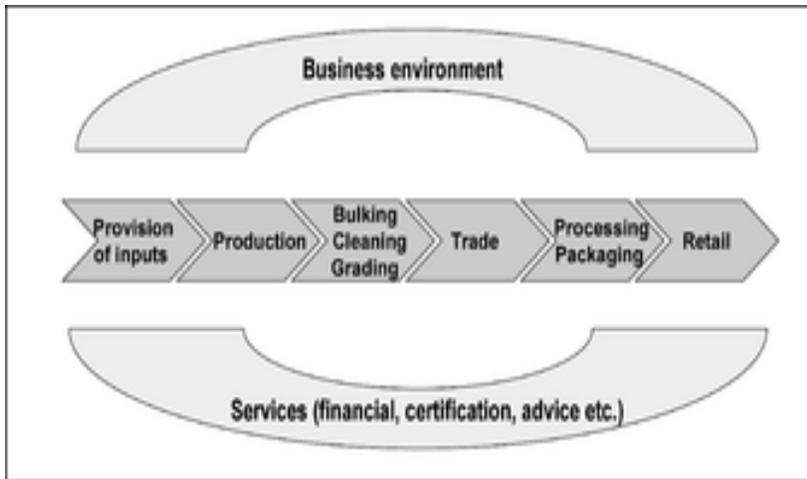
INTRODUCTION

The agricultural value chain concept has been used since the beginning of the millennium, primarily by those working in agricultural development in developing countries. Although there is no universally accepted definition of the term, it normally refers to the whole range of goods and services necessary for an agricultural product to move from the farm to the final customer or consumer (Henriksen, Riisgaard, Ponte, Hardtwich and Kormawa, 2014).

In general, value chain is the process of changing or transforming a product from its original state to a more valuable state. Many raw commodities have intrinsic value in their original state. For example, field corn grown, harvested and stored on a farm and then fed to livestock on that farm has value. In fact, value usually is added by feeding it to an animal, which transforms the corn into animal protein or meat. The value of a changed product is added value, such as processing wheat into flour. It is important to identify the value-added activities that will support the necessary investment in research, processing and marketing. The application of biotechnology, the engineering of food from raw

products to the consumers and the restructuring of the distribution system to and from the producer all provides opportunities for adding value (Akridge, Donwey, Hariing, Barnard and Baker, 1997).

A broad process of value chain is to economically add value to a product by changing its current place, time and from one set of characteristics to other characteristics that are more preferred in the marketplace. As a specific example, a more narrow definition would be to economically add value to an agricultural product (such as wheat) by processing it into a product (such as flour) desired by customers (such as bread bakers). Producers involved in adding value should think of themselves as members of a food company that processes and markets product to consumers. Often, this involves building processing plants in the producers' geographical regions to process locally produced crops or animals. However, another model has occurred, which involves building the processing plant wherever it is most feasible and profitable, such as closer to where the final products will be marketed (Hailu, 2014). This implies that it is the whole range of goods and services necessary for an agricultural product to move from the farm to the final consumer.



Value chain representation
Source: Hailu, 2014

The term value chain was first popularised in a book published in 1985 by Porter (1998), who used it to illustrate how companies could achieve what he called “competitive advantage” by adding value within their organisation. Subsequently the term was adopted for agricultural development purposes and has now become very much in vogue among those working in this field, with an increasing number of bilateral and multilateral aid organisations using it to guide their development interventions (Hailu, 2014).

At the heart of the agricultural value chain concept is the idea of actors connected along a chain producing and delivering goods to consumers through a sequence of activities. However, this “vertical” chain cannot function in isolation and an important aspect of the value chain approach is that it also considers “horizontal” impacts on the chain, such as input and finance provision, extension support and the general enabling environment. The approach has been found useful, particularly by donors, in that it has resulted in a consideration of all those factors impacting on the ability of farmers to access markets profitably, leading to a broader range of chain interventions. It is used both for upgrading existing chains and for donors to identify market opportunities for small farmers. (Hailu, 2014). Deducible from the above is the fact that the major focus of the value chain programme is concerned with ways of linking producers and hence the value chain.

Conceptualising “Agricultural Value Chain”

There is no commonly agreed definition of what is actually meant by agricultural value chains. Indeed, some agencies are using the term without having a workable definition or definitions and simply redefined ongoing activities as “value chain”

work when the term came into vogue. Published definitions include the World Bank’s “the term ‘value chain’ describes the full range of value adding activities required to bring a product or service through the different phases of production, including procurement of raw materials and other inputs”, UNIDO’s “actors connected along a chain producing, transforming and bringing goods and services to end-consumers through a sequenced set of activities”, and CIAT’s “a strategic network among a number of business organisations” (Lundy, Gottret, Ostertag, Best and Ferris, 2014).

Without a universal definition the term “value chain” is now being used to refer to a range of types of chain, including:

- An international or regional commodity market. Examples could include “the global cotton value chain”, “the southern African maize value chain” or “the Brazilian coffee value chain”;
- A national or local commodity market or marketing system such as “the Ghanaian tomato value chain” or “the Accra tomato value chain”;
- A supply chain, which can cover both of the above;
- An extended supply chain or marketing channel, which embraces all activities needed to produce the product, including information/extension, planning, input supply and finance. It is probably the most common usage of the value chain term;
- A dedicated chain designed to meet the needs of one or a limited number of buyers. This usage, which is arguably most faithful to Porter’s concept, stresses that a value chain is designed to capture value for all

actors by carrying out activities to meet the demand of consumers or of a particular retailer, processor or food service company supplying those consumers. Emphasis is firmly placed on demand as the source of the value (Lundy, *et al.*, 2014)

Value Chain Methodologies

Donors and others supporting agricultural development, such as GIZ, DFID, ILO, IIED and UNIDO, have produced a range of documents designed to assist their staff and others to evaluate value chains in order to decide on the most appropriate interventions to either update existing chains or promote new ones. However, the application of value chain analysis is being interpreted differently by different organizations, with possible repercussions for their development impact. The proliferation of guides has taken place in an environment where key conceptual and methodological elements of value chain analysis and development are still evolving. Many of these guides include not only detailed procedures that require experts to carry out the analysis but also use detailed quasi-academic methodologies (Henriksen, *et al.*, 2014).

Approaches to Value chain

Value Chain to products can be accomplished in a number of different ways, but generally falls into one of two main types: innovation or coordination. In general, the problem is to evaluate what, where, how and who can efficiently perform the marketing functions as stated by ACDI/VOCA, (2015) including the following:

Innovation

Innovation focuses on improving existing processes, procedures, products and services or creating new ones. Often, successful value-added ideas focus on very narrow, highly technical, geographically large markets where competition is sparse. Innovative value-added activities developed on farms or at agricultural experiment stations are sources of national growth through changes either in the kind of product or in the technology of production. By encouraging innovative ideas, adding value becomes a reality.

Innovation also can come from research about alternative crops that can be grown successfully by producers to replace traditional crops. Value-added producers are able to economically profit by growing these alternative crops instead of traditional crops. Some alternative crops that show promise include industrial hemp for its fiber, kenaf for fibre, and castor bean for its oil.

Industrial Innovation

A specific type of innovation is industrial innovation, which is processing traditional crops into

non food end uses. These value-adding innovative activities use the research and emphasis that has been placed on finding industrial, non food uses for common agricultural products. Several innovative processes have been developed to transform traditional crops into non food products. Examples of these ventures include producing ethanol from corn, biodiesel from soybeans and particleboard from straw.

Coordination

Coordination focuses on arrangements among those that produce and market farm products. Horizontal coordination involves pooling or consolidation among individuals or companies from the same level of the food chain. An example would be hog producers combining their market hogs to make a truckload. Vertical coordination includes contracting, strategic alliances, licensing agreements and single ownership of multiple market stages in different levels of the food chain. Vertical coordination, either through ownership integration or contractual arrangements, is necessary to link production processes and product characteristics to the preferences of consumers and processors.

Fundamental changes through coordination are altering traditional marketing relationships that link consumers, food retailers and wholesalers, food processors and producers. However, individual producers usually do not have sufficient levels of production to effectively produce process and market their products. Few individuals possess all of the very different skills necessary for processing, marketing and business management, as well as staying efficient with their production enterprises. Therefore, a coordinated effort is needed to increase market efficiency or cost reduction. Many observers believe that both upstream and downstream linkages of processors will continue to increase in the 21st century.

Vertical Integration

Complete vertical integration is to align and control all of the segments of a production and marketing system under single ownership. The factors aligned and controlled are price, quantity, quality and transactional terms of exchange. Producers who invest in value-added projects past the farm gate cause the market to become more vertically integrated. A totally integrated system can provide consistent quality from the field to the shelf, eliminating middlemen and even saving money for consumers. Integration downstream towards consumers by producers commonly involves an equity investment for processing, sometimes by means of a producer owned business. So, producer owned businesses are positioned uniquely for further integration in food processing. The success of these

value-added ventures hinges on thorough planning and implementation.

Value Chain Strategies for Agricultural Development in Nigeria

There is no one strategy or group of strategies that can be said to be value chain strategy for all agricultural production activities in Nigeria. This is because value chain strategies according to crops and are operationalised in the context of a particular crop from the production level to the delivery of such crops to the final consumer. The above notwithstanding, this paper suggests the following as value chain strategies for agricultural development in Nigeria.

Developing and strengthening of input market

This is a critical intervention that can result in increased access for farmers to farm inputs and services leading to higher profits. Both physical products such as planting materials (seed), irrigation, fertiliser, chemicals and packaging materials as well as market services such as pest management, technical information on farm management, storage, transportation and market information services need to be developed and strengthened to enhance the growth of the subsector. For (O.A deleted) Ibeagha and (P.A deleted) Onwualu (2005) Government departments need to revisit the existing input delivery mechanism and explore alternative ways to provide these inputs and services. With their help, value chain operators can function on a more commercial basis and make sustainable profits. The (Current deleted) effort being made by the Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development tagged the “E-Wallet system” should be sustained and expanded to enable farmers to have access to inputs at the right time and cost.

Provision of improved quality seedlings/fingerlings is a key factor to ensure higher productivity and agricultural development. A vast majority of farmers cannot acquire good quality seedlings; they rely on their own seedlings grown locally without proper technical understanding or on those from the wild. It is therefore recommended that private nurseries need to be supported to function on a commercial basis to produce quality seedlings. (It is also recommended that research institutes Deleted). Fertilisers are also provided through government but many farmers do not apply chemical fertilisers on their agricultural crops; instead they prefer to use farmyard manure. This means that the customer base is very weak for private enterprises to sell fertilisers, and also that farmers who want to use fertilisers cannot get them at the right time. Hence, awareness needs to be created among growers about the positive effects of fertilisers on yield and quality. This will increase the demand leading to expansion

of the customer base, which will encourage the private sector to get into this business.

Linking Farmers to Markets

A major subset of value chain development work is concerned with ways of linking producers to companies, and hence into the value chains (Shepherd, 2014). While there are examples of fully integrated value chains that do not involve smallholders (e.g. Unilever operates tea estates and tea processing facilities in Kenya and then blends and packs the tea in Europe before selling it as Lipton, Brooke Bond or PG Tips brands), the great bulk of agricultural value chains involve sales to companies from independent farmers. Such arrangements frequently involve contract farming in which the farmer undertakes to supply agreed quantities of a crop or livestock product, based on the quality standards and delivery requirements of the purchaser, often at a price that is established in advance. Companies often also agree to support the farmer through input supply, land preparation, extension advice and transporting produce to their premises (Eaten and Shepherd, 2014).

Work to promote market linkages in developing countries is often based on the concept of “inclusive value chains”, which usually places emphasis on identifying possible ways in which small-scale farmers can be incorporated into existing or new value chains or can extract greater value from the chain, either by increasing efficiency or by also carrying out activities further along the chain (Haggblade, Theriout, Staatz, Dembele and Diallo, 2014).

Agricultural Value Chain Finance

Agricultural value chain finance is concerned with the flows of funds to and within a value chain to meet the needs of chain actors for finance, to secure sales, to buy inputs or produce, or to improve efficiency. Examining the potential for value chain finance involves a holistic approach to analyse the chain, those working in it, and their inter-linkages. These linkages allow financing to flow through the chain. For example, inputs can be provided to farmers and the cost can be repaid directly when the product is delivered, without need for farmers taking a loan from a bank or similar institution (FAO, 2014). This is common under contract farming arrangements. Types of value chain finance include product financing through trader and input supplier credit or credit supplied by a marketing company or a lead firm. Other trade finance instruments include receivables financing where the bank advances funds against an assignment of future receivables from the buyer, and factoring in which a business sells its accounts receivable at a discount. Also falling under value chain finance is asset

collateralisation, such as on the basis of warehouse receipts, and risk mitigation, such as forward contracting, futures and insurance (Miler and Jones, 2014).

Raising Awareness and Capacity Development

Inadequate knowledge and awareness is one of the critical constraints that results in low yield and high post-harvest losses. More efforts are needed toward capacity development in planting of good quality seedlings, use of appropriate amounts of fertiliser, control of diseases and pests, and improved harvesting and post-harvesting techniques (including sorting, grading, packing and arrangement for safe transportation).

In an age of globalisation that is largely driven by the information and communication Technology, the strategy of raising awareness and capacity development can be made increasingly possible through the ICT. The ICTs, have become an important tool in promoting agricultural value chain efficiency. There has been a rapid expansion in the use of mobile technologies, in particular. The price of ICT services is falling and the technologies are becoming more affordable to many in developing countries. Applications can support farmers directly through SMS messages. Examples include iCow, developed in Kenya, which provides information on the gestation period, on artificial insemination of the cows, and on how to look after them. Applications such as M-Pesa can support access to mobile payment services for a large percentage of those without banks, thereby facilitating transactions in the value chain. Other applications have been developed to promote provision of crop insurance through input dealers, for example (Innovative insurance by mobile 2014).

ICTs are also being used to strengthen the capacity of extension officers and NGO field staff to reach farmers with timely and accurate information and, at the same time, help capture data from the field.

Enabling Environments

As with all agricultural growth, two things appear essential for successful value chain development: creating the right environment for agriculture and investing in rural public goods. An enabling environment implies peace and public order, macro-economic stability, inflation under control, exchange rates based on market fundamentals rather than government allocation of foreign currency, predictable taxation that is reinvested in public goods and property rights. There is a positive correlation of agricultural growth with investment in irrigation, transport infrastructure and other technologies (Wiggins, 2014). Governments have a responsibility to provide essential goods and services,

infrastructure, such as rural roads, and agricultural research and extension. Value chain development is often constrained by corruption, both at a high level and at the ubiquitous road blocks found in many countries, particularly in Africa. Many measures to improve value chains require collaboration between a wide range of different ministries, and this can be difficult to achieve (Pre-Smith, 2014).

Commodities vs. Products

The produce-and-then-sell mentality of the commodity business is being replaced by the strategy of first determining what attributes consumers want in their food products and then creating or manufacturing products with those attributes. With the continuous shifting to a global economy, the international market for value-chain products is growing. Market forces have led to greater opportunities for product differentiation and added value to raw commodities because of:

1. Increased consumer demands regarding health, nutrition and convenience;
2. Efforts by food processors to improve their productivity; and
3. Technological advances that enable producers to produce what consumers and processors desire.
4. Producers involved with adding value will become more than commodity producers absorbing all the shocks brought about by global markets in this transitional period of agriculture. They will think of themselves as producing products for end users, instead of producing only raw commodities. For example, beef producers produce table-ready meat instead of finished (slaughter-ready) animals.

No longer content to sell raw commodities, some producers are striving for a larger share of the food dollar. These projects range from:

1. Adding value to hogs, cattle, bison, fish and eggs to
2. Marketing crops like organically grown grains, potatoes, carrots, beans, tomatoes and corn for sweeteners and fuels, to
3. Producing specialty cheeses and even alfalfa-based biomass for a local power plant.

Producers have a challenge to be responsive to consumer demands by producing what is desired. Attentiveness to consumer demands in quality, variety and packaging are important, because demographic trends show growth in the convenience-oriented, health-conscious and environmentally concerned sectors where price is not as important as quality. (Barkema and Drabensstott, 1996). Because value-added research is important, producers might

examine competitive advantages obtainable with processed products compared to raw commodities.

Development of Farmer Institutions and Clusters

There is a need to start up and strengthen existing farm clusters and extend assistance with material support. Numerous crops/farmer professional organisations and research centers exist in Nigeria, time and space does not allow us to account for them in full but what is imperative is the fact that they should be strengthened. This will help farmers to get organised, share knowledge and information on particular crops and become better entrepreneurs. The clusters could function as a part of a commercial business under joint profit-sharing mechanisms guided by a business contract, co-operation, and share-holding.

This can be part of the current staple crop processing zones being promoted by the Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development. Such Clusters require support in the area of the business skill development, technology, marketing and finance. They also need capacity building to acquire the necessary skill required to access various funding windows from Bank of Agriculture (BOA), Bank of Industry (BOI) and other development finance institutions as well as foreign donor agencies.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the foregoing, attempts have been made to explicate on the importance of value chain in the agricultural development in Nigeria. It (must be deleted) emphasised that value chain is a means of achieving agricultural development goals and if it is adequately utilised in the society. It will encourage quality products and processing operations for agro productivity programmes.

On the basis of the findings, the following are recommended:

1. There should be input service providers to improve agricultural businesses by using information and communication technology (ICT) for effective message delivery to farmers, aggregators, and industrial buyers. The primary focus of using ICT for outreach is to significantly lower the costs of delivering information, reducing risks from investment and facilitating electronic payments to minimize delays.
2. Producer, trade, business associations and radio stations should benefit by either receiving or providing services or being linked to supply chains.
3. Crop demonstration sites should be set up to show farmers how to achieve higher productivity through good agricultural and post-harvest handling practices.

Construction of large capacity warehouses should be built to improve post-harvest handling.

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ASSESSMENT OF EFFECTS OF FARMERS-HERDSMEN CONFLICTS ON RESOURCE SUSTAINABILITY IN OYO STATE, NIGERIA

¹Owolade, E. O., ²Adamu, O. C. and ²Lawal-Adebowale, A. O.

¹Federal College of Animal Health and Production Technology, Ibadan, Nigeria

²Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Development, Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria

Correspondent contact details: funmilayoowolade@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

This study described the traditional relationship between farmers and Fulani herdsmen in the incessant resource conflict witnessed in Oyo state, Nigeria and how it affects livelihood security of those involved and resource sustainability for the communities. The study relied extensively on a research conducted in Saki-west local government of Oyo state in which major causes of conflicts in the study area were identified. These conflicts are mostly responsible for unsustainable utilization of land divergent value system in the country. Destruction of farm crops by the herdsmen places restraint on effective utilization of arable farmland among other destructions of available resources. It is understood that these conflicts have roots in the land tenure systems, indigenes contest over land and misplaced development strategies of government. The study concluded that there is the need for state resolution of the critical issues of the conflict such as land tenure system and setting up of institutions that will settle the conflicts for lasting solutions to be evolved.

Keywords: Conflicts, farmers-herdsmen conflict, land, resources, sustainable land use

INTRODUCTION

The incessant resource conflicts witnessed in the tropics have resulted in loss of lives, properties and environmental degradation as also witnessed in some developed countries such as Balkans (Hellstrom, 2001; Niemella *et al*, 2005). The Fulani herds men have borne a large proportion of the blame for most conflict and environmental degradation in policy statements in the Guinea Savannah region of West African states (Thebaud and Batterbury, 2001).

The production potential of grassland and livestock in the arid and semi-arid region is constrained by low and variable rainfall (Thebaud and Batterbury, 2001; Ifatimehin, 2008). Therefore, there is a need for grazing movements to access pasture resources across regions in order to ensure food security for the herds. Hence, pastures, woody vegetation, water resources and land are taken as a common property resource as reported by Berger (2003). But the complex land-use system that has changed markedly over time has culminated in the present day tension and conflicts between herds man and host communities.

Crops, livestock's, water resources and other vegetal resources played key roles in the development, maintenance and projection of socio-economic strength of a society (Schama, 1996). The Fulani herdsmen livelihood strategies had resulted in conflicts over the destruction of crops. The environmental degradation is perceived to be contributing enormously to the deterioration in ecosystem services to the environment of various communities.

The increased provision of social services in towns, such as health centers, schools, and food aid as well as the increased economic opportunities has

led to settlement and concentration of grazing in areas around such towns (Haro and Doyo 2005). These new unplanned settlements, together with their foreseen and unforeseen implications, are providing the basis for us to painfully learn that environmental resources are finite as human economy (population and resource utilization) has exceeded them and are becoming limited as unsustainable utilization affects human, social, economic and environmental sustainability.

Economically viable land have been a major cause of conflict between communities in Nigeria and specifically (Areola *et al.*, 1992; Gbehe, 2007) in the Saki-west region of Oyo state, Nigeria. Otite and Albert (1999) pointed out that the pursuit of access to a variety of limited resources which include chieftaincy position, power and status, grasslands, markets, water spots for animals, rival claims to land, government policies, leadership of political parties etc. by individuals differentiated by different categories in defined socio-physical environments give rise to conflicts.

A study of major sources of conflict in Oyo State revealed that land matter accounted for the highest percentage (42.9) of conflicts followed by political (32.08%) and chieftaincy matters (28.3%). A high percentage of conflicts arising from land disputes have to do with land matters and conflict between Fulani herdsmen and farmers over grazing land. The State has played a key role in the conflicts over land from three critical levels, viz:

- a. The State inability to address the indigene and settler phenomenon in the Nigerian Constitution;
- b. The unresolved issues on grazing land and water spots that are central to the economic

survival of both the herdsmen and the farming communities;

- c. The Nigerian land tenure system which has had serious implications for land acquisition by the peasants and the lower class.

The various conflicts that ensued between Fulani herdsmen and farmers arose from the destruction of farm lands by herds of cattle. Government at various levels (federal, state and local) have not addressed the issue of adequate provision of grazing reserves to accommodate the interest of herdsmen who are always on the move to secure food and water for their herds. The socio-economic lives of both the farmers and the herdsmen revolve around land and therefore, land matters become easily conflictual.

Another critical issue that is related to land is the phenomenon of indigeneship in Nigeria. The factor of indigeneship confers on individual the right to own land. Boh (2007) and Gbehe (2007) in their separate works pointed out that Land in most communities in Nigeria such as among the Tiv people in the Benue valley, is freighted with symbolic meaning, it is sacred and considered as an ancestral and historical sphere of influence. On the strength of this, therefore, conflicts over land are usually fierce with massive destructions of lives and properties.

Studies have shown that conflicts arose in Saki-west, Oyo as a result of loss of land which the people considered as the basis of their social, economic and spiritual existence. Attempt to discount the people from this ancestral heritage usually resulted in large scale conflict. Similarly, in the studies carried out by Egwu (2009) it is the author's opinion that the 1999 Nigerian Constitution is deficient in the provisions dealing with

indigeneship/settler phenomenon. The author proffered a review of the Constitution with specific attention to the interests of immigrants ensuring that they possess rights and privileges as the indigenes.

Essentially, the land tenure system in vogue in Nigeria is a precipitation of conflicts. This is because this process has created acute shortage of arable land thereby engendering disputes over the little that is available. To correct this anomaly and ensure effective utilization of arable land in Nigeria, Agricultural development agencies like River Basins, Agricultural Development Projects (ADP), Directorate of Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), National Agricultural Land Development Agencies (NALDA) etc. were introduced as panacea for improved Agricultural projects. It is important to stress the activities of the upper class in the society who have taken advantage of the flaw in the 1976 Land Use Decree to appropriate large parcels of land to themselves. This development created peasants' revolts in the different parts of Nigeria. The consequence of the peasants reaction was massacre as endured in the Bakolori Massacre of 1976 (Ker, 2007: 112,113; Alkali, 1997).

METHODOLOGY

Study Area - Oyo is an inland state in Southwestern Nigeria which has its capital at Ibadan. It is located between Latitude $7^{\circ}21'$ and $9^{\circ}11'$ North of the Equator and between Longitude $2^{\circ}51'$ and $4^{\circ}31'$ East of the Greenwich Meridian. The mean annual rainfall ranges from 56 inches in the south and 46 inches in the north (*Figure 1*). The population of the study comprises of all farmers and pastoralists in Oyo State, who operate in conflict prone areas and have experienced conflict at one time or the other.

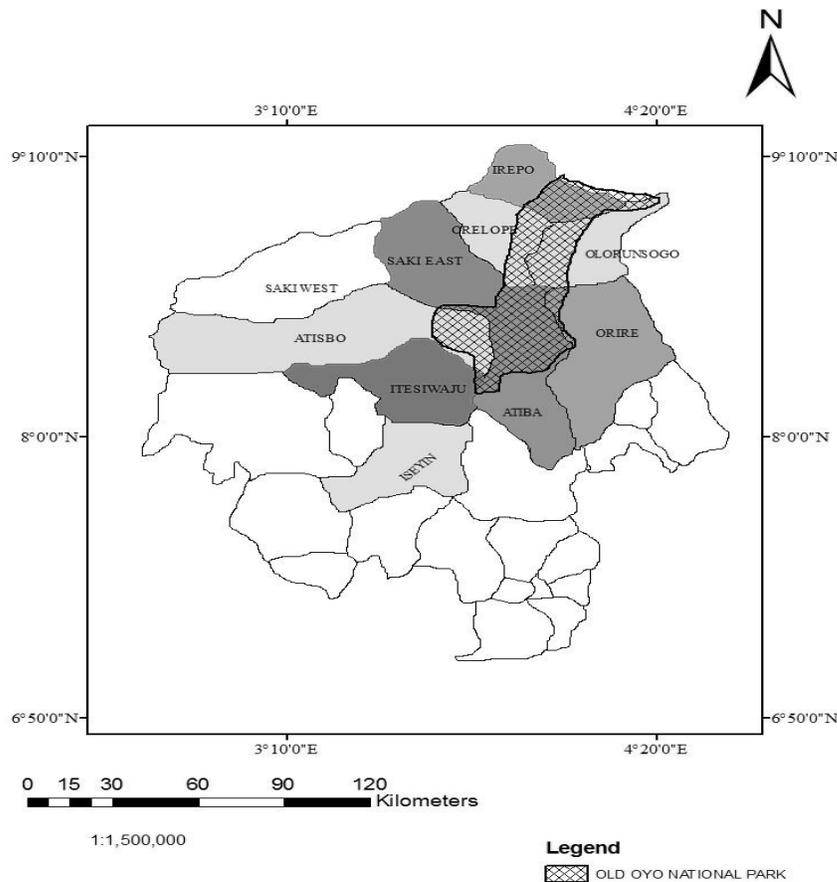


Figure 1. Map of Oyo state showing the thirty-three (33) local government areas

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

From the responses of the stakeholders, four (4) types of conflicts were identified as shown in Table 1. Conflict over political control accounts for 32.08%; and this is preponderant, conflict on chieftaincy matters accounts for 28.30%. Conflict in

land matters accounts for 49.42%. The farmers and Fulani herdsmen conflict account for 38.10% of the conflict under Land matters, and this will be the major conflict for discussion as it involves two heterogeneous ethnic groups – The indigenes and the pastoral Fulani.

Table 1: Identified conflicts in Oyo State

Conflicts	No. of occurrences	Percentage
Political control	17	32.08
Chieftaincy matters	15	28.30
Land Matters	21	49.42
Total	53	100

Table 2: Reported damages and their consequences

Damages	Consequences
Destruction of crops	Loss of crop yields
Unsustainable and over grazing of vegetal resources: economy plants	Loss of economic plants
Destruction of major sources of domestic water	Pollution of drinking water
Hardening of soils, rendering them infertile and difficult when tilling for agricultural Practices	Increased labour in pre-farming activities; Loss of soil fertility
Destruction of ponds and fishery resources	Loss of fish resource

The farmer and Fulani herdsman conflict is concentrated in ten (10) Local Government Areas of the state. These areas have very good vegetal resources for grazing as they are located on the fringe of the rainfall forest zones of the country (i.e. Atisbo, Irepo, Iseyin, Itesiwaju, Iwajowa, Kajola, Olorunsogo, Orelupe, Saki East and Saki West). The natural and physical endowment in terms of vegetal and water resources is most responsible for the choice of the areas for grazing. In these villages where grazing occurred, the damages by the herds reported (Table 2) included destruction of crops and farm lands; over grazing of economic plants; and destruction and pollution of sources of water, ponds and fishery resources. The destruction has direct impact on the peoples' livelihood as their economic activities are tied to these environmental resources like water, land (soil), vegetation (herbs, food and cash crops) and fish. In some of the villages, sources of water for domestic purposes have either been destroyed or polluted. The resultant effect of this is poverty. This therefore informs the reaction of the affected communities to the invasion of the herdsman. The Fulani herdsman saw these resources as common resources, to which they could also lay claim and therefore refused to be restrained. This reaction generated into conflicts, with its effects on economic and human activities, as well as the sustainability of environment in terms of socio-political and economic development.

Policy implications

The unsustainable grazing of vegetal resources and wanton destruction of other resources such as water and fish, with the re-occurrence of these conflicts is surely having considerable effects on the economy of the two parties (herdsman and farmers) involved and the government. Agriculture, which is the mainstay of the economy of the local people is been disrupted by these conflicts, making livelihood difficult at both the immediate locality as well as the larger societies that are dependent on the produce from the warring communities. Therefore, food supply is affected in both quantity and price. The pollution of available safe drinking water has serious implications for healthy living. Attaining the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) becomes problematic in affected the rural community with obvious implication for the prevalence of water borne diseases. This unresolved crisis has grievous dimensions in its effect on the policy of government in providing development opportunities to its citizens. If these conflicts are not resolved in good time, sustainability of both the economy and environment would become problems to tackle.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the study, it was discovered that farmers feel the effect of farmer-herdsman conflict on resources sustainability. The study further reveals that farmers suffer more losses from farmer-herdsman conflicts, especially the economic loss than herdsman. It is recommended that governmental agencies/ministries responsible for agriculture, lands, geographical information systems, forestry and natural resources ensure proper delineation and regular revision of stock routes. In addition, financial institutions, such as rural development and microfinance banks, and agricultural insurance companies, should work towards financial assistance for victims of farmer-herdsman conflicts. However, we suggest that the following should be adopted:

1. Identification of flashpoints of possible conflict
2. Demarcation of grazing reserves for Fulani herdsman on their various grazing tracks
3. Provision of water through either boreholes or wells along the tracks
4. Participation of all stakeholders at all levels of conflict resolution and Resource management and
5. Government should be firm and fair in its resolution and implementation of decisions.

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BENEFITS OF COOPERATIVE MEMBERSHIP AMONG ARABLE CROP FARMERS IN OYO STATE

Sadiq, M. M., Oyelere, G. O. and Adisa, J. O.

Agricultural Extension and Management Department, Oyo State College of Agriculture and Technology,
Igboora

Correspondent contact details: sadiqmuyiwa62@gmail.com, 08055114996

ABSTRACT

The study was carried out to examine the impact of farmers' cooperative societies on arable crop production in Oyo state. Data were randomly collected with the use of interview guide from one hundred and sixty (160) arable crop farmers who were members of farmers' cooperative societies in the study area. The results showed that 80.6% of the respondents were male and 79.6% were married. Inadequate amount of loan ranked 1st among the constraints faced by cooperative members. Chi-square analysis revealed that sex ($\chi^2 = 9.217$, $p < 0.05$) and marital status ($\chi^2 = 11.334$, $p < 0.05$) were significantly related to the benefit derived from cooperative societies. Constraints like inadequate amount of loan ($\chi^2 = 58.725$, $p < 0.05$), embezzlement of cooperative money ($\chi^2 = 66.858$, $p < 0.05$), hoarding of information ($\chi^2 = 31.911$, $p < 0.05$) and untimely disbursement of loan ($\chi^2 = 11.334$) were also significantly related to the benefit derived from the cooperative societies.

In conclusion, farmers who are cooperators in the study area did not have access to sufficient loan. It was therefore recommended that farmers should increase their shares and savings so as to have sufficient money in the societies' purse for disbursement to members.

Keywords: Arable Crop, Constraint faced, Cooperative Society.

INTRODUCTION

Co-operative can be defined as an autonomous of persons untied voluntarily to meet their economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations through jointly owned and critically controlled enterprise. It was conceptualized as a co-operative society (International Co-operative Alliance, 1995). There had been traditional contribution societies in Nigeria before the advent of modern co-operative movement which began in England in 1844 during the industrial revolution when workers all over Europe lived in great misery. They were variously named by people (Adejana, 2011). The Yoruba called it "Ajo" Hausa called it "Adashai" while Igbo called it "isusu". Modern co-operative societies in Nigeria had their origin following the agitation of Agege cocoa planters union in 1907 (Tar, 2008).

A study about the establishment of formal co-operative was commissioned in 1934 by the colonial administration. A colonial administrator, Mr. C.F. Strickland, of the colonial office in India was to assess the potentials of co-operative form of business in Nigeria. He suggested a government control of co-operative activities which was followed by the enactment of co-operative legislation in 1935 (Agbo, 2008). These early co-operative societies were those of farmers' societies for cocoa in the West, palm produce farmer in the East and groundnut farmer in the North. The exploitation of agricultural raw materials was enhanced by due colonial administration (Ijere, 1997). Thereafter many types of co-operative association were introduced and accepted in the country.

Co-operative has been described as a form of business organization which is distinct from the

more common investor owned firms (IOFs). Although both are organized as corporation, but IOFs pursue profit maximization objectives while co-operative maximize the benefits they generate for their members. Agricultural co-operative are therefore created in situations where farmers cannot obtain essential service from IOFs, because provision of such service is perceived to be unprofitable by the investor owned firms (IOFs). A practical motivation for the creation of agriculture co-operative is related to the ability of farmers to pool production and or resource. Co-operative persuades farmers to come together and form an association, through which a group of farmers can acquire a better financial support than by going all alone. In agriculture there are broadly three types of co-operatives: a machinery pool cooperative, a manufacturing/ marketing cooperative and credit union cooperative.

- i. Machinery pool: A family farm may be too small to justify the purchase of expensive farm machinery which may be only used irregularly, only during harvesting. Instead, local farmers may come together to form a machinery pool that purchases the necessary equipment for all the members to use.
- ii. Manufacturing /marketing co-operative: A farm does not always have the means of transportation necessary for delivery of its produce to the market, or else the small volume of its product may put in an unfavorable negotiating position with respect to intermediaries and wholesalers; a co-operative will act as an integrator, collecting the output from members, sometimes undertaking manufacturing and delivering it in large aggregated quantities

downstream through the marketing channels.

- iii. Credit union: Farmers, in this case, pooled their financial resources together in order to provide a source of credit where each farmer/member within the union can have access to loan. Alternatively, the credit union can raise loans at lower interest rate from commercial banks due to the larger associative size than an individual farmer. Often, members of a credit union will provide mutual or peer-pressure guarantees for repayment of loans. In some instances, manufacturing/marketing co-operative may have credit union as part of their broader business. Such an approach allows farmers to have more direct access to critical inputs such as seeds and implements. The loans for these inputs are repaid when the seed produced are sold to the manufacturing/marketing co-operative (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Agricultural_cooperative). However, some members of the group might not have adequate access to the credit facilities being provided by the cooperative societies. Therefore, the broad objective of this study was to investigate the problem being experienced by members of the co-operative societies on arable crop production. Specifically, this study:
 - a. described the socio economic characteristics of the respondents.
 - b. determined the extent to which the farmer co-operatives had benefited the members in financing their arable crop production in the study area.
 - c. identified the problems confronting cooperative societies in the study area.

METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in Oyo State, located in the tropical Southwest Nigeria. It was created in 1976 from the old Western region. Multi-stage sampling technique was used to select respondents for the study. Simple random sampling technique was used to select from the four agricultural zones in Oyo state, namely;

Ibadan/Ibarapa and Ogbomoso zones. Out of the one hundred and twenty registered farmers’ cooperative societies in the two zones 50% were randomly selected. Finally, 25% of the registered farmer cooperators were randomly chosen to give 160 farmers for the study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Socioeconomic characteristics of respondents

The results in Table 1 reveal that 30.0 % of the respondents age fell between 40 – 49 years; 25.0 % fell between 50 -59 years, however 20.6% of the respondents were above 60 years of age then 18.1% were in the age bracket of 30 – 39 years and 6.3% were less than 30 years age. The mean age of the respondents was 45.5 years. This implies that the farmers in the area were adult and were old enough. This is an advantage as the adults were agile and could access the wherewithal to run a sustainable and successful farming. The majority (80.6%) of the respondents were male and 79.4 % were married and only 4.4 % were single. This implies that more family labour will be available for farm operations. About 51.5% of the respondents had family size of 6 – 10 members and 46.6% had 1 -5 members but 1.9% had more than 11 household members. The mean household size was 8 members. This implies that the respondents have relatively large household members. Also, 54.4% of the respondents practiced Christianity while 32.0% practiced Islam and 13.6% were into African traditional religion. This implies that respondents in the study area were practicing various religions. The table further revealed that 28.2% of the respondents had secondary education 26.2% had tertiary education; 23.3% had primary education while 17.5% had no formal education and 4.9% had adult literacy education. This implies that educational background of the respondents in the study area was fair.

The study also revealed that 36.9% of the respondents had 11-20 years of farming experience; 35.9% had 1-10 years of farming experience; 14.6% had 21 – 30 years of farming experience while 12.6% had 31.40 years’ experience. The mean farming experience was 14 years. This indicates that farmers in the area had enough farming experience to successfully engage in farming activities.

Table 1: Distribution of the respondents by socio economic characteristics n = 160

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Ages (years)			
20 -29	10	6.3	45.5
30 – 31	29	18.1	
40 – 49	48	30.0	
50 – 59	40	25.0	
>60	33	20.6	

Sex			
Male	129	80.6	
Female	31	19.4	
Marital status			
Single	7	4.4	
Married	127	79.4	
Divorced	9	5.6	
Widow	17	10.6	
Household size (members)			
1 – 5	75	46.6	8
6 – 10	82	51.5	
11 and above	3	1.9	
Religion status			
Christianity	87	54.4	
Islam	51	32.0	
Africa traditional religion	22	13.6	
Level of education			
Primary	37	23.3	
Secondary	45	28.2	
Tertiary	42	26.2	
Adult education	8	4.9	
No formal education	28	17.5	
Farming experience (years)			
1 – 10	56	35.1	14
11 – 20	54	34.0	
21 – 30	29	18.1	
31 – 40	21	12.8	

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Accessibility to credit by respondents in cooperative societies

The results in Table 2 reveal that 83.5% of the respondent have accessed to between ₦100000 - ₦ 199000, 11.7% have accessed to ₦200000 - N299000. However, 2.9% have accessed to ₦

300000 - ₦ 399000 and 1.9% has accessed ₦ 400000 – 499000. This implies that cooperative society is a form of micro-finance organization as only few members had access to credit facilities of between one hundred thousand and five hundred thousand naira only based on their personal savings in the society.

Table 2: Distribution of respondents by access to credit in cooperative

Accessed loan (₦)	Frequency	Percentage
100000 – 199000	133	83.5
200000 – 299000	19	11.7
300000 – 399000	5	2.9
400000 – 499000	3	1.9
Total	160	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Problem confronting arable crop cooperative farmers on accessing cooperative credit facilities

Table 3 showed the result of weighted mean score (WMS) of problems confronting arable crop cooperative farmers. It was revealed that inadequate amount of loan disbursed to individual member was the greatest constraint for it ranked 1st. this may be due to nepotism/favouratism on the part of the society’s executives. This is in line with the finding of Akinagbe and Adonu (2014) that not all the

volume of money applied for as loan was granted. High interest rate ranked 2nd of the constraints being encountered by the arable crop cooperative farmers. Also, ranked 3rd was the short period of loan repayment, this may be due to the fact that repayment period could fall into when the farm produce were sold at rock bottom prices. However, untimely disbursement of credit ranked 9th which was the least and this could be adduced to the fact that the cooperative was purposely established for farming business which was known for timeliness. These

problems were so crucial as they affect agricultural activities of arable crop cooperative farmers in the study area.

Table 3: Distribution of respondents by problems confronting arable crop cooperative farmers

Problems	WMS	Rank
Short period of loan repayment	1.64	3rd
High interest rate on loan	1.70	2 nd
Inadequate amount of loan from cooperative society	1.87	1st
Inadequate land	1.64	4 th
High administrative charges by cooperative	1.40	5 th
Embezzlement of cooperative money by cooperative executives	1.33	6 th
Poor documentation of farmers asset	1.28	7 th
Hoarding of agricultural information	1.25	8 th
Untimely disbursement of credit	1.18	9 th

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Test of hypotheses

Table 4 showed that sex of the respondents and marital status were significantly related to the

benefit derived from cooperative societies by the cooperators while farm size, religion, household size and farming experience were not significant.

Table 4: Chi-square analysis showing relationship between socio economic characteristics of the respondent and benefits of cooperative

Socioeconomic characteristics	χ^2 -value	df	p- value	Remark
Increase in farm size	10.728	15	0.772	NS
Sex	9.217	2	0.010	S
Marital status	11.334	4	0.023	S
Household size	13.736	10	0.185	S
Religion	3.184	4	0.527	NS
Farming experience	10.064	12	0.610	NS

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 5 reveals that inadequate amount of loan, inadequate land, and embezzlement of

cooperative money and hoarding of information as constraints were significantly related to the benefit derived by cooperators from cooperative societies.

Table 5: Chi-square analysis showing relationship between constraints and benefits of cooperative

Problems	χ^2 -value	df	p- value	Decision
Short period of loan repayment	4.021	4	0.403	NS
High interest rate on loan	27.302	30	0.607	NS
Inadequate amount of loan	58.725	8	0.000	S
Embezzlement of cooperative money	66.858	24	0.000	S
Hoarding of information	31.911	20	0.044	S
Untimely disbursement of loan	11.334	4	0.023	S

Source: Field survey, 2015

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study concluded that almost all the respondents are cooperative society beneficiaries while the benefits that members enjoyed from the cooperative societies include increase in productivity. It was also observed that most of the cooperators had access to loan but not at the sufficient amount needed. Hence insufficient fund was one of the major constraints facing the farmer cooperators. The study recommends that farmer cooperators should increase their shares and savings so as to have sufficient

money in the society's purse for disbursement to members.

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ECONOLOGICAL CAUSES OF INDUSTRIAL CONFLICT IN INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND TRAINING (IARandT), IBADAN, OYO STATE, NIGERIA

Bolarinwa, K. K. and Oyeyinka R. A.

Department of Agricultural Administration, Federal University of Agriculture Abeokuta Ogun State Nigeria

Email address: bkolade17@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The incessant share opposing interest between workers and the management, in institution necessitated this study. The study investigated the persistence occurrence of industrial conflict, ascertained the causes and suggests ways of preventing industrial conflict in the institution. Survey research method, was used in eliciting information from the employee. Sample size of seventy (70) employees was randomly sampled out of seven hundred and ten (710) employees. The data collected were analysed using Person Product Moment Correlation. Findings show that 54.3% of the employees were within the age range of 31 to 40 years while 60.0% were males. Majority (91.4%) of the employees had tertiary education. Concerning type of industrial conflict, results indicated that anxiety (2.40), locus for power distribution (2.23) and resources distribution by gender (2.22) were the common types of industrial conflict experienced in the institution.. Also, working condition (2.80), demand for higher wages (2.52) and allowances (2.24) respectively were the economic causes of industrial conflict in the Institution. There was a significant relationship between economic and non economic causes of conflict and incessant occurrence of conflict in the institution ($p < 0.05$). Thus, there is need to pay serious attention to the causes of industrial conflicts in order for the management to reduce and avoid occurrence of conflicts for smooth administration and high productivity of the institution.

Keywords: Industrial Conflict, Causes of conflict, Employee

INTRODUCTION

The concept of industry involves an exchange relationship between two major actors namely, employers and employees, as well as the intervening role of the state. In such relationship conflicts are inevitable as there will always be conflicts and disagreements between employers and employees, either on wages or on the general condition of service of the workers. Industrial conflict can therefore be explained as the inability of these parties (either between employer and employees or within their groups) to reach agreement on any issue connected with the object of employer and employees interaction. Suresh (2014) opined that Industrial dispute occurred within an organisation when there is difference between employers and employees, between employers and workmen, or between workmen and workmen, which is connected with the employment or non-employment or the terms of employment or with the conditions of labour of any person. Onyeonoru (2005) holistically defined industrial conflict as all expressions of dissatisfaction within the employment relationship especially those pertaining to the employment contract and effort bargain.

Industrial conflict is expressed in different terms such as strike, strike action, industrial unrest, industrial disharmony, trade dispute, industrial dispute, etc. It is a concept which express the existence of unhealthy relationship between key actors in an industrial setting (Ogunbameru and Oribabor, 2000). As people compete for jobs, resources, power, acknowledgment and security; dealing with it is difficult because it arouses primitive

emotions such as people feeling threatened. However, conflict is by nature ubiquitous and inevitable in human existence. It is a product of human interaction and relation, and its occurrence is only among and between parties or groups.

Workplace conflict always signals before its arrival, even when organisation can't see it directly. If organisations pay attention to the warning signs, they can derail its effects before conflict flattens their workforce. They are clues that something is wrong and needs to be addressed. Conflict arises from a desired scarce resources, status or power. It is considered as a fact of life. We are in ever-changing economic, technology, social and political era in which conflict has become inevitable in a dynamic organization. Change and economic growth bring opportunities but they also bring risk particularly in an era of world-wide rivalry for market resources and influence. The inability of the managers to view and manage workplace conflicts systematically has rendered conflict dysfunctional in some organizations. It is therefore the task of management and employees to minimize risk involved in conflicts while taking advantage of the opportunities they provide.

There are two major sources of industrial conflict namely; internal and external sources. The internal sources refer to factors which hare inherent within the framework of the organisation. The two crucial factors of internal sources are power relationship and the divergent interest of the industrial actors which often bring about conflict when they are about to share organisational industrial cake (Fajana, 2000 and Ajibade, 2004). External

sources are outside the four walls of the organisation it occurs when the third party intervention to industrial dispute becomes one sided or bias. It is important to differentiate 'sources' and 'causes' of industrial conflict. Sources of conflict explain the place or nature with which or from which conflict emanates and the reason why conflict is endemic and inevitable. Causes of conflict explain those conditions that may warrant conflict to germinate and become issues of concern. Conflict at its source may not necessarily become issues of controversy, confrontation and concerns (Otobo, 2005).

Econology is an administrative terminology which proceeds from the basic assumption that people are economically rational and they attempt to maximise outputs in an orderly and sequential manner (Perretomode, 1991). Based on the explanation of econological concept, causes of industrial conflicts can be broadly classified into two categories: economic and non-economic causes. The economic causes will include issues relating to compensation like wages, bonus, allowances, and conditions for work, working hours, leave and holidays without pay, unjust layoffs and retrenchments. The non economic factors include victimization of workers, ill treatment by staff members, sympathetic strikes, political factors, indiscipline (Arputharaj and Gayatri, 2014, Suresh, 2014).

Considering the past history of Nigerian industrial relations, one may conclude that industrial conflict is a dominant factor in the Nigerian labour relations. Industrial conflict has been a canker worm that has eaten deep the marrow of Nigerian industrial and social development. Nigerian experienced several industrial disputes dating back from the colonial period to independence and to post-independence era. For instance in 2007 during Olusegun Obasanjos regime, the Nigerian Labour Congress embarked on a nationwide strike protesting the increase on the fuel price with the aim of fighting for the interest of Nigerian citizens who are the primary consumers of the product. Also in 2009 the ASUU embarked on six months strike demanding for a revised salary structure and better working conditions. Further more on August, 2011 the Nigeria Labour Congress also embarked on nationwide warning strike over the non-implementation of the new national minimum wage by the federal government as promised by the President, Goodluck Jonathan during his campaign. In the Institute of Agricultural Research and Training, there were several industrial conflicts that had occurred. Notable among them is the one recorded on the 4th of March 2013, in daily independent newspaper 'that the protracted crisis rocking the Ibadan-based Institute of

Agricultural Research and Training (IARandT) had led to 10 month strikes. The crisis resulted in loss of two staff while some were hospitalized because management bluntly refused to pay staff salary. Various attempts by two supervisory agencies to the Institute, Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU), Ile-Ife and the Agricultural Research Council of Nigeria (ARCN) in settling the matter failed. The failure in management of the industrial conflict was attributed to poor management of industrial conflicts within the organization.

In the word of Gregory and Georgia (2010), conflict in the workplace is a painful reality and a key reason for poor productivity and frustration. It does not magically go away and only get worse when ignored. If sufficiently widespread, these can have the same effect on the efficiency of the enterprises as organized action. In the situation where industrial conflict deteriorates badly or has become endemic, locating and dealing with the individualized cases, can often be more difficult than dealing with collective industrial actions. One significant area of economic growth is worker (employee) satisfaction which leads to significant work output. Where employees are satisfied with their work conditions there would be a commensurate increase in production.

Cooperation between management and workers or unions facilitates not only a settlement of disputes or disagreements but also the avoidance of disputes which may otherwise arise (Seniwoliba, 2013). The question is that, why is it that Nigeria do experience constant industrial conflicts? It is either the Nigeria Labour Congress or other trade unions pursuing an increase in neither wage nor the academic staff union of universities fighting over better working conditions etc. This call for serious attention because one significant area of economic growth is worker (employee) satisfaction which leads to significant work output. Where employees are satisfied with their work conditions there would be a commensurate increase in production. Cooperation between management and workers or unions facilitates not only a settlement of disputes and disagreements but also the avoidance of disputes which may otherwise arise (Seniwoliba, 2013). Against this background, the recent industrial reform measure and the trends in strike activities which led to the reduction in workers' productivity is thus identified as a problem to the realization of industrial harmony in the country.

Hence, there is need to investigate causes industrial conflict in order for management to be able to know how to reduce and avoid this conflict from the view-point of the administrators themselves. As a

result, the following specific objectives were advanced for the study:

1. describe the personal characteristics of employees within the research institute,
2. determine the signals of occurrence of industrial conflict in the research institute,
3. identify sources of industrial conflict in the institution and;
4. ascertain economic causes and non-economic causes of conflict in the research institute.

The following hypotheses were tested:

- H₀₁ There is no significant relationship between economic causes of industrial conflict and incessant occurrence of industrial conflict.
- H₀₂ There is no significant relationship between non-economic causes of industrial conflict and incessant occurrence of industrial conflict

METHODOLOGY

The employees of the research institute were the population considered for the study Simple random sampling technique was used to select seventy employees out of seven hundred and ten employees in the Institute. The data used in this study were collected using both primary and secondary data. Primary data were collected through the use of questionnaire while secondary data were obtained from the already existing materials/ information that were found relevant to the research. They were generally collected from textbooks, journals, seminar papers and internet materials. Red signal of occurrence of industrial conflict was measured using

3 point rating scale with 15 items developed by Moor 2008. Twelve items scale was used to measure the sources of conflict on a 3 point rating scale where the cut off point for the manifestation of each source is 2.0. Seniwoliba (2013) statements designed for measuring economic (13 items) and non-economic (9 items) causes of industrial conflict was presented to employee to react to each item using 3 point items rating scale and the cut-off point is 2.0

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Socioeconomic characteristics of the employees

Table 1 shows that out of the employees interviewed, 54.3% of the employees were between the age group of 31 and 40 years. The mean age of the employees was 39.08 years. This indicates that most of employees are in their active age. Also, 60.0% of the employees were males while 40.0% of the employees were females. It was found that half (50.0%) of the employees were Christians, and 54.3% of the employees had HND/BSc, 20.0% had MSc, 17.1% had NCE/OND, 5.7% had school certificate. The employees in the organisation have higher educational qualification being research institution where minimum qualification to secure employment in the organisation is first degree certificate or its equivalent. The result also reveal that 52.9% of the employees had 10 years working experience with this, it is expected that the conflict management achieved with relative ease and such experience could help to reduce future occurrence of conflict. On salary scale data shows that the employees were well paid as few (31.4%) of the employees earned less than ₦100,000.

Table 1: Distribution of employees by their socioeconomic characteristics n=70

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
Less than or equal to 30 years	6	8.6
31-40 years	38	54.3
41-50 years	25	35.7
51 years and above	1	1.4
Sex		
Male	42	60.0
Female	28	40.0
Marital status		
Single	9	12.9
Married	59	84.3
Divorced	1	1.4
Widowed	1	1.4
Religion		
Christianity	35	50.0
Islam	29	41.4
Traditional	4	5.7
No response	2	2.9
Qualification		

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
School certificate	2	2.9
NCE/OND	12	17.1
HND/BSc	38	54.3
MSc	14	20.0
No response	4	5.7
Working class		
Researchers	40	40.0
Non Researchers	30	11.4
Years of working experience		
Less than or equal to 10 years	37	52.9
11 – 20 years	31	44.3
21 years and above	2	2.9
Income per annum		
Less than or equal to #100,000	22	31.4
#110,000 - #200,000	9	12.9
#210,000 - #300,000	13	18.6
#310,000 - #400,000	26	37.1

Source: Field survey, 2014

Signs determining the frequency of occurrence of industrial conflict in the institution

As indicated in Figure 1 the predominant indicators of industrial conflict in the institute were petition, various kinds of strike, and riot by the labour union with high mean scores of 2.70, 2.60 and 2.50 respectively. The implication of this result is that the management failed to manage the conflict until it result into strike, petition and riot. This implies that T

management of the institute were not addressing or ignored signals of industrial conflict when it is manifesting itself gradually in the organisation. It could be inferred from the result that insensitivity of the management to signs of workplace conflict that flattens the institution workforce during the conflict period. According Moor (2008) warning signs are clues that something is wrong and needs to be addressed before it is escalated by the organisational managers.

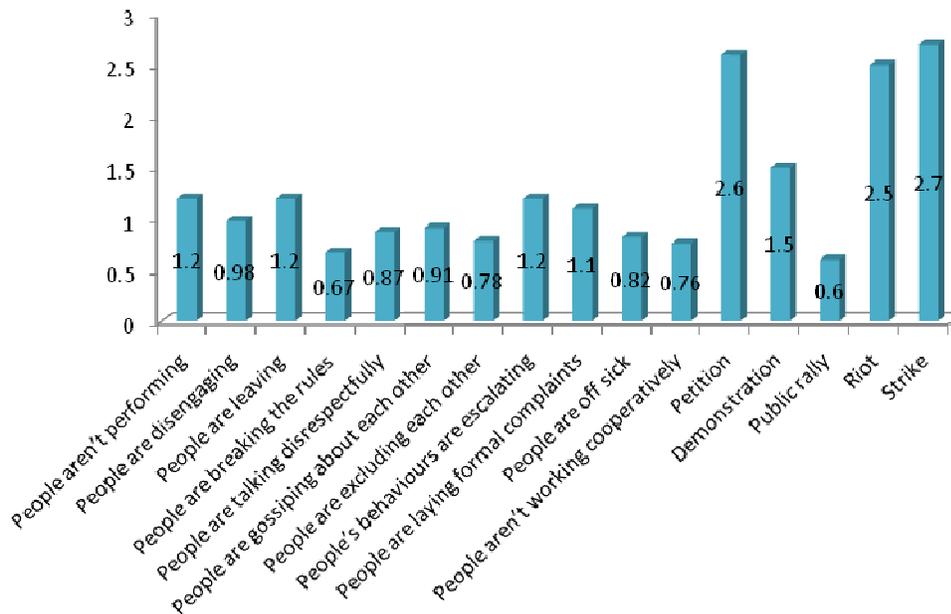


Figure 1: Signal of industrial conflict
Source: Field survey, 2014

Identification of the sources of industrial conflict that has occurred in the Institution

The result in (Figure 2) revealed that the higher mean score of (2.40, 2.23, and 2.22) recorded for anxiety, locus of power distribution, power and resources distribution by gender respectively were the major sources of industrial conflict in the institution. The implication of the result is that anxiety, locus of power distribution, power and resources distribution by gender are the major sources of industrial conflict in the institution. However anxiety the employees expectations, and the belief that something terrible is about to happen which may be created by employees focusing attention away from the "here and now" ranked

higher than any other sources of conflict as shown in (Figure2). Albrecht (1977) as cited in Walonick, (1993) confirmed that the society's number one health problem is anxiety, and that emotionally induced anxiety can be classified into four categories:) time anticipatory situational anxiety, and encounter anxieties. Time anxiety is always created by a real or imaginary deadline. Anticipatory anxiety is created when a person perceives that an upcoming event will be unpleasant. Situational anxiety can occur when a person is in an unpleasant situation, and they worry about what will happen next. Encounter anxiety is created by contact with other people (both pleasant and unpleasant).

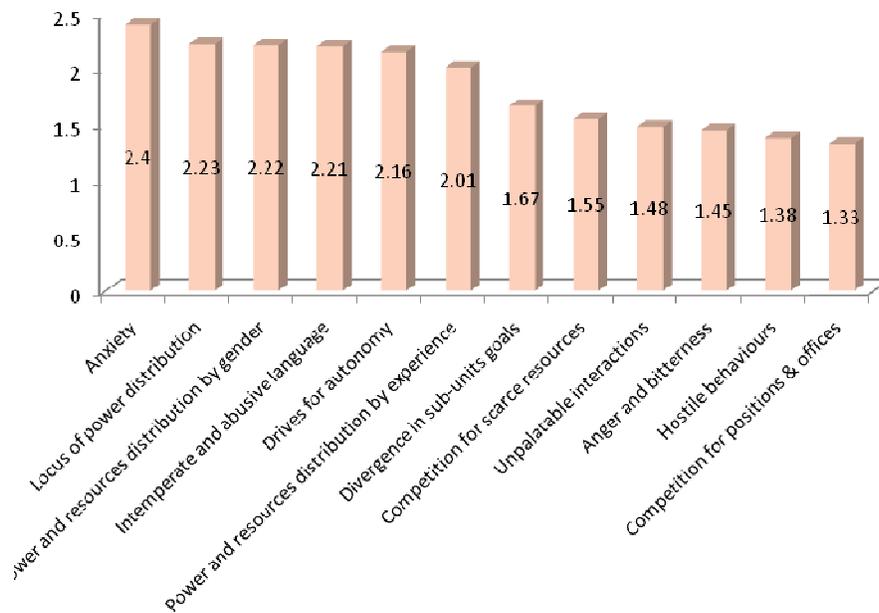


Figure 2: Sources of industrial conflict

Economic causes of industrial conflict in the institute

The results in Figure3 revealed that change in conditions for work (2.80), demand for higher wages (2.52) and payment of allowances (2.24) ranked first second and third respectively as the major economic causes of industrial conflict in the research institute These causes boil down to worker satisfaction which is a function of significant work out put. In a situation where the employees are satisfied with their working condition there would be an increased in work efficiency. Therefore good

industrial relations climate is essential to promote efficient production of goods and services a key consideration of profitability, the ability of enterprises to grant better terms and conditions of employment and for economic and social development (Seniwoliba, 2013). Donkor (2010) corroborates the assertion of Seniwoliba (2013) by stating that industrial relations management not only enhances productivity of the workers, but it also helps in settling disputes through collective bargaining, in the areas of job satisfaction, job regulation and job rules.

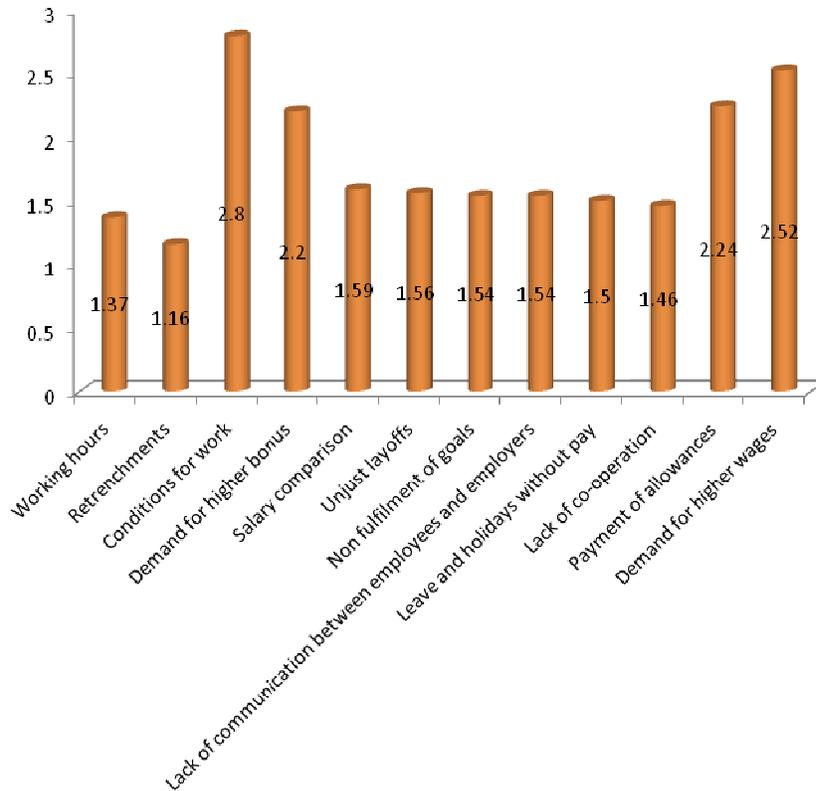


Figure 3: Economic causes of industrial conflict

Non-economic causes of industrial conflict

The non economic causes of industrial conflicts as shown in Figure 4 indicates that political factors (2.34), miscomprehension of roles (2.10) and violence (2.09) were identified as major non-economics causes of industrial conflict in the

institution. The political factor ranked higher than any other factors considered. The implication of the finding is that the political issues within and outside the institution contributed greatly to industrial conflict that has occurred in the institution.

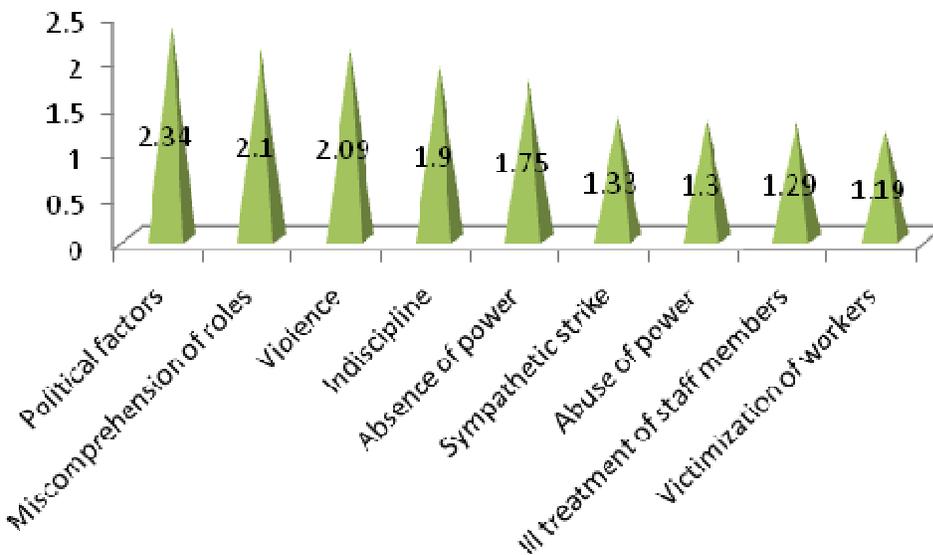


Figure 4: Non-economic causes of industrial conflict

Source: Field survey, 2014

Test of relationship between economical causes of industrial conflict and incessant signals of occurrence of industrial conflict in the institution

There is no significant relationship between economic causes of industrial conflict and occurrence of industrial conflict. This was tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation and the result is presented in Table 2. Findings in Table 2 revealed that there is a significant relationship between the lack of communication between employees and employers demand for improve working conditions, increase and demand for higher wages and economic causes of industrial conflict in the organisation. The inference that could be drawn from the result is that the lower the employer values these variables the higher the occurrence of industrial conflict in the institution. Also the values of coefficient of determination as indicated in Table 5 confirm the percentage contribution of each variable to the incessant signals of occurrence of industrial conflict in the Institution. Hence, the variables that have higher coefficient of determination should be

considered as crucial to the effective running of the organisation and employee work efficiency.

Test of relationship between economic causes of industrial conflict and occurrence of industrial conflict in the research institute

Findings in Table 2 reveals that there was a significant relationship between the lack of communication between employees and employers demand for improve working conditions, increase and demand for higher wages and occurrence of industrial conflict in the organisation. The inference that could be drawn from the result is that the lower the employer values these variables the higher the occurrence of industrial conflict in the institution. Also the values of coefficient of determination as indicated in Table 2 confirm the percentage contribution of each variable to the incessant signals of occurrence of industrial conflict in the Institution. Hence, the variables that have higher coefficient of determination should be considered as crucial to the effective running of the organisation and employee work efficiency.

Table 3: Result of correlation analysis showing the relationship between economic causes of industrial conflict and the incessant signals of occurrence of industrial conflict in the Institution.

Economic causes	r-value	Coefficient of determination (r ²)
Demand for higher wages	-0.726	0.714
Demand for higher bonus	-0.513	0.508
Allowances	-0.696	0.713
Conditions for work	-0.870	0.826
Working hours	-0.809	0.809
Salary comparison	-0.083	0.149
Non-fulfilment of goals	-0.355	0.203
Leave and holidays without pay	-0.230	0.05
Unjust layoffs	-0.550	0.658
Retrenchment	0.150	0.27
Lack of communication between employees and employers	0.621	0.864
Lack of co-operation	0.082	0.101

** Significant at p< 0.05, r= correlation value

Test of relationship non-economical causes of industrial conflict and the signals of occurrence of industrial conflict

There is no significant relationship between non-economic causes of industrial conflict and occurrence of industrial conflict. This was tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation and the result is presented in Table 3. Findings revealed that there is a significant relationship between political

factors, violence as well as ill treatment by staff members and the occurrence of industrial conflict in the . This implies that the higher the political factors and violence and ill treatment by staff members, the more the occurrence of industrial conflict in the organisation. Moreover the coefficient of determination as shown in Table 3 further indicated the percentage contribution of each variable to e occurrence of industrial conflict in the institution.

Table 3: Result of correlation analysis showing the relationship between non-economic causes of industrial conflict and the signals of incessant occurrence of industrial conflict in the institution

Non-economic causes	r-value	Coefficient of determination (r ²)
Victimisation of workers	0.508	0.584
Ill treatment by staff members	-0.701	0.608
Political factors	-0.826	0.831
Sympathetic strikes	-0.079	0.515
Indiscipline	0.530	0.515
Violence	0.683	0.650
Miscomprehension of roles	-0.641	0.525
Absence of power	-0.003	0.113
Abuse of power	0.588	0.571

r= correlation value

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study, it has been established in this study that conflicts of interest is inevitable between employer (management) and employee (labour) because there is an authority relationship in which the aims of the two parties will at least sometimes conflict. That the management of the institution was insensitive to mild signals of industrial conflict and neglect some sources of industrial conflict that suppose to prevent industrial conflict action in the institution if earlier precaution has been implemented. Likewise the study revealed that the major economic causes of industrial conflicts within the Institution were demand for higher bonus, conditions for work, working hours, non-fulfilment of goals, and leave or holiday without pay while the non-economic causes of industrial conflict are political factors and violence. Hence it is recommended that the management of the institution boost the economic and non economic factors promoting industrial conflict in their institution. Also Conflict preclusion structures should be put in place to address industrial conflict signals and sources that can produce conflicts before they break open. In another word conflict situations should be promptly confronted and addressed whenever they occur rather than being avoided.

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EFFECTS OF CONFLICT ON LIVELIHOOD ACTIVITIES OF SETTLED PASTORAL FULANI WOMEN IN OGUN STATE, NIGERIA

Owolade, E. O., Alonge, G. O. and Anoh, K. U.

Federal College of Animal Health and Production Technology, Ibadan, Nigeria

Correspondent contact details: funmilayoowolade@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

This study examined the effects of conflicts on livelihood activities of settled pastoral Fulani women in Ogun state, Nigeria. A multistage sampling technique was used to select 120 out of 240 pastoral Fulani who were interviewed using structured questionnaire. The results showed that a little below half (40.8%) of the respondents were between the ages of 35-45 years. About 53% of them had a household size of 6-9 members. About half (55.0%) of their livelihood activities were vegetable farmers. The majority (70.8%) of them suffered economic losses from conflict on their livelihood activities. Pastoral Fulani women are affected by social norms, inadequate incentive, poverty and cultural institution that serve as barriers to their advancement.

Keywords: Conflicts, Livelihood activities, Pastoral, Fulani.

INTRODUCTION

Agricultural production in any country requires an enabling environment to reach its maximum potential. Sustainable development in agriculture, among other things, demands a peaceful co-habitation of producer communities. It is only through cooperation that local communities could implement a sustainable common pool of resource conservation and management strategies.

Women in rural areas are known to provide 70% of the labour in food production and solely responsible for food processing (International Labour Organization (ILO), 1984). They have always been contributing significantly to the economic life of their communities, they are major contributors to the subsistence agriculture in Nigeria (FAO,2005). Traditionally women's roles are confined to household chores, farming activities and other trade transaction that in general engage them for a longer hour than men. Besides Fulani women have limited access to educational and employment opportunities encountered by the Fulani's women (Afolabi, 2004) and other trade transaction that in general engage them for a longer hour than men. Besides Fulani women have limited access to educational and employment opportunities encountered by the Fulani's women (Afolabi, 2004). In Nigeria societies women are culturally deprive to participate fully in economic activities due to religious, social norms, inadequate incentives, ignorance, poverty, illiteracy and cultural institution against women in most societies in Nigeria are barriers to the advancement of rural women. Religion, culture and education, are factors that lead to the little participation of rural women in economic activities in Nigeria. According to Olawoye (2001) women do engage in three to five activities to generate income as well as ensure household food security, while (Oyesola, 2000) reported that migrated Fulani women in southwest Nigeria were found to engage in various agricultural and income generating activities.

The level of illiteracy of pastoral Fulani women is high in spite of monetary exchange transactions associated with pastoralism. Pastoralism has been observed to have an impact on the lifestyle of women agro-pastoralists as observed by (Omotayo et al., 2006). Women agro-pastoralists are increasingly becoming involved in a limited number of activities that have contributed to the livelihood status of their various households. Omotayo et al, 2006, reported some of these livelihoods as being under threat. A clearer understanding of the nature of the activities that Fulani women are engaged in alongside the male counterparts would make it possible for change agents to develop holistic interventions aimed at enhancing their coping strategies. However, owing to the constraints of the Fulani women in the course of a sustainable livelihood, the present study intends to assess the livelihoods activities of settled pastoral Fulani women in Osun state.

METHODOLOGY

Ogun state was created in February 1976 under the military administration of the Late General Muritala Muhammed. The state covers a land area of 16,409.26 square kilometers and has a population size of 3,728,098 people (NPC,2006). Ogun state has twenty (20) Local Governments Areas (LGAs) namely: Abeokuta North, Abeokuta South, Ifo, Ewekoro, Imeko-Afon, Yewa South, Yewa-North, Ipokia, Ado Odo-Ota, Odede, Odogbolu, Obafemi-Owode, Sagamu, Ikenne, Remo North, Ijebu Ode, Ijebu-East, Ijebu-North, Ijebu North-East and Ogun waterside. A multi-stage sampling technique was employed in the study.

Stage 1: Thirty percent of the LGAs were randomly selected. The LGAs are Odeda, Ado Odo-Ota, Yewa North, Ifo, Ipokia, Imeko-Afon

Stage 2: In each of selected LGA, a Fulani settlement was purposively selected because of the fresh conflict report.

Stage 3: In each of the selected LGAs, 20 Fulani settlements were randomly selected from the ten transit camps) in each LGA. This gave a total of 120 respondents. . Data was collected through the use of interview schedule and analyzed using both descriptive statistics (frequency counts and percentages) and inferential statistics (PPMC, chi-square, and T-test). The respondents were asked to indicate the extent of the social and economic losses incurred as a result of farmer-pastoralist conflict with a three-point scale of not at all, mild and severe. The respondents were also asked to indicate the methods of conflict resolutions adopted in their locality.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Personal characteristic of respondents

Table 1 revealed that 66.2% were female among the Fulani while 66.7% were male among the farmers that were selected for the study. A little below half 40.8% were with the age range of 30-45 years for the Fulani respondent while 40.0% are for the farmers. A little above average of the Fulani (52.5%) has a household size within 6-9 were selected for the study. This shows that majority of the respondents are very active and responsible to care for their household.

Table 1: Distribution of respondents according to personal characteristics

Fulani women				Farmers			
Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Sex				Sex			
Male	43	35.8		Male	80	66.7	
Female	77	64.2		Female	40	33.3	
Age (years)				Age (years)			
24-34	18	15.0		24-34	19	15.8	
35-45	49	40.8		35-45	48	40.0	
46-55	21	17.5		46-55	18	15.0	
56-66	19	15.8		56-66	15	12.5	
>66	13	10.8		>66	20	16.7	
Religion				Religion			
Christianity	12	10.0		Christianity	50	41.7	
Islam	70	58.3		Islam	59	49.2	
Traditional	38	31.7		Traditional	11	9.1	
Marital status				Marital status			
Single	18	15.0		Single	21	17.5	
Married	94	78.3		Married	84	70.0	
Divorced	5	4.2		Divorced	11	9.2	
Widowed	3	2.5		Widowed	4	3.3	
Level of education				Level of education			
No formal	66	55.0		No formal	30	25	
Primary	25	20.8		Primary	47	39.2	
Secondary	2	1.7		Secondary	31	25.8	
Tertiary	0	0.0		Tertiary	5	4.2	
Adult education	27	22.5		Adult education	7	5.8	
Household size				Household size			
2-5	33	27.5	33.4	2-5	33	27.5	
6-9	63	52.5		6-9	73	60.8	
10-13	14	11.7		10-13	10	8.3	
>13	10	8.3		>13	4	3.3	

Source: Field survey, 2013

Social and economic losses suffered by the respondents as a result of conflict

Table 2 shows that the majority of the Fulani women suffered more losses from farmer-pastoralist

conflicts, especially economic losses. The reduction in output (20.0%), loss of properties (28.3%), and scarcity of food (23.3%) were regarded as severe economic losses experienced by the Fulani women. A larger percentage (46.6%) of the Fulani women

indicated loss of properties as a major economic loss encountered due to the conflict. Very few of the farmers considered any of the losses as severe. This

implies that Fulani women suffer more loss than the pastoralists.

Table 2: The social and economic losses suffered by the respondents as result of conflict

Socio-economic losses	Extent of loss			
	Fulani Women		Farmers	
	Severe	Mild	Severe	Mild
Reduction in output	20.0	23.3	3.3	21.7
Loss of properties	28.3	18.3	-	1.7
Loss of produce in storage	18.3	10.0	1.7	1.7
Inability to repay loan	21.7	6.7	1.7	3.3
Migration of labour	8.3	10.0	5.0	3.3
Reduced access to land	3.3	5.0	1.7	3.3
Scarcity of food items	23.3	11.7	8.3	5.0
Displacement	8.3	10.0	13.3	8.3
Disruption of group membership	3.3	3.3	5.0	3.3
Mutual distrust among the various parties to dispute	6.7	13.3	8.3	10.0
Constraints in mobility	3.3	5.0	3.3	3.3
Interruption in the education of children	5.0	6.7	5.0	8.3
Increased stress	20.0	10.0	3.3	8.3
Impairment and disabilities	3.3	8.3	1.7	15.0

Source: Field survey, 2013

Livelihood activities of settled Pastoral Fulani

Table 3 shows the livelihood activities of settled pastoral Fulani. Most of the respondents (55%), engaged in vegetable farming.

Table 3: Livelihood activities of the respondent

Variables	Yes	No
Vegetable farming	99 (55)	81 (45)
Sewing	11 (6.2)	169 (93.8)
Knitting	17 (9.5)	163 (90.5)
Handicraft	30 (16.7)	150 (83.3)
Makeover/beautification	21 (11.7)	159 (83.3)
Hair dressing	23 (12.8)	157 (87.2)
Milk production	89 (49.5)	91 (50.5)
Full House wife	11 (6.2)	169 (93.8)
Sales of milk and milk product	87 (48.4)	93 (51.6)
Animal rearing	87 (48.4)	93 (51.6)
House help	9 (5.0)	171 (95)
Food vending	28 (15.5)	152 (84.5)
Petty trading	73 (40.6)	107 (59.4)

Source: Field survey, 2013

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

From the findings, Pastoral Fulani women are affected by social norms, inadequate incentive, poverty and cultural institution that serve as barriers to their advancement. Involvement of women in the participation of economic activities in Nigeria will enhance productivity. The effects of conflicts greatly affect the livelihood activities of settled pastoral women in Ogun state

Government intervention should be employed to settle dispute among the pastoral farmers and the Fulani women for conflict resolution. Also, Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and private bodies should step into conflict issues to broker peace among the pastoral farmers and Fulani women.

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EFFECTS OF THE ADOPTION OF SAMPEA 7 COWPEA RECOMMENDED PRODUCTION PRACTICES ON INCOME AND LEVEL OF LIVING AMONG FARMERS IN SABON GARI LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA IN KADUNA STATE, NIGERIA

¹Dutse, F., Dodo, E. Y., Saddiq, N. M. and Yakubu, L. L.

Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology, Faculty of Agriculture, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria

Correspondent contact details: dutsefidelis@gmail.com, edodoyusuf@gmail.com, 08036591398

ABSTRACT

The study examined the effects of the adoption of Sampea-7 cowpea recommended production practices on income and level of living among farmers in Sabon Gari Local Government area of Kaduna State. The specific objectives of the study were to determine the level of awareness and adoption of Sampea-7 recommended production practices, identify the sources of information of the recommended practices, identify the constraints confronting the respondents, and determine the effects of farmers' adoption of Sampea-7 recommended practices on income and level of living. Four villages were purposively selected because of their proximity to Institute for Agricultural Research, Samaru. A total of 102 respondents comprising 51 each of adopters and non adopters of Sampea-7 variety were randomly selected using random numbers. Frequency, percentage and paired T-test were used for analysis. It was shown that 70.5% of the respondents were aware of planting 2 seeds/hole while 88.2% and 72.5% of the respondents adopted 2 seeds/hole and plant spacing of 75x25cm between and within rows respectively. Extension agent (1st) was the most important source of information for the adoption of the practices while pests and diseases infestation was the most important constraint faced by the respondents. The t-test result showed a significant ($p < 0.01$) difference in the income of adopters and non-adopters of Sampea-7 recommended practices ($t = 2.61$). The study recommends that extension agents should devise other extension strategies that would clearly express the outstanding attributes of Sampea-7 to make farmers to adopt all the practices to enhance their income and IAR should subsidize the planting seeds of Sampea-7 variety to the farmers as part of its corporate social responsibility to aid adoption and diffusion of the technologies.

Keywords: Adoption, Sampea 7, recommended production practices, income and level of living

INTRODUCTION

Cowpea is one of the important crops that are widely grown across the continents of the world and in Africa, Nigeria is ranked as the leading producer of cowpea with a production index of 1.69 tonnes in 2004. The Northern Guinea Savannah region of Nigeria accounted for the highest (85%) quantity of the country's total production (Langyintuo *et al.*, 2005). Cowpea production has contributed immensely to the income of the farmers communities in Kaduna state (Institute for Agricultural Research, IAR, 1989). Cowpea seeds are used for consumption and constitute a common delicacy in Nigeria with the leaves used as livestock. Several efforts have been made to increase cowpea production by previous governments, but the productivity of cowpea has not met the expectations of the people because of the growing demand for the crop by the Nigeria populace. In attempt to meet the growing challenge from the demand side, the International Institute for Tropical Agriculture (IITA) Ibadan and IAR Zaria have collaborated to developed several varieties of cowpea such as Sampea-1, Sampea-2, Sampea-3, Sampea-6, Sampea-7, Sampea-11. These varieties have varying outstanding characteristics such as high yielding and early maturing that are beneficial to the itinerant farmer over other varieties cultivated in the study area.

Sampea-7 variety has a unique yield potential of over 2.5 tons/ha, good quality grain and palatability, light brown to dark seed colour with a rough seed coat texture and medium maturing (IAR, 1989). These attributes of the variety are capable of maximizing both land resources and labour input. With good qualities of the variety, farmers' level of acceptability of the variety is always high (Ortiz, 2003). The adoption of an innovation will likely be unsuccessful if the innovation does not have qualities that warrant its adoption. Thus, the rate and likelihood of wide spread adoption would depend greatly on the qualities of the innovation (Zaltman and Ronald, 1973). It is because of the outstanding qualities that Sampea-7 variety was promoted by many state ADPs and Sasakawa Global 2000 to the cowpea producing communities (Dugje *et al.*, 2009). Most agricultural extension studies on cowpea in the study area have emphasized their investigation on the adoption behaviour of the farmer while giving little attention to the effects of adoption of cowpea varieties such as Sampea-7 on the income and level of living of the farmers (Atala, 1984). There is paucity of information on the level of adoption and effects of the adoption of Sampea-7 recommended production practices on farmers' income and level of living in the study area. Therefore, this study was conceptualized to give a glimpse of adoption of

Sampea-7 Cowpea recommended practices among farmers in Sabon Gari Local Government Area of Kaduna State and how it has impacted on their income and level of living livelihood. The specific objectives of the study were to:

- i. determine the levels of awareness and adoption of Sampea-7 recommended production practices among respondents
- ii. identify the respondents' sources of information of Sampea-7 recommended production practices
- iii. identify the constraints confronting the respondents in adopting Sampea-7 recommended production practices and;
- iv. determine the influence of adoption of Sampea-7 recommended practices on income and levels of living of the respondents

Hypotheses:

- H₀₁ There is no significant difference in the income of adopter and non adopters of Sampea-7 recommended production practices
- H₀₂ There is no significant difference in the level of living of adopters and non adopters of Sampea-7 recommended production practices

METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in Sabon Gari Local Government Area of Kaduna Sate. A multi-stage sampling procedure was used for the study. Four villages (Bomo, Milgoma, Tudun Mintsira and Biye) were purposively selected because of their proximity to the research institute (IAR, Samaru) where Sampea-7 was developed. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 51 farmers representing 44% from the total number of 116 adopters of Sampea-7 variety and another 51 farmers representing 24.2% of the total number of 210 non adopters of Sampea-7 variety in the study area through random number technique to give a tota sampled sizel of 102 respondents for the study. Primary data were collected through 2 different questionnaire instruments (adopters and non adopters). Information collected include age, education level and farming experience, yield, income, agronomic recommended practices adopted (number seed/hole, distance and depth, and number of spraying before and during/after flowering) and assets acquired from planting Sampea-7 by the respondents. Descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage, mean and paired t-test analysis were used for data analysis

Measurement of the variables

X₁= Age (Years)

X₂= Education level (Years of schooling)

X₃= Household size (Number)

X₄= Farming experience (Years)

X₅= Credit received (₦)

X₆= Yield (Kg)

X₇= Income from cowpea (₦)

X₈= Assets value from cowpea (₦)

Specification of the model:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{S_2^2}{n_2}}}$$

Where;

t=paired t-statistic

Specification of paired t-test variable for household assets of adopters and non adopters of Sampea-7 recommended practices. The household assets were measured in Naira equivalent.

\bar{X}_1 = mean values of adopters' income and level of living

\bar{X}_2 = mean values of non adopters' income and level of living

S₁² = standard deviation of adopters

S₂² = standard deviation of non adopters

n₁ = number of adopters

n₂ = number of non adopters

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Famers' levels of awareness and adoption of Sampea-7 recommended production practices

Awareness of each recommended production practice by the farmers who planted Sampea-7 variety is presented in Table 1. The result showed an overwhelming proportion (70.5%) of the respondents were aware of recommended 2 seeds/hole, more than half (56.8%) of the respondents were aware of spray insecticides once in 2 weeks before flowering and once a week within flowering and pudding stages and only 25.4% of the respondents were aware of recommended planting depth. This revealed that information dissemination about the technologies varies and was high among the respondents. This implies that the sources of information employed to disseminate information about the technologies were effective and this can lead to high adoption. This is because high level of awareness of the technologies often raise expectations of farmers and always result to mass adoption of the innovation which have been promoted. However, sometimes it may not be the case as expressed by findings of Neupane *et al.*, (2002) that sometimes farmers using agro-forestry technologies in the hills of Nepal might be aware of improved varieties of seeds but they prefer to use the local varieties.

Table 1. Distribution of the respondents according to level of awareness of Sampea-7 recommended production practices

Recommended production practices	Frequency	Percentage	Ranking(n=51)
2 seeds/hole	36	70.5	1 st
Plant 25x75 cm within and between row	29	56.8	2 nd
Spray insecticides once every 2 weeks before and once a week within flowering and pudding stage	29	56.8	2 nd
Depth of 2 cm	13	25.4	3 rd

Multiple responses

Farmers’ level of adoption of Sampea-7 recommended practices

Table 2 shows the result of adoption of Sampea-7 recommended production practices among the respondents. It indicates that 2 seeds per hole (88.2% production practice was ranked ^t as the most adopted practice by the respondents, followed by plant 25x75 cm within and between rows (72.5%) and the least adopted practice was spray insecticides once in 2 weeks before flowering and once a week within flowering and pudding stages (13.7%). The implication of this result is that farmers may not

enjoy the maximum benefit of the technologies attributes because of their inability to adopt the total technology package. Spraying of insecticides was least adopted perhaps because farmers could not afford to buy insecticides to spray at recommended period and so where avoiding additional costs associated with spraying of insecticides at regular intervals as recommended. This view has also been expressed by Feder *et al.* (1985) who reported that farmers in developing countries are very conscious of any additional cost in production and often influenced their farm decisions

Table 2. Distribution of respondents according to level of adoption of Sampea-7 recommended practices.

Adopted production practices	Frequency	Percentage	Ranking(n=51)
2 seeds/hole	45	88.2	1 st
Plant 25x75 cm within and between rows	37	72.5	2 nd
Depth of 2 cm	18	25.2	3 rd
Spray insecticides once in 2 weeks before flowering and once within flowering and pudding stages	7	13.7	4 th

Sources of information of the recommended practices

Sources of information about the Sampea-7 recommended practices are given in Table 3. The findings indicates that extension contact was ranked 1st sources of information utilized by the respondents about the Sampea-7 recommended practices, followed by friends/relations ranked 2nd while

extension pamphlets/bulletins was ranked least (ranked 5th) source of information utilized by the respondents for adoption of the recommended practices. These results agree with findings of Bonabana-Wabbi (2002) who reported that extension contact was the most important source of information for adoption of Integrate Pest Management (IPM) in Kumi district of Uganda.

Table 3. Distribution of the respondents according to Sources of information of Sampea-7 agronomic practices

Source of information	Frequency	Percentage	Ranking
Extension agent	91	78.4	1 st
Friends/relations	45	38.8	2 nd
Radio	18	15,5	3 rd
Television	6	5.2	4 th
Pamphlets/Leaflets	3	2.8	5 th

Multiple responses

Constraints to adoption of Sampea-7 recommended production practices by the respondents

Constraints confronting farmers toward adopting Sampea-7 recommended production practices are presented in Table 4. It showed that majority (48%) of the farmers were constrained by infestation of pests and diseases (ranked 1st) and 35.2% were constrained by cost of adopting the recommended practices and ranked 2nd while only 19.6% were constrained by the complex nature of the technologies. The constraints of infestations of pest and diseases and cost of adopting the

recommended practices are associated largely with the use of insecticides which in itself involves considerable cost in terms of purchasing the chemicals and the sprayer to ensure regular spraying of the cowpea. These constraints limits the adoption of the Sampea-7 technology's characteristics such as spray insecticides once in 2 weeks before flowering and once a week within flowering and podding stages. This is supported by findings of Adesina and Baidun-Forson (1995) who reported that technological characteristics limits adoption decision of farmers on sorghum varieties in Sierra Leone.

Table 4. Constraints to adoption of Sampea-7

Constraints*	Frequency	Percentage	Ranking
Infestation of pests and diseases	47	48.0	1 st
Cost of adopting the recommended practices	36	35.2	2 nd
Unavailability of pure seed of Sampea-7	34	33.3	3 rd
Unavailability of treated bags and cans/drums for storage	32	31.3	4 th
Complex nature of the technologies	20	19.6	5 th

*Multiple responses

Effects of adoption of Sampea-7 recommended production practices on income of the respondents

In Table 5 the result showed that the mean income of adopters was ₦86535.71 while the mean income of non-adopters was ₦58716.67. Also

majority (43.1%) of the adopters had income between ₦100001.00 and above while majority (25.6%) of the non-adopters had income between ₦50001.00-₦75000.00

Table 5. Difference in income of adopters and non-adopters

Income (₦)	Adopters		Non-adopters	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1000-25000	4	7.8	10	19.6
25001-50000	7	13.7	12	23.5
50001-75000	10	19.6	13	25.6
75001-100000	8	15.8	12	23.5
100001 and above	22	43.1	4	7.8
Mean	₦86535.71		₦58716.67	

The T-test in table 6 showed the result for income indicated that the calculated T-value (2.615) was greater than tabulated T-value (1.981) at 1% level of significance at two-tail, indicating that the income of adopters is higher than the income of non adopters of the practices. This indicates that significant difference exist in the income of adopters and non-adopters of Sampea-7 recommended practices. This implies that adopting Sampea-7

recommended practices would go a long way to increase the income of the farmers that will enable them to improve their economic well being in general. This result lend support to the findings of Awotide et al. (2012) who reported that the income of adopters of improved rice production technologies was significantly higher than the income of non adopters because of the use of improved technologies in the South-West, Nigeria.

Table 6. Test of difference in the income of adopters and non-adopters of Sampea-7 practices

Variable	Adopters	Non adopters
Mean	86535.71	58716.67
Variance	3.69E+09	2.83E+09
Observation	56	
Hypothesized mean	0	
Df	110	

Variable	Adopters	Non adopters
T-stat	2.614829***	
P(T=t) one-tail	0.005089	
T-critical one-tail	1.658824	
P(T=t) Two-tail	0.010179	
T-Critical Two-tail	1.981765	

***= Significant at 1% level of probability

Effects of adoption of the recommended production practices on the levels of living of the respondents

The results in table 7 also revealed that majority (23.5%) of adopters have assets value of between ₦250001.00-₦300000.00 while majority

(25.4%) of non-adopters had assets value between ₦50001.00-₦100000.00. Also the least (7.8%) of adopters had assets value between ₦100001.00-₦150000.00 while the least (5.9%) of non-adopters had assets value between ₦250001-300000 and ₦300001 and above respectively.

Table 7. Difference in assets value of adopters and non-adopters

Assets value (₦)	Adopters		Non-adopters	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1000-50000	7	13.5	10	19.7
50001-100000	5	9.8	13	25.4
100001-150000	4	7.8	9	17.6
150001-200000	9	17.6	6	11.8
200001-250000	6	11.8	7	13.7
250001-300000	12	23.5	3	5.9
300001 and above	8	15.8	3	5.9

Table 8 showed that the calculated T-value (1.938) was smaller than the tabulated T-value (1.989) at 1% levels of significance at two-tail, meaning that the level of living of adopters is lower than the levels of living of non adopters. Therefore there is no significant difference in the level of living of adopters and non-adopters of the recommended practice The implication of these findings is that

farmers might have other economic ventures that are of primary importance which provide them the means of acquiring assets than farming. Thus, farming might be secondary occupation. This result is not in consonance with findings of Salisu *et al.* (2007) who found that adoption of the Dual-purpose Cowpea made farmers to buy work bulls and other ruminants to boost their asset base.

Table 8. Test of difference in the levels of living of adopters and non-adopters of Sampea-7 practices the respondents

Variable	Adopters	Non adopters
Mean	193676.8	129814.2
Variance	4.84E+10	1.32E+10
Observations	56	60
Hypothesized mean difference	0	
df	82	
T-stat	1.938031***	
P(T=t) one-tail	0.028031	
T-Critical one-tail	1.663649	
P(T=t) Two-tail	0.056061	
T-Critical two-tail	1.989319	

***= Significant at 1% level of probability

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study conclude that awareness of the recommended production practices varies among the respondents and the least adopted recommended production practice was spray insecticide once in 2 weeks before flowering and once a week within

flowering and pudding stages and those that have adopted the recommended practices did not adopt all the technologies. Therefore the study recommends that extension agents should devise other extension strategies that would clearly express the outstanding attributes of Sampea-7 to make farmers to adopt all the practices to enhance their income and IAR should

motivate the farmers by subsidizing the planting seeds of Sampea-7 variety to the farmers as part of its corporate social responsibility to increase adoption and aid diffusion of the technology to other villages. Also government and non-governmental organizations should provide quality agrochemicals to the farmers at subsidized rates to enhance adoption.

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FARMERS' PERCEPTION OF RECYCLED AGRO BY-PRODUCTS FOR SWINE PRODUCTION: A PANACEA FOR AMELIORATING ENVIRONMENTAL CONFLICT IN ENUGU STATE, NIGERIA

Orjinta, K. K., Okwoche V. A. and Ejembi S. A.

Federal University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Benue State, Nigeria

Correspondent contact details: orjinta47@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The study assessed farmers' perception of the characteristics of recycled agro by-products and swine farmers' decisions to practice the recycling of agro by-products in Enugu State, Nigeria. The three agricultural zones comprising the 17 L.G.As in the state were classified into three strata in accordance with stratified sampling. Two Local Government Areas per strata were purposively selected based on where swine farmers were more prominent thus making a total of 6 L.G.As across the State. Simple random sampling was employed using a proportional allocation of 45% in each community sampled in the each L.G.A to obtain a total number of two hundred and seven (207) respondents from a population of registered swine farmers in the State. Data were collected using copies of questionnaire. Mean analysis was used in analyzing the farmers' perception of the characteristics of recycling agro by-products and their decision to practice the recycling of agro by-products while Logistic Regression analysis was used in the testing of hypothesis. From the results, the farmers perceived the characteristics of recycling agro by-products as possessing relative advantage ($M = 1.85$), complex ($M = 1.56$), triable ($M = 1.54$), observable ($M = 1.79$) and compatible with previous practice ($M = 1.46$). Furthermore, the results indicated that 39.1% of the respondents decided to practice recycling of agro by-products whereas 60.9 % did not practice the recycling of agro by-products aimed at ameliorating environmental conflict. From the logistic regression analysis, results showed that the farmers perception of the characteristics of recycled agro by-product had a significant relationship with their decision to practice the recycling of agro by-products ($\chi^2 = 81.58$, $df = 5$, $p < .001$). Complexity had a negative coefficient (-1.258) and was significant at 1% while trialability had a positive coefficient (1.011) and was significant at 5 %. Most swine farmers agreed that the recycling of agro by-product had advantages of ameliorating environmental conflict compared to their previous practices and was compatible with their needs, socioeconomic profile as well as their previous practices. Most farmers clearly understood the processes involved in recycling agro by-products, admitted that it was fairly complex to use and could be practiced on a limited scale. The swine farmers' perception of the characteristics of the recycled agro by-products was related to their decisions to ameliorate environmental conflicts resulting from swine production by practicing the recycling of agro by-products. Based on the findings of this study, it was therefore recommended that more awareness should be created on the values attainable through the recycling of agro by-products and the environmental conflicts that can be resolved by utilizing these agro by-products.

Keywords: Recycled agro by-products, environmental conflict, swine production

INTRODUCTION

Environmental conflict in swine production

Environmental conflicts manifest themselves as political, social, economic, ethnic, religious/territorial conflicts, conflicts over resource/national interest or any type of conflict (Zurich, 1992). Environmental conflicts are characterized by the principal importance of degradation into overuse of renewable resources, impoverishments of the space of living and overstrain of the environment's sink (pollution). The latter characteristics is of uttermost concern in pig producing communities because of the negative effects of their waste on the air and water sources which often results in conflicts between pig farmers and community dwellers. According to Manitoba Clean Environment Commission (2007) many localities, groups of residents formed organizations to oppose proposed swine production operations. They identified a wide range of specific concerns, particularly relating to odour and pollution of water. Delgado *et al.* (2003) described externalities as when an economic agent reaps a benefit from an activity

whose cost is born in part by others, but they are not compensated for this. Agents "capture" benefits from negative externalities if they get a benefit (e.g. livestock sales), but someone else bears part of the cost (odours, flies, polluted water, etc.), which leads to environmental conflict. They further described animal dung waste as a potential environmental conflict. This can occur when the excess nitrogen and/or phosphorous in manure is not taken up by plants, and leaches into the groundwater or contaminates surface water and also leads to bacterial contamination of surface water and groundwater or the release of ammonia from swine dung, which in zones of high animal density can be a source of air pollution, producing acid rain and/or odor problems. As for the odour problem, the smaller scaled farms that have been operating for a long period of time in swine communities, expanding civilization could quickly catch up with their current locations and cause conflict between the farms and the community. Environmental conflict equally has to do with the discharge of wastewater from agro-processing plants. The farms simply discharge wastewater directly into

public waterways, leading to endless friction between farm owners and protests from the community dwellers.

Recycled agro by-products

According to Müller (1980), the philosophy behind feeding processed animal wastes is based on the fact that coprophagy which is the feeding on or eating of dung or excrement is a normal behaviour among many insects, birds, and other animals within the same or other animal species and has always existed in nature. The chemical composition of poultry wastes is as follows: Moisture 12 - 35 %, Crude protein 15 - 40 %, Energy (TDN) 38 - 60 %, Soluble carbohydrates 3 - 7 %, Crude fibre 12 - 28 %, Lignin 7 - 16 %, Calcium 1.5 - 8.0 %, Potassium 1.2 - 2.6 %. In addition, it was observed that several years of incorporating poultry dung into other pig feeds at different farm scales showed no negative effects on the production or health of pigs. The use of swine dung in formulating rations for pigs has been demonstrated by Weiner (1977) who developed an aerobic culture with solid substrates of fresh swine dung combined with corn resulted in lactic acid fermentation with odour control. Fermentation product from fresh waste corn cultures was fed as the major dietary component to young pigs. Chen *et al* (2003) described the chemical composition of swine dung as follows; Crude protein, DM 22.7 %, Total fibre, DM 40.8 %, Hemicellulose, DM 20.5 %, Cellulose, DM 13.9 %, Lignin, DM 6.4 %, Lysine, 1.1 %, Methionine, 0.4 %, Glutamic acid, 2.3 %. Ofongo *et al* (2008) revealed that rice mill by-products obtained from a one-step mill contained the bran, ground hulls and some broken rice which have reasonable nutritional value for swine and its dry nature and high fibre content facilitates the absorption of moisture from wet materials. A combination of these wastes and by – products with swine dung and allowing it to dry not only serves as a source feed materials for pigs but it also minimises the foul smell commonly associated with pig dung hence ameliorating the common conflicts that arise between pig farmers and their neighbours.

Swine farmers' perceptions of innovations

Swine farmers have been severely challenged by the rising costs of conventional feed materials. These conventional feed materials have increasingly become very expensive as a result of insufficient production and increased competition from humans and other livestock (Igwe *et al.*, 2013). The current situation has led to the sourcing of cheaper alternative feeds such agro-processing and food processing by-products by swine farmers to supplement their feed shortages (Ekwe *et al.*, 2011). In recent times, some farmers in Enugu state have been able to process by-products and wastes such as

brewers spent grain, cassava peels, swine dung, poultry dung and rice mill by-product to formulate feeds for pigs and even sustain their herds. In addition, common environmental conflicts associated with swine production including the foul smell associated with swine dung, cassava wastes dumps, brewery by- product dumps, poultry dung and rice mill wastes were addressed by a combination of these by-products to produce and preserve alternative feeds.

The perceived newness of an innovation, and the uncertainty associated with this newness, is a distinctive aspect of innovation decision- making (Rogers, 2003). Rogers further described the five attributes of innovations as its relative advantage, compatibility with existing innovations, trialability, observability, and complexity. With respect to the processing and utilization of these by-products and wastes to sustain pig herds and avoid environmental conflicts, swine farmers were trained on the various processes entailed in recycling agro wastes and by-products with the aim of understanding how they perceive the characteristics of these practices (innovation). The broad objective of the study was to assess swine farmers' perception of the characteristics of recycling agro by-products and their decisions to ameliorate environmental conflict by practicing the recycling of agro by-products in Enugu state. The specific objectives were to;

1. determine swine farmers' opinion about the characteristics of recycling agro by-products;
2. determine swine farmers' decision in ameliorating environmental conflict through the practice of recycling agro by-products.

Hypothesis

Based on the specific objectives of this study, this hypothesis was empirically tested.

H₀1: The swine farmers' perception of recycling agro by-products is not significantly related to their decisions to ameliorate environmental conflict by practicing the recycling of agro by-products.

METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in Enugu State which is located in the South- eastern part of Nigeria across the hinterlands of the eastern part of River Niger lying on the coordinates longitude 7°30'E and latitude 6°30'N. Its vegetation is predominantly guinea savannah type with semi tropical rainforest towards the south. Enugu State covers an area of 7,660.166 Sq. Km and has a population of 3,267,837 people (National Population Commission, 2006).

The study adopted the survey design and collected information (data) through the use of structured questionnaire. The sample size for the study was selected using a multi-stage sampling

technique. The three agricultural zones namely, Enugu East, Enugu West and Enugu North comprising the 17 L.G.As in the state were classified into three strata in accordance with stratified sampling. Two Local Government Areas per strata were purposively selected based on where swine farmers are more prominent thus making a total of 6 L.G.As across 24 communities in the State. Simple random sampling was employed using a proportional allocation of 45% in each community to obtain a total of two hundred and seven (207) swine farmers from a population of 459 registered swine farmers in the selected Local Government Areas in the State.

The farmers' decision to practice the recycling of agro by-products was measured by farmers indicating whether they practiced recycling agro by-products =1 or not= 0. The farmers' perception of the recycled by-products were measured by farmers indicating their opinion about the observability (0= do not understand, 1= partially understand, 2=clearly understand), compatibility (0= not compatible, 1= fairly compatible, 2= compatible), trialability (0= unable to practice, 1= fairly able to practice, 2= able to practice), relative advantage (0= no advantage, 1= low advantage, 2 = high advantage) and complexity (1 = easy to practice, 2= moderate to practice, 3 = difficult to practice) the agro by-product recycling practices. Mean analysis was used in analyzing the farmers' perception of the characteristics of the recycled agro by-products and their decision to practice the recycling of agro by-products while Logistic Regression analysis was used in the testing of hypothesis. In testing the hypothesis, the independent variable was the farmers' perception of the characteristics of recycling agro by-products while the dependent variable is the dichotomous outcome of their decisions to practice the recycling of agro by-products or not.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Swine farmers' perception of the characteristics of recycling agro by-products

Compatibility

The results in Table 1 show that the respondents agreed that the recycling of agro by-products were consistent with their existing values, past experiences and needs ($M = 1.46$). These recycled agro by-products were perceived as being similar to the feed materials that they have been using. This implies that farmers were likely to adopt the recycling of agro by-products to ameliorate environmental conflict based on its compatibility with their existing values, past experiences and needs. Chamala (1987) agreed that farmers tend to

select innovations that are consistent with their needs and previous practices.

Observability

From Table 1 the respondents indicated that they clearly understood how to recycle the agro by-products ($M= 1.79$). Thus, the majority of the farmers could actively participate in the agro by-product recycling training and following the processes there in. This implies that most of the farmers who were likely to make decisions will do so based on a clear understanding of the information provided in the training.

Relative advantage

The results from Table 1 show that the respondents perceived the recycling of agro by-products as having a relative advantage ($M = 1.85$). This implies that the farmers were more likely to utilize the practices in the training considering its perceived high advantage. The perceived advantages included odour control of the swine dung as a result of the fermentation process and the perceived lower costs of the alternative feed materials compared to conventional feeds. This result is in agreement with that of Guerin and Guerin (1994) who stated that farmers will consider an innovation or new idea in the light of its advantages and perceived benefits compared to that of the practice it replaces.

Complexity

From Table 1, the respondents perceived the recycling of agro by-products to be fairly complex ($M= 1.56$). This implies that the farmers were less likely to practice the recycling of agro by-products because of its relative complexity. This outcome is supported by a study carried out by Bangura (1983) who found that farmers prefer to adopt innovations that are less complex, require less time to use and is less labour demanding. It was further stated that innovations that are simple and relatively easy to understand are more likely to be adopted than those that are complex.

Trialability

The results from Table 1 show that the respondents stated that they were able to practice the recycling of agro by-products on a limited scale ($M= 1.54$) this implied that they could try the practices on their own by following the procedures presented in the training. Furthermore, as majority of the farmers begin to try the alternative feeds on a limited scale, late adopters may grow confidence in the recycled agro by-products based on the results of its trials by early adopters. Rogers (2003) agreed that the more an innovation can be tried, the faster the adoption would be.

Table 1: Swine farmers’ perception of the characteristics of recycled agro by-products (n=207)

Variable	Min	Max	Cut off	Mean	S.D	Remark
Compatibility with previous practice	0	2	1	1.46	0.82	Accepted
Observability	0	2	1	1.79	0.51	Accepted
Relative Advantage	0	2	1	1.85	0.42	Accepted
Complexity	1	3	1.5	1.56	0.55	Accepted
Trialability	0	2	1	1.54	0.75	Accepted

Source: Field survey, 2015

Swine farmers’ decision to ameliorate environmental conflict through the practice of recycling agro by-products

The results in Table 2 show that 60.9% of the respondents did not practice the recycling agro by-products whereas 39.1% practiced. It may be implied that irrespective of many respondents indicating that recycling agro by-products had high relative advantage, not complex to use, can be tried on a limited scale and is compatible with their previous practices and needs, time was still needed

for them to make decisions concerning the utilization recycled agro by-products. Rogers (2003) opined that the innovation decision is a mental process which an individual will have to undergo in order to decide whether to use an innovation or not. Rogers (2003) further described the innovation-diffusion process, adopter categorization, and rate of adoptions as having a time dimension. As such, the length of time of the initial exposure to the knowledge of recycling agro by-products could determine whether they would practice the recycling of agro by-products.

Table 2: Swine farmers’ decision to ameliorate environmental conflict through the practice of recycling agro by-products (n=207)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Did not practice	126	60.9
Practiced	81	39.1

Source: Field survey, 2015

Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis aims to determine the relationship between the farmers’ perception of the characteristics of recycling agro by-products and their decision to ameliorate environmental conflict through practicing the recycling of agro by-products.

Results in Table 3 show the effect of farmers’ perception of the recycling agro by-products on their decisions to ameliorate environmental conflict through their decisions to utilize recycled agro by-products. Complexity had a negative coefficient (-1.258) and was significant at 1%. The odd ratio Exp(B) suggests that the more the respondents perceive the recycling of agro by-products to be complex, the likelihood of deciding to practice the recycling of agro by-products to ameliorate environmental conflict reduces by 0.28 times. This agrees with the *a priori* expectation that if farmers perceive the recycling of agro by-products as being complex, they are less likely to utilize recycled agro by-products. This is in line with the findings Guerin and Guerin (1994) which stated that if an innovation is complex, then the communication from researcher to extension officer to farmer is less likely to lead to adoption. Trialability had a positive coefficient (1.011) and was significant at 5 %. The odds ratio Exp(B) suggests that the higher the respondents

perceive the recycling of agro by-products to be triable, the likelihood of deciding to practice the recycling of agro by-product increases by 2.75 times. This result agrees with the *a priori* expectation that the more farmers are able to try the practice of recycling agro by-products on a limited scale, the more likely they are to ameliorate environmental conflict by using recycled agro by-products. This outcome agrees with the findings of Barr and Cary (1992) which stated that once an innovation is perceived as having an acceptable level of risk and being easily integrated into existing farm practices, then the innovation will be adopted relatively quickly. The Pseudo R² (Nagelkerke R²) shows that 44.2% of the variance in the model can be explained by a combination of the variables. The overall model was significant ($\chi^2 = 81.78$, df = 5, p<0.001), thus indicating that the farmers perception of the characteristics of recycling of agro by-products has a significant relationship with their decision to practice the recycling of agro by products to ameliorate environmental conflict. The null hypothesis which stated that the swine farmers’ perception of the characteristics of recycling agro by-products is not significantly related to their decisions to ameliorate environmental conflict by practicing the recycling of agro by-products was rejected.

Table 3: The relationship between farmers’ perception of the characteristics of recycling agro by-products and their decision to ameliorate environmental conflict by practicing the recycling of agro by-products (n=207)

Variable	B	SE	Wald	df	Sig	Exp(B)
Observability	18.539	5144.02	0.000	1	0.997	1.125E8
Relative Advantage	1.814	1.139	2.535	1	0.111	6.135
Complexity	-1.258	0.357	12.404	1	0.000*	0.284
Trialability	1.011	0.476	4.510	1	0.034*	2.748
Compatibility	-0.023	0.281	0.07	1	0.933	0.977
Constant	-40.684	10288.05	0.000	1	0.997	0.000
-2 Log Likelihood	194.619					
Cox and Snell R ²	0.326					
Nagelkerke R ²	0.442					
$\chi^2 = 81.58, df = 5, p < .001$						

P <0.01*, P <0.05**

Source: Field survey, 2015

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The swine farmers’ perception of recycling agro by-product was positive as most farmers agreed that it had advantages of ameliorating environmental conflict compared to their previous practices and was compatible with their needs, socioeconomic profile as well as their previous practices. Most farmers clearly understood the processes entailed in the recycling of agro by-products, admitted that it was a bit complex to use and could be practiced on a limited scale. The farmers’ perception of the characteristics of recycling agro by-products was significantly related to their decisions to ameliorate environmental conflicts resulting from swine production by practicing the recycling of agro by-products. More specifically trialability and complexity of recycling agro by-products significantly predicted the farmers’ decision to ameliorate environmental conflict by practicing the recycling agro by-products.

The following is the recommendation derived from the findings: More awareness should be created on the values attainable through the recycling of agro by-products and the environmental conflicts that can be resolved by utilizing these agro by-products.

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INTRA-HOUSEHOLD CONFLICT AMONG RURAL DWELLERS IN ANAOCHA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF ANAMBRA STATE

Ifeanyi-obi, C. C., Abuta, C. M., Familusi, L. C., Adesope, O. M. and Agumagu, A. C.
 Department of Agricultural Economics and Extension, University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria
 Correspondent contact details: clara.ifeanyi-obi@uniport.edu.ng

ABSTRACT

The increasing need for peace building in rural households as a means of facilitating sustainable development in rural communities prompted this study. The enormous threat posed by rural intra-household conflict in the degeneration of peace, order and progress in rural communities has contributed to slow pace of development in rural communities. The study assessed rural intra-household conflict in rural communities of Anaocha Local government area of Anambra State. The study assessed rural household perception of conflict with a view to capture their understanding of conflict hence making it easy to effectively assess the rural conflict trend as well as adequately addressing their peace building needs. Five out of ten towns in the Local Government Area was used for the study. Five Focused group discussions and In-depth interviews were used to collect data. Findings showed that intra-rural household conflict is mainly perceived among the respondents as disagreement over values, beliefs, interests and needs. It is mainly caused by lack of communication, poor understanding of roles and status, selfish interests, extended family and friends interference, economic hardship, childlessness, unresolved prior conflict, infidelity and unhealthy personality or temperament. Intra-rural household conflict effect the psychological and behavioral development of children and household sustainability as well general town development. Resolution could be achieved through better understanding of self and household members, respect for each person’s role and status in the family, better knowledge of marriage/family life and family heads, kindred or village chief’s intervention. Expansion in the scope of agricultural extension programme to incorporate household conflict management, more effective marriage classes by the different Christian denominations and increased social services by government and NGOs were recommended.

Keywords: Intra-household; rural dwellers; conflict; causes; management; resolutions

INTRODUCTION

The changing socioeconomic, political, environmental and climatic atmosphere in Nigeria and other developing countries across the globe has continued to aggravate the living conditions of most households especially those living in the rural areas (Isaac, 2009), thus leaving households with a lot of recurrent intra-household issues to contend with.

Conflict has been described from different perspectives but most times from the perspective of the area of interest in a specified context. Generally, it is seen as a disruption in the procedural process of decision making; an obstruction in the orderly process of decision making in a social system. Simon in Onyeche (2013) defined conflict as a breakdown in the standard mechanism of decision-making; so that individuals or groups experience difficulty in selecting alternatives. Coser in Onyeche (2013) looked at conflict from the industrial point of view, and defined it as any perceived divergence of interest, between groups that are involved in the direction, coordination and execution of work processes in any work organization. Ashimolowo and Otufale (2012) described conflict as fight, struggle, quarrel, a bitter argument, opposition, difference and strong case between contradictory impulses or wishes. Many authors hold the view that conflict is an inevitable occurrence in every relationship, institution or organization but the difference lies in manner and

method of resolution (Agboeze, 2004; Peters, 2006; Aja, 2007)

Conflict is a dynamic process and how it is handled will determine the resulting post conflict circumstance. The World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF) and Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) are beginning to recognize that conflict is one of the major obstacles to development (The causes of conflict in Africa-consultation document-March 2001). Peace and security depend on major changes in attitude within society, the rural societies inclusive

Ekong (2010) defined conflict as a form of social interaction in which the actors seek to obtain scarce reward by eliminating or weakening other contenders thereby militating against community development. On the other hand, Okonkwor (2016) describes conflict within the context of family life. It explained a necessary part of healthy relationship since two people cannot be expected to agree on everything at all times hence learning how to deal with conflict rather than avoiding it is very crucial. He further explains that when conflict is mismanaged, it can harm the relationship but when handled effectively, it provides opportunity for growth and strengthening of bonds between family members.

The contribution of rural households to the economy of a nation cannot be overemphasized; this is evident in their contribution to national

development through various activities particularly farming. Ashimolowo and Otufale (2012) stated that for any meaningful agricultural development to take place in Nigeria, the entire farm-family structure (household) which includes the men, women and the children has to be properly coordinated and united in agricultural production activities. These rural households serve as the bedrock of rural development as most of the rural community development activities stem from the households. The households are the basics of the rural community, hence could be addressed as the basic or primary rural communities. The preliminary or first interaction of every human begins in the household, hence, the great role household socialization play in the formation of human behavior. When household members are properly nurtured with the basic and fundamental knowledge of the society, they tend to have respect for other humans, resources and the society at large. Tendencies towards social vices are reduced to the barest minimum through healthy household education. This facilitates rural development efforts as the inhabitants are better disposed to appreciate these developmental efforts as well as support them.

Rural development goes beyond infrastructural development. It involves the development of the inhabitant's intellectual, better understanding and disposition to resources and project, increased respect for and acceptance of other humans as well as public projects, improved team working spirit, better understanding of ethics and etiquette, increased appreciation and acceptance of one's strength and weaknesses. Establishing gigantic developmental projects among poorly orientated rural dwellers is one of the major reasons for vandalism, theft and neglect. Personal development is a pre-requisite for rural community development. Rural dwellers will appreciate developmental efforts better when they are properly enlightened. It is against this background that this study assessed the intra-household conflict among rural dwellers in Anaocha local government area of Anambra state with a view to address their peace building needs and as well identify possible windows of opportunities in intra-household conflict hence contributing to the overall sustainable development in the rural area. The specific objectives include examining rural household perception of conflict, identifying causes of conflict among rural households, and identifying the effects and effective methods of managing and resolving conflicts among the rural households in the study area.

METHODOLOGY

Anaocha local government is one of the twenty-one local government in Anambra state. It is

made up of ten towns namely: Aguluzigbo, Agulu, Neni, Ichida, Adazi-ani, Adazi-Enu, Adazi-Nnukwu, Akwaeze, Nri and Obeledu with Neni as the headquarters. Focused Group Discussions (FGD) and In-depth Interview (IDI) were used to collect data for this study. Out of the ten towns that make up the local government area, five were randomly selected for the study. Two FGDs and five IDIs were conducted in each town giving a total of ten FGDs and twenty-five IDIs conducted for the study. The discussants in each FGD comprises of two male and female household heads (married for at least 20 years), two kindred heads, the village head, one male and female married for at most seven years and three youths between the ages of eighteen to thirteen while the IDIs were conducted for the village heads in charge of settling family disputes, village heads, town union president and key informants. These discussants were purposely selected to include people who are known to have experienced conflict in their households and as such could give relevant answers to the questions. The discussion guide focused on their perception of conflict, causes and effects and ways of managing and resolving intra-household conflict.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Rural dwellers perception of intra- household conflict

Majority of the discussants perceive intra-household conflict to be misunderstanding between members of a household. It could be between the mother and father, father and children; mother and children, parents and children, between the biological children of the household and extended family children living with them or among children of same parents. According to them, the most common category is between father and mother. One of the discussant stated:

“Even though we know that there is conflict between members of the family, the major one that is always causing big problem is the one between husband and wife who are the major custodians of the household”.

Conflict does not just comprise minor misunderstanding; it could take the form of fist fight, strong opposition, threats or even total annihilation. Furthermore, conflict could even be within a household member thereby making the person to exhibit irritating behavior towards other members of the family resulting to intra-household conflict.

Causes of intra-household conflict among rural dwellers in the study area

The discussants mainly opined that the causes of intra-household conflict are numerous depending on the category of conflict. Majority agreed that lack of effective communication between household members is a major cause of intra-household conflict in the area. Communication leads to better understanding of issues and reduces discrepancies. According to them, many households do not have time for themselves again due to increasing economic pressure, they work longer than normal during the day and come back late exhausted and tired that they could hardly chat with family members. One of the discussant had this to say:

“I remember very well in the olden days, evening times are always for family discussions. We all gathered in the front of my father’s hut and discuss how our day has fared. Those that didn’t carry out their responsibilities well were scolded and corrected while “papa” and “mama” will thrash out some issues after they have dismissed us to retire inside. But today those things are no longer obtainable, almost every member of my family come back late and tired. Even the little time left before they sleep, they use it to press their mobile phones”

Another major cause of intra-household conflict is the finance. The discussant pointed out that the times are hard and many of them are finding it difficult to live up to their family financial needs resulting in undue stress and deprivations which culminate to conflicts among family. According to them the income generated from their farming and other activities is hardly sufficient enough to cater for their family needs. Unfortunately, sometimes members of the family failed to understand the situation causing misunderstanding and consequent conflict.

Mr. A has this to say:

“When the economy was good and I was earning enough for my family upkeep, I command a lot of respect in my family and there was peace because I met everybody’s basic needs. But recently, it has not been possible for me to meet up in terms of their needs. This has resulted to insults of different manners from my family members including my wife”.

Also, one of the discussants has this to say; *“The English people say that a hungry man is an angry man. Many of our women are misbehaving because their husbands cannot provide their basic needs and that of their children. Some of them in order to ensure that their households are not*

exterminated by hunger do very tedious work meant for men leaving them very exhausted at the end. They come back home weak and sober thereby disrupting the family peace”

In-laws and extended family members and friends interference was also listed by the discussants as one of the major causes of intra-household conflict. For some people, lack of understanding of procedural family process and their limitations and boundaries as regards their relative’s families have caused a lot of chaos.

One of the discussants noted that;

“There are people who naturally cannot mind their business. When you marry such person’s child, you must be ready for undue interruptions because they will always want to know and even control what is happening in your family. And some of their children who are not matured enough to stand their ground yield to the influence thereby causing conflicts in their families”

One of the village chiefs added that:

“Our town is known to live a communal life. People tend to care about what happen to their neighbours and relatives and in so doing some do not know where to stop hence they cross boundaries and interfere in their relatives households”

Other causes of intra-household conflict mentioned by the discussants include; neglect of household chores and responsibilities, infidelity, poor understanding of roles and status, selfish interests, economic hardship, childlessness, unresolved prior conflict, bad habits and unhealthy personality or temperament. They noted that level of infidelity is on the increase and it is the root of many intra-household crises. According to them, once a spouse becomes unfaithful to their marital vows, other vices such as lack of respect for the spouse, neglect of household chores, selfishness etc. will set in. The village chiefs noted that over seventy percent of the household conflict cases brought to the palace was caused by infidelity. Okorochoa (2001) stated that marital instability is attributed to such factors as sexual incompatibility between couples, insubordination due to equal social or economic status, age of spouses, polygamous marriage, tradition and culture, etc. Ezea (2001) outlined the major sources of family conflict to be external interference particularly from in-laws, sexual incompatibility between couples, infertility of either of both couples, poverty especially of the bread winner, infidelity/lack of faithfulness, peer group influence, quest for women liberation, religious differences, differences in educational attainment,

drunkenness and related social vices and procreation of only female children, etc.

Childlessness is also noted to be one of the major causes of intra-household conflict in some cases; it is not actually childlessness but the quest for a male child. The town is a traditional Igbo setting that believes in the traditional inheritance system whereby a man's name is upheld by his male children after his death. Any man without a male child is seen as lost as there will be no continuity in the family name upon his death hence some of the names they bear like "Amaefula meaning my name should not be lost", "Uzoechina meaning my family should not be extinct".

Effects of intra-household conflict on sustainable development in the study area

The discussants agreed that the household is the basic institution for developing a child's sense of responsibility and noted that intra-household conflict disrupts this development in children thereby pumping into the society uncultured and untamed children. This according to them result to various vices and social problems in the community like public juvenile delinquency, project vandalism, alcoholism, robbery, rape, prostitution, and truancy. Problems such as rape, vandalisation of properties, robbery, etc. are caused by children from problem households. This disrupts community development efforts significantly. The psychological and physical wellbeing of members of such household whether adult or children is affected. One of the women discussants described her experience as follows;

"The day I had quarrels and incidentally fought with my husband. I was not able to come out for almost two weeks due to the pain I suffered from his beating as well as the shame I feel. Most of the maize I planted was due for harvest but due to my inability to go to farm, a large quantity was eaten up by birds"

They noted that the energy and resources which would have been spent on beneficial tasks are sometimes wasted during conflicts. In addition, they stated that intra-household conflict has ripple effect in the sense that children brought up in such homes have a greater tendency to misbehave in their own family when they have theirs.

Surprisingly, some of the discussants opined that conflict could also be beneficial if handled properly. According to them, conflict brings to light or awareness, some hidden problems that can degenerate to greater ones if not handled. Also, they noted that conflict sometimes bring about change, some persons cannot take correction unless more

severe measures are taken to correct them. One of the discussants noted that;

"My wife cannot take my words seriously unless we quarrel about it. The only way to make her know am serious about a particular issue is to shout on her and this brings up quarrel between us"

They all agreed that well-handled conflict provides opportunity for growth and as well strengthen the relationship between household members

Effective methods of managing and resolving intra-household conflict in the study area

The study area according to the discussants has both individual and institutional ways of resolving conflict. The government has the customary court in place to deal with issues of household conflict but people rarely sought such services because of the fact that their kindred will regard such as a sign of disrespect to the traditional system of resolving conflict.

Traditionally, when conflict arises in any household, most people first seek the intervention of their close friends or relatives, where the issue failed to be resolved by such individual arrangement, the extended family and family heads are invited. If the problem still could not be resolved, the kindred (*umunna*) or *Umuada* is invited into the case. The *Umunna* and *Umuada* are strong family institutions in the study area. Whatever they resolve in any household dispute is seen as final but where the parties do not agree to their resolution. The case is either taken to a more inclusive group comprising many traditional groups related to the parties involved such as the age grade, in-laws (*ndiogo*), neighbours (*agbata obi*) and the town union.

They also noted that many people prefer to sort the intervention of the church leader's instead of the traditionally instituted groups. Furthermore, they opined that one of the facilitating factors in resolving intra-household conflict is to properly counsel the different aggrieved parties, enlightening them more on the need for peace and less self-centered actions. This they said bring change in the individual's understanding, knowledge and attitude resulting in lasting peace when eventually the conflict is resolved.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conflict is inevitable in any relationship. The role of conflict resolution is indispensable in the creation, maintenance and optimization of any form of relationship. It can be deduced from the study that intra-rural household conflict is majorly perceived among the respondents as disagreement over values,

beliefs, interests and needs. It is mainly caused by lack of communication, poor understanding of roles and status, selfish interests, extended family and friends interference, economic hardship, childlessness, unresolved prior conflict, infidelity and unhealthy personality or temperament. Intra-rural household conflicts affect the psychological and behavioral development of children and household stability as well general town development. Resolution could be achieved through better understanding of self and household members, respect for each person's role and status in the family, better knowledge of marriage/family life and family heads, kindred or village chief's intervention. More effective marriage classes by the different Christian denominations in the area, an enhanced traditional system of marriage that could showcase the importance of peaceful family were recommended. Furthermore, agricultural extension agency may consider expansion in the scope of their services to incorporate household conflict management as this will boost their agricultural activities. In addition, government specifically the national orientation agency as well as NGOs should intensify efforts in rendering social services rather than infrastructural development.

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PEACE AND CONFLICT: THE PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE TO PEACE BUILDING

Olatunji, O. A. and Omole O. E.
 Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti state, Nigeria
 Correspondent contact details: jokolatumji@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Conflicts are the consequences of the fear for the future which is lived through the past. It is an inevitable result of human nature. In psychology, conflict is a turning point during which an individual struggles to attain some psychological quality. When there is a state of disequilibrium, a form of imbalance within an individual or among groups, there may not be balance or a state of peace within and among such individuals.

Rural development entails the process of improving the quality of life and economic wellbeing of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas. Rural conflicts are wide spread and they are conflicts over grazing land, over cattle, over water points and over cultivable land, most important are the rise of rural inequalities between the rich and the poor or landless farmers which has led to a considerable competition, anger, hatred, killings, fear, insecurities and social inequalities. From the psychological perspective, when an individual or group is experiencing any kind of distress (for example, depression, anxiety, fear or anger), they are engaging in biased ways of thinking and the way these thoughts are acted out are the results of their learning experiences. How individuals think (cognition) and how they act (behaviour) all interacts together, specifically, human thoughts determine his behaviour. Thus, positive parent – child relationship factors, peer influence, school or workplace (where obedience to authority and conformity is ingrained in individuals), psycho-education, cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) among others are the various psychological interventions of peace building for rural development.

Keywords: Rural conflicts, psychology, peace building.

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the world, conflicts are the consequences of the fear for the future, lived through the past. It is the collective fear of the future based on a history of social uncertainty, due to the failure of the state to arbitrate justly between or provide credible guarantee of protection for groups resulting in emerging anarchy and social fractures” (Adedeji, 1999).

In psychology, conflict is the arousal of two or more motives that cannot be solved together; it exists when the reduction of one motivating stimulus involves an increase in another so that a new adjustment is demanded (Bilgan and Smolkowski, 2002). Conflict is a turning point during which an individual struggles to attain some psychological quality. Sometimes referred to as psychosocial crisis, it can be a time of both vulnerability and strength as the individual works towards success or failure (Erikson, 1950). Conflicts are often unconscious in the sense that the person cannot clearly identify the source of his distress. Many strong impulses such as fear and hostility are so much disapproved by most culture that a child or an individual learns not to acknowledge them even to himself. When such impulses are involved in a conflict, the person is anxious but does not know why. He is then less able to bring rational thinking to bear on the problem.

Peace is a pre-condition for our emotional well-being but a peaceful state of mind is subject to cognitive disruptions and aggressive eruptions. Peace is a linchpin of social harmony, economic equity and political justice but peace is also constantly ruptured by wars and other forms of violent conflict. Peace

like many theoretical terms, is difficult to define but like happiness, love, justice and many others, we often recognise it by its absence thus peace can be seen from two angles: positive peace which denotes simultaneous presence of many desirable states of mind and society e.g. harmony, justice, equity etc. while negative peace has historically denoted the absence of war and other forms of wide scale violent human conflict.

In rural areas of many countries there are many conflicts which are ethnically based, mainly over - grazing land and over cattle amongst pastoral people. Similarly, there are conflicts over cultivable land amongst peasant farmers within the same ethnic group and also between ethnic groups. Sometimes these inter-ethnic conflicts over land and cattle develops into rebellions and armed fighting between the ethnic groups and the state, when the latter sends in the military to stop the fighting or even to take side. Similarly conflicts for fertile and cultivable land have been taking place amongst many ethnic groups in many countries.

Rural conflicts over land and cattle have been going on for over a long period with very little attention given to them. Even today, most such conflicts go unnoticed and unreported unless large-scale killing and injuries take place and the state intervenes militarily.

Causes of rural conflicts

The causes of conflicts in Africa reflect the continent’s diversity and complexity. Africa has the largest and the highest level of ethnic diversity than any other continent (Collier and Binswanger, 1999). These authors argue that because African countries

have many ethnic groups with strong identities (loyalties), it is hard to organise rebellion across ethnic division. While some causes of conflicts in these areas are purely internal and portray specific sub-regional dynamics, others have a significant international dimension. Notwithstanding these differences in Africa, conflicts show a number of cross – cutting themes and experiences (Adedeji, 1999). The causes of rural conflicts can be grouped into two main groups:

- i. Rural conflicts over competition for economic resources
- ii. The psychological fear of political uncertainties which involves lack of security

Rural conflicts over competition for economic resources

While most research publications and media reports cover the political conflict in which the state is involved in one way or the other. Little is known or reported on rural conflicts which is the most widespread and that involve the process of improving the quality of life and economic wellbeing of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas. These are conflicts over grazing land, over cattle, over water points and over cultivable land. These conflicts go back a long way, in some cases to the pre-colonial period. However, major changes have been introduced in the countries’ economies such as changes over land laws which often contradict customary laws, confiscation of large tracts of land for ranching and large scale farming and increase in population. Most important is the rise of rural inequalities between the rich and the poor or landless farmers between rich ranchers and poor cattle owners. These changes have led to a considerable competition for the scarce resources of land (cultivable and grazing, including water).

Furthermore, environmental deterioration in land productivity and scarcity of water has contributed to the intensity of the competition. Amongst pastoral societies in particular, the system of grazing which involves movement of large cattle herds to water points and in search of pasture has created a serious problem. Private ownership of land has restricted these necessary movements of pastoralist and the impact has been serious and catastrophic on pastoralist societies.

A recent phenomenon has added the intensity and frequency of conflicts amongst cattle grazing people. In countries with serious rebel movements, these have often raided the pastoralists for cattle in order to sell them for arms or for food. The pastoralists in their turn had to acquire arms to defend themselves. Another phenomenon is the highly organised and extensive cattle stealing from

one pastoralist group by another (often led by outsiders), with automatic weapons often being used. This is because cattle have acquired considerable value because of the great demand for meat in the urban areas and also for export purposes. This is particularly the case in the horn of Africa and East Africa. Examples of conflicts amongst pastoralists are the Somalis, Oromos, Karamojong, Pokot, Masai etc. There are recent examples of well – reported conflicts in Nigeria such as in Enugu State (between the Fulani and Igbo ethnic groups), Ondo State (between the Fulani herdsmen and the people of Ilado community in Akure Local Government Area), Ekiti State (between the Fulani herdsmen and the people of Oke Ako community in Ikole Local Government Area) among others.

Apart from conflicts amongst cattle grazing people, some of these conflicts can also be linked directly to contests for the control of resources such as rubber, petroleum, diamond among others. The contests and conflicts for control of resources have led to a lot of anarchy, chaos and killings, injuries and war in so many communities.

The psychological fear of political uncertainties

The psychological fear of political uncertainties breeds feeling of insecurity in individual member and groups in the rural community. This is where the definition of conflicts as defined by Adedeji (1999) has come to play. He defined conflict as the consequences of the fear of the future which is lived through the past. He further stated that it is the collective fear of the future based on a history of social uncertainty, due to the future of the state to arbitrate justly between or provide credible guarantee of protection for groups, resulting in emerging anarchy and social fractures. Thus, when there is a rural inequality which can be in the area of political, economic, social and ethnic sectors of the community, conflict which is directed to the state by rural community members or conflicts within and among members of communities is bound to set in.

Erikson (1968) in his psychosocial theory of development described conflict as a psychosocial crisis which is a turning point for an individual where such an individual struggles to attain some psychological quality and at these points in development, a conflict emerges that can contribute or impede an individual’s growth. Erikson identified eight stages of psychosocial development and at each of these stages an individual deals with a conflict that serves as a turning point in development. When the conflict is resolved successfully, the person is able to develop the psychosocial quality associated with that particular stage of development. The fifth stage of this theory centres on adolescence. It is the age bracket of youth that are mostly involved and being

used in most of the common rural conflicts around. It is a stage where youth explore their independence and develop a sense of self. One of the main element of this stage is ego identity which is the conscious sense of self that youth develop through social interaction and relationships and which is constantly changing due to new experiences and information they acquire in their daily interactions with others and from their societies.

As adolescents (teenagers / youths) transition from childhood to adulthood, they may begin to feel confused and insecure about themselves and how they fit into their society. As they seek to establish a sense of self, they may experiment different roles, activities and behaviours which according to Erikson is important to the process of forming a strong identity and developing a sense of direction in life. Youth behaviour often seems unpredictable and impulsive but all of these are part of the process of finding a sense of personal identity.

Parents and family members continue to exert an influence on how youths feel about themselves but outside forces also become particularly important during this time. Friends, social groups, schoolmates, workmates, societal trends, political policies and even popular culture all play a role in shaping and forming identity. Those who receive proper encouragement, attention and reinforcement will emerge from this stage with a strong sense of self and a feeling of independence and control, while those who are neglected or not encouraged nor reinforced and who are unsure of their beliefs and desires will remain insecure, fearful and confused about themselves and the future.

Ways of prevention of conflict - Prevention of conflict is essentially a long term process and it needs long term strategies and policies whose impact will prevent the emergence of conditions which give rise to conflicts. These strategies and policies are fundamental to all rural areas of all countries which aim at minimising serious conflict in the long run.

Peace-making in conflict is the action undertaking to consolidate peace and prevent armed confrontation. The deployment of peace-making resources is an essential part of any effort to prevent and resolve conflicts such as negotiation, mediation, good offices, fact-finding missions and judicial resolution among others.

Nation building: developing national consciousness through cultural policies and through the educational system and acknowledgement of cultural diversity within a framework of national unity.

Political system: a system of politics that rules over competition for power and the one that guarantees the possibility of alternate groups

achieving power within a reasonable period of time. There must be good governance, securing respect for human rights and the rule of law

Economic development: there should be equality in the distribution of economic resources and development funds. All these must be evenly distributed between the regions and groups concerned. Free market should be opened and encouraged, thus creating a positive environment for investment and economic growth.

Psychological interventions in peace building - Peace building is an intervention or activities that are designed to prevent the start or resumption of violent conflict by creating sustainable peace. It is targeted at reducing the risk of lapsing or relapsing into conflict by strengthening rural or national capacities at all levels for conflict management and to lay foundation for sustainable peace and development. Peace building must address the root causes or potential causes of violence and conflict, create a societal expectation for peaceful conflict resolution and stabilize the society politically and socioeconomically. Moreover, peace building strategies must be coherent and tailored to the specific needs of the individual, group or country concerned, based on national ownership and should comprise a carefully prioritized, sequenced and relatively narrow set of activities aimed at achieving the set objectives (Adedeji, 1999). Based on these, the following psychological interventions are set out to address the root causes of violent tendencies at individual level first and then to groups

Cognitive-behavioural therapy (CBT) - The cognitive theory originated with the works of Albert (1974) and Beck (1967) in explaining domestic violence. The theory explains that any individual who is experiencing any kind of distress such as depression, anxiety, anger or fear are usually engaging in biased ways of thinking. CBT is based on the idea that how we think (cognition) and how we act (behaviour) all interacts together. Specifically, our thoughts determine our feelings and our behaviour. Therefore, negative unrealistic thoughts and biases can cause us negative actions and behaviours, when a person suffers a psychological distress, the way in which they interpret situations becomes skewed which in turn has a negative impact on the actions they take.

Psychologists who operate from cognitive paradigm focuses on identifying what some of these biases may be and help the client to create a “cognitive shift” where they begin to view their world and make conclusions in a more balanced way (Beck and Weishaar, 1995). Psychologists who operate from a strictly behaviourist theory of human functioning believe that the way a person acts is a

result of their learning experiences. A person's propensity for a certain behaviour for example, aggression, violence, war or conflict is highly influenced by whether or not that behaviour was rewarded or punished in their past (Todd and Bohart, 1999). This is also known as the social learning theory of aggression.

Cognitive theory and behaviour theory eventually began to amalgamate into a form of psychotherapy known as Cognitive-Behavioural Therapy or CBT, in the early 1980's. The reason for their marriage is that researchers from both camps discovered that the cessation or modification of certain behaviours required a change in perception and interpretation – two aspects of cognitive function.

For C-B therapists, the most important aspect in the acquisition of certain behaviour is how a person perceives, interprets and processes the events in any given situation (Todd and Bohart, 1994). For example, their behaviour are being influenced by thought patterns, what they perceived and interpreted prior to the behaviour, thus, changing these thought patterns, then will theoretically contribute to change in behaviour.

In conflict management CBT can work using these major steps; Identifying and acknowledging individual expectations and perceptions, exploring counter-productive triggers, beliefs and behaviours, agreeing differences and acceptable tolerance ranges, identifying and practising new behaviours based on shared values, mutual respect, empathy, trust and tolerance, agreeing to a new contract changes that each partner commits to and forms the basis of the future relationship. It is difficult to achieve change when one or both parties in conflict are locked into unhealthy or destructive behaviours.

Psycho-education - Psycho-education refers to the education given to people who are living with emotional disturbances. It is a professionally delivered therapeutic modality that integrates and synergizes both psychological and educational interventions. It is based on strengths and focuses on the present (Biglan and Smolkowski, 2002). The rationale behind psycho-education approach is that, with a clear understanding of the mental condition and self-knowledge of our strengths, community resources and coping skills, the individual is better equipped to deal with the problem and to contribute to his or her own emotional well-being. The core psycho-educational principle is that education has a role in emotional and behavioural change.

With an improved understanding of the causes and effects of the problem, psycho-education broadens the person's perception and interpretation

of the problem and thus refined view positively influences the individual's emotion and behaviour. Consequently, improved awareness of causes and effects leads to improved self-efficacy (the person believing that he is able to manage the situation), and improved self-control. In other words, the person feels less helpless about the situation and more in control of himself. Educating people about their own emotional problems can be an effective way for them to get the facts and learn effective coping strategies so that they take the steps necessary in helping themselves.

The provision of psycho-education can occur before or after a conflict. The intention of the intervention is to ameliorate or mitigate the effects of exposure to extreme situations. It is an important aspect in psychosocial support programmes and training. The application of psycho-education during conflicts can be implemented in a number of different formats and settings. The format depends on the causes and severity of the conflicts, the developmental age of the people and individual involved and their individual or group needs. Psycho-education can be individual based, family based, parent-based or community based. It can be introduced as an awareness programmes inform of training and seminars to sensitise community members to educate them on the issue at hand. It can come at the level of positive parent-child relationship which is a peace-building strategy that provides the foundation for child's learning. With parent's sensitive, responsive and predictable care, young children develop the skills they need to succeed in life. Early parent-child relationships have powerful and positive effects on children's emotional well-being (Dawson and Ashman, 2000), their basic coping and problem-solving abilities and future capacity for relationships (Lerner and Castellino, 2002). Through these interactions, children learn skills they need to engage with others and to succeed in different environments. They learn how to manage their emotions and behaviours and establish healthy relationships with adults and peers. They also learn how to adjust to new situations and to resolve conflicts. When parents have warm, trusting and reliable relationship with peers, family, community members and service providers, they are more likely to have positive relationships with their children. Research has consistently pointed it out that children who witnessed violence between parents or other adults were found to show more anxiety, self-esteem, depression, anger and temperament problems than children who did not witness violence at home. The area in which there is probably the greatest amount of information on problems associated with witnessing violence is in the area of children's behavioural and

emotional functioning. Achenbach and Edelbrock, 1983 have found child witnesses of domestic violence to exhibit more aggressive and antisocial (often called “externalised” behaviours) and to show lower social competence than other children.

In School settings, the emphasis of psycho-education is on behaviour management theories and methods that teachers can use to manage and modify troubled behaviours. Classroom psycho-educational approaches are oriented towards improving social behaviour, teaching the troubled and behaviourally disordered student the socio-emotional coping skills that the child seems to be lacking. Psycho-educational teachers recognise that troubled students benefit from a degree of self-knowledge and self – awareness to be able to relate well with peers and have the goal of helping troubled students learn about their own feelings and behaviours.

CONCLUSION

Having seen conflict from two levels, firstly, as a social situation in which incompatible goals and activities occur between two or more parties (individuals and groups) who hold antagonistic feelings towards each other and attempt to control each other. Secondly, conflict is described as being resides in an individual, it is seen as the arousal of two or more motives that cannot be solved together; it exists when the reduction of one motivating stimulus involves an increase in another so that a new adjustment is demanded.

While conflict is generally seen as a disagreement through which the parties involved perceive a threat to their concerns, it is a phenomenon that cannot be completely wished away in the process of growth and development of individual. It is a psychosocial crisis which occurs at a point during which an individual struggles to attain some psychological quality so as to develop optimally in the course of a life span. Special concern and guidance must be given to the process of transition of individuals from childhood to adolescence, because it is at this critical stage that the worldviews become important to individuals and they face the tasks of finding out who they are, what they are capable of doing and where they are going in life. As such, the role of significant factors and institutions such as the parents, schools, religious institutions are to be in place so as to give appropriate and adequate needs in the areas of social, cognitive, academic, moral, psychological and material to these individuals so that they would be able to successfully resolve conflicts within and amongst them.

Given the facts of history and the ever-progressing understanding of human genetic and hormonal nature, achieving peace looks inconceivable and impossible but since peace is a pre-condition for human emotional, social, cognitive and behavioural wellbeing, peace-building is and ought to be heroic quest of the this present world if we are to survive even from individual to family to groups to community to national and to international levels.

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PERCEIVED CAUSES AND MITIGATION STRATEGIES OF CONFLICT BETWEEN EMPLOYEES AND MANAGEMENT OF COCOA RESEARCH INSTITUTE OF NIGERIA

Ayansina, S. O., Adeogun, O. S., Oyeyinka, R. A. and Oyekunle, O.

Department of Agricultural Administration, Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria

Correspondent contact details: drayansina@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The study examined the perceived causes and mitigation strategies of conflict between employees and management of Cocoa Research Institute of Nigeria. Simple random sampling technique was employed to select one hundred and eleven respondents from the existing departments of the organisation. Structured questionnaire was used to elicit information from the respondents on the basis of objectives of the study. Frequency counts, percentages and mean were used to present results while Chi-square and correlation analyses were utilized to test the study hypotheses. Results indicate that many of the workers, 45.9% were between the ages of 25-30 years; male (61.3%) dominated the population, while 91.9% were married and 51.3% had HND and BSc. Certificates. Mean years of experience was 9 years. Common causes of conflict were unfair treatment ($\bar{x}=3.98$), and Conflicting idea ($\bar{x}=1.88$). The most embraced mitigation strategies was blending of people's idea ($\bar{x}= 3.97$). Tested hypotheses revealed that years of experience ($\chi^2 = 0.03$, $P<0.05$) was significantly related to the causes of conflict while positive and significant relationship exist between causes and mitigation method ($r=0.0299$, $p<=0.3$) of conflict employed. It is therefore, recommended that management of the institute should avoid forcing policies on employees and should make working resources available to the organisation staff.

INTRODUCTION

Conflict is inevitable in any organisation. An organisation with no traces of it signifies peace, conformity and encourages innovation. Conflict is the disagreement between at least two persons or groups on a particular issue. It is almost impossible for a group of people or team to interact during the performance of their jobs and tasks assigned to them without conflicting. Sustainable development in agriculture among other things requires a peaceful co-habitation of personnel in agricultural organisations and food producing communities. Conflict varies in meaning depending on the situation and circumstances surrounding the situation. Conflict may be a war, an opportunity, or a journey (David, 1997). Conflict is a process which begins when one party perceives that another party has frustrated, or is about to frustrate. Each individual has his or her goals and interest, which sometimes clash with those of others. Conflict is usually associated with violence, the threat of violence or non-violent disputes.

The human part of the organisation is the most important asset, and managing other resources is not possible without the efficient management of the human resources. Conflict is bound to happen in the day to day interaction of people in an organisation and it doesn't need to be destructive, it has to be stimulated positively to increase the performance of staffs in an organisation. Conflict is a serious problem in organisations and can take its toll in either way positive or negative (Adomi and Anie, 2006). Conflict may arise between , staff and management orit mostly occurs when misinterpretation of words occurs between parties or poor communication of information arises in any

place. In order for an organisation to survive and move forward, all form of conflict have to be resolved. According to a survey conducted by American Management Association, managers spend at least 24 percent of their time in a working day resolving conflict (Guttman, 2009). Conflict at work takes many forms; it may simply be that two workers don't get on or that an individual has a grievance against their manager. It could also be in the form of rivalry between teams or lack of trust and cooperation between staff and management.

All these forms of conflict if not resolved can lead to poor employee performances, frustration, high employee turnover, absenteeism, hampering creativity and productivity, strike action. There are lots of issues that can result in conflict. This include; poor management, unfair treatment either by staffs or management, inadequate training, unclear job roles, poor communication, poor work environment, bullying and harassment. All these might have been going on for long without notice but can be sparked by the personalities involved, changing needs and expectations of the individual such as a fair pay rate, ignoring common values and increase in workload. Handling work conflicts is beneficial for both employees and organisation. Conflict handling reduces negative impact of conflict and uncertainty and use of positive conflict handling style can mitigate and remove its effects (Tidd and Friedman, 2002). Proper handling of conflict will improve employee's performance thereby increasing productivity.

Conflict does not have to be connoted as bad. According to Pondy (1992) the absence of conflict may indicate autocracy, uniformity, stagnation, and mental fixity; the presence of conflict

may be indicative of democracy, diversity, growth, and self-actualization. Tjosvold (1998) then complements this statement arguing that conflict is not the opposite of cooperation but a mechanism that allow individual to perceive benefits of cooperative work.

In organisations, employees face conflicts while working in groups, teams, and departments (Adomi and Anie, 2006; Liu, Fu, and Liu, 2009). Employees' intra-group conflicts affect their job performance negatively (Rahim and Psenicka, 2004). Within teams or groups, relationship conflicts reduce team cohesiveness while both relationship and task conflicts were found to be negatively associated with firm performance (Liu *et al.*, 2009). However, moderate amounts of team and task conflict yield higher level of satisfaction among team members of a project (Leung, Liu, and Ng, 2005).

Interpersonal conflict involves negative emotions and it was found that interpersonal conflict affect project outcomes consistently and negatively even when managed well (Barki and Hartwick, 2001). Nowadays, employees have strong beliefs, therefore employees performance rely solely on how they have been treated. When conflict arises between staff and management, the staff may think that the management has low expectations of them, thereby staffs could be committed to absenteeism to escape from it. A person free of conflict's thoughts and actions are often constant but when conflict is going on, a person's thoughts and action can tend to change but yet predictable, thus this change and unstable state of the mind can hinder the growth of any organisation. Conflict is all about the need for change, improvement on the way things or issues have been to a better way.

This study was conducted at the Cocoa Research Institute of Nigeria (CRIN), Ibadan, Oyo State. The broad objective of this study is to assess the causes and mitigation strategies of conflict between staffs and management of Cocoa Research Institute of Nigeria (CRIN), in Ibadan, Oyo state. The specific objectives of the study are to: determine the socioeconomic characteristics of respondents in the study organisation, identifying the causes of conflicts between staffs and management, establish the types of conflict between staff and management; and determine the mitigation strategies of conflict resolution between employees and management in the study organisation.

Hypotheses of the Study

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship / association between socioeconomic characteristic and perceive causes of conflict

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between perceived causes and mitigation strategies of conflict among the staff and management of the study organisation

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in Cocoa Research Institute of Nigeria (CRIN)Ibadan, Oyo state. It is one of the National Agricultural Research Institutes in Nigeria. CRIN was, until 1964 a sub-station of the defunct West Africa Cocoa Research Institute (WACRI) founded by the British colonial administration in 1944 with its headquarters in New Tafo, Ghana. The Nigeria sub-station with its experimental plots at Owena and Moor plantation, Ibadan, was established in 1953 through a research committee regulated by the WACRI (Nigeria). In October 1962, the WACRI (Nigeria) was established. This was eventually replaced by CRIN, which was established in December 1964 by the Nigeria Research Institute Act, No 33 of 1964. The study population comprises of all men and women employees working in the institute. Simple Random Sampling Technique was employed to select one hundred and eleven respondents from the total population of 938 in all departments of the Institution. Structured and validated pretested questionnaire was used to elicit information from the respondents.

Selected socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents: age, sex, marital status, educational status, years of working experience and income per annum were ascertained by asking the respondents to indicate as appropriate. Causes and mitigation strategies of conflict in the study area was determined from the response to a number of generated statements measured on 5-point Likert type scale of Strongly Agree, (SA) Agree (A) Undecided (U), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD) with scores of 4, 3, 0 2, and 1 respectively . While types of conflict was ascertained by asking the respondents to react to a sets of statements on the scale of Often (O), Rarely (R) and Never (N) with scores of 3,2, and 1 respectively.

The data collected were summarized using descriptive statistics such as frequency counts, percentages and mean. Inferential statistics such as Chi- Square (X^2) and Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) analyses were used to test the study hypotheses, while inferences were drawn for policy formulations.

Table 1: Sample frame of respondents at Cocoa Research Institute of Nigeria

Department	Population	Sample size (11.8%)
Research scientist	72	14
Laboratory	24	4
Agric. Superintendents	63	12
Professionals in administration, finance supply and engineering.	33	6
Semi-skilled and skilled personnel	746	75
Total	938	111

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Socioeconomic characteristics of employees

Socioeconomics characteristics of the respondents were surveyed. As shown on Table 2, 45.9% of the employees were between ages of 25-30 years while 4.5% were 51 years and above. The mean age of the employees was 38years. This implies that majority of the employees were in their active ages and still have many years to contribute to the development of the organisation. The result corroborates the findings of Adegbite and Olaoye (2009) who established that larger proportion of employees in research and academics are within the ages of 35-50years.

Also, 61.3% of the employees were males while 38.7% were females. The higher percentages of male employees could be attributed to intensive labour demand of agricultural works and related factors; and higher responsibility expected from men as the head of the family, hence, the need for appointment in institutions in order to sustain their family needs. This results is in agreement with Idowu, *et al* (2012) who reported more male workers in academic and research related institutions than their female counterparts. Marital profile of the employees indicate that 91.9% were married, while only 8.1% were single. This implies that most employees of the institutions were married. The marriage institution is given pronounced significance in this part of the world hence, employees had family which would make them responsible and very stable in their work schedule and professional line. The findings support that of Fapojuwo, (2010) who

declared that a great importance is attached to marriage institutions and individual responsibilities.

As further depicted on the table, majority 51-3% of the employees had B.Sc./HND degrees, 38.7% possess M.Sc, certificates, 72 % were NCE/OND holders, while only 2.7% had completed PhD. programmes. By indication, this shows that the employees in the institutions are well educated and hence, will be very competent in the discharge of their official responsibilities. The result confirms the position of Morris and Jutting (2005) who submitted that education signifies professional competence and economic development.

Table 1 also depicts information on employees' experience. It is found that 36% of the employees had spent between 6-10 years, 25.2% between 1-5years, 15.3% had stayed on the job for between 11-15years while 23.4% had been working in the institution between 16-20years. This implies that majority of the employers must be well competent in their official duties. It is generally believed that that long years of service means that enough experience would have been developed and could be passed down to subordinate on the job.

Table 1 also shows that 63.1% of the employees were earning above ₦90,000; 25.2% earn between ₦61,000- ₦90,000; 9.0% earn between ₦31,000- ₦60,000 while 2.7% earn less or equal to ₦30,000 in the institution. Monetary (tangible reward) has been found to be a powerful incentive to motivate workers for higher productivity. This is in line with Bolarinwa, (2014) who correlated monetary reward to high morale among labourers.

Table 2: Socioeconomic characteristics of the employees, n=111

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Sex			
Male	68	61.3	
Female	43	38.7	
Age			
25-30 years	6	5.4	38 years
31-40 years	51	45.9	
41-50 years	49	44.1	
51 years and above	5	4.5	
Marital status			
Single	9	8.1	

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Married	102	91.9	
Religion			
Christianity	91	82	
Islam	18	16.2	
Traditional	2	1.8	
Educational status			
OND/NCE	8	7.2	
HND/B.Sc	57	51.3	
MS.c	43	38.7	
PhD	3	2.7	
Department			
Researchers	105	94.5	
Non-researchers	6	5.4	
Years of experience			
1-5 years	28	25.2	
6-10 years	40	36	9 years
11-15 years	17	15.3	
16-20 years	26	23.4	
Income per annum			
Less than or equal to #30,000	3	2.7	#120,000
#31,000 - #60,000	10	9.0	
#61,000 – #90,000	28	25.2	
Above #90,000	70	63.1	

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Identified causes of conflicts in the institution

Causes of conflicts among the employees of Cocoa Research Institute shows that factor according to the respondents were unfair treatment ($\bar{X} = 3.98$) differential attitude, values and perception ($\bar{X} = 3.90$) and unresolved problems of the past ($\bar{X} = 3.85$) as shown in table 3 Others factors were disagreement about needs, goals, priorities ($\bar{X} = 3.83$), poor management ($\bar{X} = 3.7a$), and scarcity of resources ($\bar{X} = 3.72$). From sociological point of view, the above factors are capable of causing uproar in an organisation. Hitt *et al* (2006) found that competition for limited resources and facilities,

unresolved problems differential values; and perceptions often leads to conflicts.

Luthans, (2008) and Asaaf, (2004) confirms that many problems experienced by individuals within organisation are due to inappropriate or wrong communication. Conflict can as well arise as a result of lack of clarity in roles and responsibilities expected of individuals which corroborates the finding of Maher, (2004) who asserts that employees may go into conflict with other colleagues as a result of difficulty in determination of work schedule and duty responsibility of each employee clearly.

Table 3: Identified causes of conflict in the institution (n= 111)

Variables	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	SD
Unfair treatment	46 (41.4)	36 (32.4)	17 (15.3)	7 (6.3)	5 (4.5)	3.98	1.1142
Different attitudes values	34 (30.6)	50 (45)	12 (10.8)	12 (10.8)	3 (2.7)	3.90	1.322
Perceptions							
Unresolved problems	40 (36)	34 (30.6)	20 (18.0)	11 (9.9)	6 (5.4)	3.85	1.18
Disagreement about	34 (30.6)	47 (42.3)	16 (14.4)	5 (4.5)	9 (8.1)	3.83	1.159
priorities							
Poor management	43 (38.7)	28 (25.2)	24 (21.6)	7 (6.3)	9 (8.1)	3.79	1.250
Misinterpretation roles	36 (32.4)	34 (30.6)	24 (21.6)	12 (10.8)	5 (4.5)	3.75	1.153
Scarcity of resources	39 (35.1)	35 (31.5)	17 (15.3)	7 (6.3)	13(11.7)	3.72	1.322
Abuse of power	41 (36.9)	22 (19.8)	27 (24.3)	14 (12.6)	7 (6.3)	3.68	1.265
Absence of power	42 (37.8)	20 (18.0)	26 (23.4)	12 (10.8)	11 (9.9)	3.63	1.348
Poor communication	34 (30.6)	31 (27.9)	21 (18.9)	19 (17.1)	6 (5.4)	3.61	1.237
Lack of cooperation	36 (32.4)	29 (26.1)	17 (15.3)	21 (18.9)	8 (7.2)	3.58	1.311

Variables	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	SD
Favouritism	27 (24.3)	42 (37.8)	21 (18.9)	11 (9.9)	10(9.0)	3.58	1.222
Ignoring common values	31 (27.9)	30 (27.0)	26 (23.4)	13 (11.7)	11 (9.9)	3.50	1.283
Poor work conditions	37 (33.3)	22 (19.8)	19 (17.1)	20 (18.0)	13(11.7)	3.44	1.411
Lack of clarity in roles and responsibilities	17 (15.3)	40 (36.0)	21(18.9)	26 (23.4)	7(6.3)	3.31	1.174
Lack of team work	20 (18.0)	37 (33.3)	18 (16.2)	24 (21.6)	12(10.8)	3.26	1.284
Working hour	22 (19.8)	22 (19.8)	16 (14.4)	34 (30.6)	17(15.3)	3.00	1.394
Inadequate organisational structure	14 (12.6)	29 (26.1)	24 (21.6)	30 (27.0)	14(12.6)	2.99	1.247
Interdependence	14 (12.6)	15 (13.5)	45 (40.5)	24 (21.6)	13(11.7)	2.94	1.160
Demand for higher wages	21 (18.9)	16 (14.4)	14 (12.6)	34 (30.6)	26 (23.4)	2.75	1.454

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Types of conflicts experienced

According to table 4, types of conflict that were possible in any organisation were investigated among the employees of Cocoa Research Institute of Nigeria. As revealed on the table, conflict that do occur were conflicting ideas about the task to be performed ($\bar{X} = 1.88$), conflict on the quality ($\bar{X} = 1.79$) and conflicting opinion about the projects ($\bar{X} = 1.76$).Others were conflicts about the best way of solving a problem ($\bar{X} = 1.74$), disagreement about task related issues ($\bar{X} = 1.68$), conflict on time to be spent on project ($\bar{X} = 1.68$), conflict about distribution of work ($\bar{X} = 1.64$), consideration of other idea ($\bar{X} = 1.58$). While the least conflict on issue relating to task were opinion on methods to deal

with cases and addressing/solution to problems ($\bar{X} = 1.38$) and conflict on disagreement with idea when no alternative is offered ($\bar{X} = 1.38$).

Relationship conflict that were also identified were difficulty to take ownership of the team ($\bar{X} = 1.54$), pursuing task that were not compatible with each other's and objective ($\bar{X} = 1.34$) and difficulty in expressing oneself to other team member ($\bar{X} = 1.34$) and lastly getting angry when working with others ($\bar{X} = 1.32$). This result corroborate the findings of Flanagan and Revden (2008) who declared that task and relationship conflicts are inevitable in any organisation with heterogeneous qualities of employees.

Table 4: Levels and types of conflict (n=111)

Variables	Often	Rarely	Never	\bar{X}	S.D
Levels of Conflict					
Intrapersonal conflict	21(18.9)	55(49.5)	35(31.5)	1.94	0.863
Interpersonal conflict	25(22.5)	49(44.1)	37(33.3)	1.93	0.832
Intergroup conflict	24(21.6)	55(49.5)	32(28.8)	1.93	0.716
Intragroup conflict	17(15.3)	52(46.8)	42(37.8)	1.77	0.702
Task Conflict					
Do you often have conflicting ideas?	21(18.9)	54 (48.6)	36(32.4)	1.88	0.742
Do you conflict on the quality and effort others place on their part of the work?	16(14.4)	54 (48.6)	41(36.9)	1.79	0.721
Do you often have conflicting opinions about projects?	17(15.3)	51 (45.9)	43(38.7)	1.76	0.706
Do you often conflict about the best way of solving a problem?	16(14.4)	51 (45.9)	44(39.6)	1.74	0.699
Do you often disagree about task related issue?	14(12.6)	42(37.8)	55(49.5)	1.68	0.737
Do you conflict on the length of time to spend on a project	7(6.3)	62(55.9)	42(37.8)	1.68	0.591
Do you often conflict on work allocation not evenly distributed?	8(7.2)	56(50.4)	47(42.3)	1.64	0.618
Do you go long with your idea only, with no considerations for others idea?	12(10.8)	37(33.3)	62(55.9)	1.58	0.725
Do you conflict on opinions about how to deal with cases, address issues and solutions to	11(9.9)	38 (34.2)	62(55.9)	1.57	0.713

Variables	Often	Rarely	Never	\bar{X}	S.D
problems?					
Do you often disagree with ideas but not offer alternative?	7(6.3)	27(24.3)	77(69.4)	1.38	0.607
Relationship Conflict					
Do you find it difficult to take team?	2(1.8)	34(30.6)	75(67.6)	1.54	0.921
Do you often pursue tasks that are each other?	9(8.1)	30(27.0)	72(64.9)	1.44	0.645
Do you generally dislike interacting with each other in a team?	10(9.0)	15(13.5)	86(77.5)	1.40	1.123
Do you find it difficult to express yourself to the team and channel the frustration into argumentative behavior?	10(9.0)	12(10.8)	89(80.2)	1.34	0.723
Do you often get angry while working with others?	-	26(23.4)	85(76.6)	1.32	1.026

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Mitigation strategies of conflict in the study institutions

Methods of conflict resolution as perceived by the selected employees of the organisation was also sought. As revealed on table 6, the most embarrassed method to resolve crises proffered by many respondents were blending the idea of all people involved (\bar{x} =3.97), seeking solution that satisfy everybody (\bar{x} 3.88) and negotiation openly with staff to maintain a compromised level (\bar{x} =3.86).

As further depicted on the table, other mitigation methods of resolving conflict were; discussion of issue with others to find out the accepted solution among others (\bar{x} =3.68), avoidance

of argument and disagreement with others (\bar{x} =3.66), preparation of one mind to win and lose some when negotiate (\bar{x} =3.49) and being firm when advocating issues (\bar{x} =3.41).

Other mitigating strategies according to the employee were satisfying needs of others (\bar{x} =3.30), maintenance of middle course to resolve differences (\bar{x} =3.023), going with recommendation of others during conflict situation (\bar{x} =3.04) while the least embraced means of resolving conflict among the employees was using of one influence to get my position accepted by others (\bar{x} = 2.40).

Table 5: Mitigation strategies of conflict in the institution (n=111)

Variables	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	S.D
To resolve a conflict, I try to blend the ideas of all the people involved	33 (29.7)	58 (52.3)	10 (9.0)	4 (3.6)	6 (5.4)	3.97	1.013
I like to work with others to find solutions to problem that satisfy everyone	37 (33.3)	47 (42.3)	12 (10.8)	7 (6.3)	8 (7.2)	3.88	1.163
I negotiate openly with others so that a compromise can be reached	43 (30.6)	48 (43.2)	14 (12.6)	9 (8.1)	6 (5.4)	3.86	1.111
I try to discuss an issue with others to find the solution accepted to all of us	27 (24.3)	50 (45.0)	15 (13.5)	9 (8.1)	10 (9.0)	3.68	1.192
I try to avoid disagreement with Others	29 (26.1)	45 (40.5)	15 (13.5)	14 (12.6)	8 (7.2)	3.66	1.202
When I negotiate, I usually win and lose some	24 (21.6)	38 (34.2)	27 (24.3)	13 (11.7)	9 (8.1)	3.49	1.194
I am usually firm about advocating my side of an issue	23 (20.7)	40 (36.0)	19 (17.1)	17 (15.3)	12 (10.8)	3.41	1.275
When there is a disagreement, I try to satisfy the needs of other people involved	6 (5.4)	57 (51.4)	24 (21.6)	13 (11.7)	11 (9.9)	3.30	1.080
I try to find the middle courses to resolve differences	10 (9.0)	51 (45.9)	17 (15.3)	21 (18.9)	12 (10.8)	3.23	1.183
I often go along with the	22 (19.8)	30 (27.0)	26 (23.4)	19 (17.1)	14 (12.6)	3.23	1.310

Variables	SA	A	U	D	SD	\bar{X}	S.D
recommendations of others in a conflict situation							
I usually go along with the desires of others in a conflict situation	18 (16.2)	21 (18.9)	32 (28.8)	27 (24.3)	13 (11.7)	3.04	1.250
I stick to my position during a conflict	15 (13.5)	27 (24.3)	28 (25.2)	25 (22.5)	16 (14.4)	3.00	1.265
I keep my opinions to myself if they disagree with others opinion	9 (8.1)	31 (27.9)	21 (18.9)	28 (25.2)	22 (19.8)	2.78	1.273
I try to avoid stating my opinion in order not to create disagreement	17 (15.3)	27 (24.3)	10 (9.0)	28 (25.2)	29 (26.1)	2.77	1.457
I use my influence to get my position accepted by others	6 (5.4)	20 (18.0)	15 (13.5)	41 (36.9)	29 (26.1)	2.40	1.213

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Testing of Null Hypotheses

Results of Chi-Square (X^2) analysis for test of relationship between employees' socioeconomic characteristics and perceived causes of conflict in the study organisations in Table 6 shows that, only years of experience ($X^2= 0.03$, $P<0.05$) was significantly related to the perception of causes of

conflict in the study organisation. This implies that the more the year of experience of employees, the more the causes and tendency of conflict. In other word, sex, age, marital status, education and income have no bearing with causes of conflict in the organisation.

Table 6: Chi- square Results of Relationship between Socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents and the perceived causes of conflict in cocoa research institute of Nigeria (CRIN).

Variable	\bar{x}	df	p-vale	Decision
Sex	3.326	2	0.19	NS
Age	3.785	4	0.43	NS
Marital Status	0.172	1	0.67	NS
Religion	0.825	2	0.66	NS
Educational Status	2.289	3	0.52	NS
Cadre	3.150	6	0.79	NS
Years of experience	8.581	3	0.03	S
Income	3.928	4	0.41	NS

Source: Field Survey, 2015

P-value ≤ 0.05 significant

P-value > 0.05 not significant

df = degree of freedom

Results of Pearson Product Moment Correlation between Perceived Causes of Conflict and Mitigation Strategies in CRIN - Relationship between perceived causes and mitigation strategies of conflict between employees and management of CRIN was tested with PPMC, as shown on statistical analysis. According to Table7 = 0.299, $p<0.05$

signified a positive and significant relationship between the perceived causes and mitigation strategies of conflict in the organisation. This implies that mitigation strategies proffered by the respondents will go a long way in resolving the conflict and crisis in the study organisation.

Table 7: Result between the perceived causes of conflict and the mitigation strategies of conflict.

Variables	r-value	p-value	Decision
Relationship between the perceived causes of conflict and the mitigation strategies of conflict	0.299**	0.001	S

Source: Field Survey, 2015

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conflict has been used to describe wide range of interaction between employees and management-over task and relationship issues. This especially on interaction that are qualitatively different to each other on a distinct nature and clearly different degree of severity. Conflict has been used to cover tension between individual and group with state, legal proceedings between employees and management action to evict certain organisational task. It is on this basis that the need to address this issue with a view of finding a lasting solution to the problem is realised, otherwise, the consequence on the management objectives, political economy, and peaceful co-existence of any organisation will be devastating.

The study was designed to explore the perceived causes and mitigation strategies among the management and employees of cocoa Research institute. A reasonable number of employees was selected to represent the organisation population. It was found that unfair treatment, different attitudes, unresolved problem, disagreement about priorities and poor management strategies were the major causes of conflicts. Task and relationship conflicts were mostly common in the organisation. The most severe causes of conflict are scarcity of resources, different attitudes, values and perception, disagreement about needs, goal and priorities, poor communication and inadequate organisation structure.

Mitigation strategies mostly embraced by the employees were avoidance of stating opinion to avoid conflict, satisfying needs of others, finding middle course to resolve differences and discussion of issues with others to find solutions. Tested hypotheses reveals that there is a significant relationship between years of experience and causes of conflict while mitigation strategies is positively and significantly related to causes of conflict in the study organisation.

It is recommended that management of cocoa Research institute should avoid forcing policy on employees, making needed resources available in rightful quantities, enhanced communication process, improve working conditions of employee and review wages and working hours of the employees.

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PRINCIPLES AND STRATEGIES FOR PEACEFUL AND SUCCESSFUL COOPERATIVE BUSINESSES IN DEVELOPING ECONOMIES

Mkpado, M., Ifejirika C. A. and Alabi, O.

Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti state, Nigeria

Correspondent contact details: mmaduabuchukwu.mkpado@fuoye.edu.ng

ABSTRACT

Cooperative businesses are essential in improving the welfare of poor people living in less developed economies like Nigeria. Cooperative actions stem from the use of pooled resources to achieve a common goal. Many times cooperative business has met stumbling block, crises and failure. These problems can be attributed to faulty design, implementation and running of cooperative processes. The paper attempts to examine classical cooperative principles and strategies that will ensure peaceful and successful cooperative business. The principles and strategies discussed include: voluntary and open membership, democratic control of members and activities/processes, members’ economic support and participation, autonomy and independence, legitimization, information sharing, education and training of members, co-operation among co-operative members, concern for environment and community, membership homogeneity and heterogeneity, comparative advantages, competitive advantages as well as accountability and openness, functional and flexible byelaws or statutes; motivated and experienced workforce, good governance and rule of law, positive externalities and government support. The paper is of the view that a vote of no confidence should be cast on any official found wanting in discharge of duties any time than strict tenure duration for officials. Members who want to withdraw their membership should not be made to lose much of their invested resources as this can lead to conflict. It is hoped that careful use of the principles and strategies will result in peaceful and lucrative cooperative businesses.

Keywords: Democratization, Legitimacy, Openness, Good governance, Experienced leadership.

INTRODUCTION

The inability or limitations an individual or mankind experience in solving his or her problems alone necessitated the formation and running of co-operatives. Man’s limitations usually abound due to limited resources and capacities. These limited resources and capacities can be in terms of financial resources such as money, or other material resources such as land, assets, production equipment, as well as human resources/capital in terms of quality and quantity with respect to skill and experiences. One’s quest to improve his or her welfare by overcoming observable and perceived obstacles motivated individuals to exploit the divine attribute of gregarious nature of mankind to form and run co-operatives. Co-operatives are actually self-help autonomous organizations or associations of persons who agree to be united voluntarily in order to meet their common economic, social, cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise(s) (FAO,1998; Hardesty, 1992). There are always high ambition and good motivation to form a cooperative by majority of the members but how sad to perceive, experience and suffer the havoc ill motivated members cause by misuse of the co-cooperative resources. Most often, these ill motivated members whose actions wreck havoc on others are the influential members and those having certain positions of responsibilities. News about cooperative fund mismanagement, abuse of power and litigation involving cooperative members and their leaders abound. Many as a result

of these ugly experiences do not want to belong to any cooperative any longer.

Cooperatives still have a lot of niche in developing economies like Nigeria. How can cooperative spirit be revived? How can cooperative business be all inclusive, peaceful and successful? The paper attempts to examine principles and strategies for peaceful and successful cooperative businesses in developing economies like Nigeria. Cooperatives around the world operate with the same set of core principles and values, adopted by the International Co-operative Alliance (NRECA, 2016). The roots of these principles could be traced from the first modern cooperative founded in Rochdale, England in 1844 (NRECA, 2016) (see also FAO, 1998; Hardesty, 1992).

The main issues in Peaceful and Successful cooperatives formation and management are derived from cooperative statuses namely:

Voluntary and open membership - Membership should be voluntary. This should be driven by the gain/benefits members can and are actually getting. When the benefits a member gets from the cooperative is more than the cost of his/her membership, then his/her interest is ensured. The management staff of the cooperatives and the control board should ensure that members’ interest comes first. This will reduce actions that can cause conflict in the cooperative. Members who want to withdraw their membership should not be made to lose much of their invested resources as this can lead to conflict.

Democratic control of members and activities/processes - Democratic process involves

the establishment of a government which is characterized by competition for political offices through periodic elections, while democratization can be the transition to a more peoples' opinion influenced [political regime](#). Mkpado and Arene (2007) noted that groups whose activities are governed by democratic processes are sustained over the years than groups which are not democratic in their processes.

Members' economic support and participation - Members of a cooperative should be the primary participants and supporters of the cooperative business. This will not only keep them abreast with what is happening in the cooperative but also contribute a lot to the success of the cooperative such that the cooperative will have a lucrative business.

Autonomy and independence - Cooperatives should be autonomous and independent of any member or another person's absolute control. It should be autonomous and dependent on the opinion and wishes of members. Cooperatives do not need to be organs of politicians or pillars of controversial issues in the society as these can easily divide cooperative members.

Legitimization - This can be done through registration of cooperatives. When a cooperative is registered, it exists as a legal entity. This can help members to view co-operative resources as something that has government and legal backing. Enete (2010) noted that registration of cooperatives helps to sustain their business. Officers can also take oath of office. When officers are given oath of office, it can help to view their assignment as truthfully what it is; a service to members not avenue to illegally enrich oneself. Legitimization also implies that the cooperative will not be involved in illegal business.

Education and training of members - Members of a cooperative need to improve their knowledge and skills as these will help them in their businesses for better welfare. When members are educated in the business of the cooperatives, it will be easy for them to follow the cooperative business operations and willing to serve in different capacities as the need arises. Conversely, when very few cooperative members understand the rudiments of running the cooperative, they may not only cheat others but will have no person to assist in handling the offices of the cooperatives. This can give rise to monopoly and abuse of offices and privileges.

Strategies that can accelerate operations of cooperative businesses include;

Information sharing and co-operation among co-operative members - Members of cooperatives should be able to share information with fellow members. Information is power and will help

cooperative members to be apt with respect to time which is a valuable resource. Members will need to do more than share information. They need to cooperate with one another. This means they will be willing to share material resources with one another and/or help one another with their time.

Concern for environment and community - The climate change phenomenon most likely among others has made mankind much aware of threats and dangers in his or her environment. Certain taxes are payable due to poor environmental practices. Besides possible increased taxation for poor environmental practices, many rational individuals will not like to be a member of a cooperative that has little or no regard for the environment especially since most cooperative members will live in the vicinity. Cooperative businesses will have to take care of their environments in terms of proper disposals of bye products or wastes as well as obey environmental laws with respect to location of industries or business outfits.

Membership homogeneity and heterogeneity - The design of self help group and by extension cooperatives has gained attention in literature (Mkpado and Arene, 2008; Mkpado, Idu and Arene, 2010; Mkpado and Arene, 2010). The question is, will cooperative groups be composed of only one sex or mixed? The answer depends largely on the nature of business the cooperative is doing. The facts remains that when cooperative membership are not gender specific they are more balanced to handle challenges. For example in agriculture, some operations are stereotyped by gender and no single operation can provide a good livelihood for the rural people hence the need to be heterogeneous in membership. Mkpado *et al.*, (2010) advocated for mixed gender groups based on their success. They noted that in mixed gender groups, members tend to be more cautious and balanced in their relationship with one another as no one wants embarrassment before the opposite gender.

Comparative advantages

Cooperatives need to focus on businesses they have resources for. This is especially for agricultural cooperatives because they should not deal with resources that are not abundant in their locality. Comparative advantages will result in minimum cost of doing business.

Competitive advantages

Cooperatives are in business so they actually have competitors. They can achieve competitive advantages by nature and capacity of their management staff and board members as well as the type and size of resources available for running the business. Certain educational levels, skills and experiences should be required of those leading

cooperative business. Members support in terms of loans, dues and voluntary service will help the cooperative business.

Accountability and openness

There is no room to give allowance for suspicion in cooperative business. Proper documentation of all transactions with appropriate receipts and correct entries in the books of accounts must be maintained always. Such records and receipts need to be available to members and also periodic auditing of cooperative accounts should be maintained. The audited account should be made available to members and also read at meetings.

Functional and flexible byelaws or statutes

There is no successful and peaceful organisation without functional and flexible byelaws. Cooperative statutes need to be responsive to changing socio-economic environment. The laws can be amended to suite the present reality. This will make the cooperative a dynamic organisation and thus a peaceful and successful one. It may be helpful for the law to make allowance for passing a vote of no confidence on serving officers whose actions indicate that they are mismanaging cooperative resources instead of having mandatory tenure arrangement.

Motivated and experienced workforce

Those who are saddled with the responsibility of managing the cooperative business need to be receiving their modest payment based on terms approved by the cooperative statues. It is not because of this payment that members will be struggling for the positions. Only those having the prerequisite experiences need to be given the opportunity. The motive is to serve your group willingly not to defraud members.

Good governance and rule of law towards inclusive policy

Democratization does not necessarily mean good governance as majority can take certain advantages at the expense of the minority and rule of law can be skewed. Good governance and rule of law here refer to a situation where the interest of the minority cannot be jeopardised by sticking to the letters or the law or using majority votes. The aim is to implement inclusive policy where possible everybody will be considered. This will give rise to high degree of cohesion and unity in diversity (Cracogna, Fici and Henry 2013).

Positive externalities and government support

Resources are always very limited relative to needs and wants. Cooperatives need to be aware and easily take advantages of positive externalities and government supports. Some of these things that can be helpful to cooperatives require careful planning such as taking advantages of seasonal variations like

late or early rains and ample sunshine as well as government support programmes and projects. This may include grants, loans and credits both in cash and kind.

Dedicated leadership and effective management

The day to day running of a cooperative business should be handled by men and women who are educated, experienced and motivated to serve others. This will help to ensure success and accountability. Honesty should be the watch words of the business committee members. The tenure of office needs to be such that is controlled by the general house and not just appointment by control board members as such will not lead to effective checks and balances.

Men of integrity serving as board of directors

It is very important that men of questionable characters are not given the opportunity to have the privilege of being a member of the governing board. The governing board should be men of integrity who have a passion for serving others. This will help to enforce law and orders in a cooperative.

CONCLUSION

It has been interesting to examine the principles and strategies for peaceful and successful cooperative businesses in developing economies. Cooperatives are still very useful given the level of political and economic development in Nigeria. The paper opines that cooperatives should be encouraged and unscrupulous members who misuse cooperative resources can be prevented from doing so by legitimization of the cooperative, democratic control as well as openness and accountability. It encourages cooperative members to wholeheartedly support the cooperatives and get actively involved in the operations of the business so as to know early when things are going wrong and take necessary actions. It presupposes that openness and accountability should permeate cooperative activities. Members who want to withdraw their membership should not be made to lose much of their invested resources as this can lead to conflict. There should be provision for passing a vote of no confidence on serving officers whose actions indicate that they are mismanaging cooperative resources instead of having mandatory tenure arrangement.

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ROLES OF SOCIAL WELFARE INSTITUTIONS IN REHABILITATING OF DELINQUENTS AND LESS PRIVILEGED CHILDREN IN PORT HARCOURT, RIVERS STATE, NIGERIA

Jaja, G. M., Albert, C. O. and Isife, B. I.

Department of Agricultural and Applied Economics/Extension, Rivers State University, Port Harcourt

Correspondent contact details: carobinedo@yahoo.com, 07031616233

ABSTRACT

The study examined the social welfare institutions roles in rehabilitating delinquents and less privileged children in Port Harcourt. The questionnaire was used to elicit information from 40 purposively selected staff of Remand Home, Government Approved School, and Port Harcourt Children Home welfare institutions in Port Harcourt. Data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics used are percentages, mean and bar chart, while inferential statistics used are Regression analysis and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Findings show a mean age of 46 years with 40% of the care givers within 41-50 years, females (57.5), 52.5% had secondary school certificate and 30.0% had less than 10 years experiences. The majority (92.5%) of the less privileged children were street children without support and care while delinquent children (45.0%) in the welfare institutions were children in need of care and protection from non-wedded female headed single parents (70.0%), who were separated or divorced (95.0%), alcohol/drug addicted parents/guardians parents who had no formal education (50.0%), parents with household size of 7-9 (45.0%) and lived in an unplanned and highly congested area (55.0%). With an R^2 of 0.5662, the f-ratio is 0.1863 and sex (2.098), marital status (0.171), parental status (0.285), household size (1.661) and residential area (0.5077) were positive at ($p \leq 0.05$). The major role of the welfare institution was counselling (37.5%) while the major factor that influenced delinquent behaviour was the peer group conduct (39.0%). The major challenge to optimal functioning of the welfare institutions in the study area was poor budgetary allocation (80%).

Keywords: Care givers, parents, therapy, optimal functioning

INTRODUCTION

Social Welfare Institution could be applied to various levels of complexity and abstraction. It could apply to a single programme or organization, such as foster care or Planned Parenthood. It could also apply to a group of services or programmes. The highest aggregate level to which the term Social Welfare Institution is applied includes all of the social programmes and organizations in a country that are designed to prevent, alleviate, or contribute to the solution of recognized social problems (FMWAS and SD, 2006).

Delinquency has been variously portrayed and defined as a condition of drift, maladjustment, pathology, disturbance, moral depravity and unruly behaviour. Cohen (1966) cited in Heidensohn (2010), saw delinquency as a behaviour which is against institutionalized expectations, that is; expectations that could be shared, recognized and legitimated within any social system. Juvenile delinquency refers to any act or action in violation of criminal law, carried out by a person who the law defined as a juvenile, which if it was carried out by an adult will be seen and treated as crime or criminal conduct (Alemika and Chukwuma, 2001). While Nwaneri (2016) citing the State of the World Children (2008) opined that the orphanage is an institution or home for orphans, that is; a home or other institutional setting for orphans, often operated by an individual, government or charitable organization. Whereas, an orphan is any child who had lost either or both parents by death or who had been abandoned by his

or her parents and whose parents were about cannot be ascertained. The delinquent child or children and orphan(s) are kept in the welfare institution for care. The aforementioned milieu leaves the child vulnerable to negative forces and limited life chances. According to Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development (FMWAS and SD, 2008), the child become vulnerable if the circumstances of the child's birth or environment exposes the child to abuse or denial of basic needs, care, love, protection and thus disadvantaged relative to his or her peers. Institutional care for juveniles in Nigeria could be in Remand homes, Approved schools and Children Homes (orphanage-for orphans and less privileged children or street children).

The Social Welfare Institutions will best cater for those who seem to re-offend, with the hope of giving them a better chance to grow into responsible adults. Serious and persistent offenders may be placed in welfare institutions. Many children in Nigeria including Rivers state face a life of poverty, family instability, inadequate educational opportunities and poor physical and mental health which hinder their ability to develop into healthy adults, live an improved quality of life or fulfil their life aspirations. These factors have also been associated with juvenile delinquency, child abandonment and the need for institutional care. Studies on juvenile justice systems in Nigeria reveal that these facilities were established for the purpose of reformation, rehabilitation and reintegration of juveniles and as such, facilities for vocational and

formal educational instruction were put in place in order to realize these goals.

It is based on the foregoing, that the study seek to examine how these social welfare institutions have helped in the rehabilitation of delinquent and less privileged children in Port Harcourt. The following research questions become imperative. What are the socio-economic characteristics of personnel in welfare institutions? What is the background of the parents of the child/delinquent? What is the social background of the child or delinquent? What are the care/treatment measures available at the institution? What is the target of each type of treatment? What are the types of reformation and reintegration equipment/materials available? What are the constraints to the smooth functioning of the institution? And how can the smooth and effective functioning and administration of the institution be achieved?

METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in the three social welfare institutions in Port Harcourt. They are Port Harcourt Remand Home, Government Approved School and Port Harcourt Children’s Home. A multi-stage sampling technique was employed. Firstly, was the purposive sample of the three welfare institutions in the study area. Secondly, all the directors, instructors/teachers were purposively selected because the number is small and more so due to restrictions to access the in-mates in the institutions by authorities. The 6 directors, 5 social workers, 5 sociologists, 10 instructors, 4 psychologist, and 10 teachers were surveyed. A total of 40 respondents were used for the study. The instruments used for the collection of data were basically, structured questionnaire and oral interview. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

Descriptive statistics such as frequency counts, percentages, mean and bar charts were used. The stated hypotheses were tested using Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

The Simple Linear Regression Model is expressed as:

$$f(X_1+X_2+X_3,\dots\dots\dots Xg+e)$$

Linear Model

$$Dy = b_0 + b_0 x_1 + b_0x_2- - - - - e$$

Where Dy = Delinquent Child – dependent variables

b₀ = Intercept

- X₁ = Sex
- X₂ = Educational Level
- X₃ = Marital Status
- X₄ = Parental Status
- X₅ = Household Size
- X₆ = Residential Area
- e = Error Term

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Personal characteristics of caregivers

Table 1 established a mean age of 46 years with high percentage (40%) of the respondents within 41-50 years. This implies that the respondents were mature physically and emotionally to render care and support. The majority (57.5%) of the respondents were female while 42.5% of the respondents were males, 52.5% of them had secondary school education. This implies that females dominate the welfare institutions. They are mothers and so should be able to take care of the children, more likely to be informed, and receptive ways of taking care of children. The mean number of years in service is 19 years indicating that the care givers have spent a number of years in the welfare institution and so will have enough knowledge of the workings, management and challenges of the institution.

Table 1: Personal Characteristics of care giver personnel in welfare institutions (n=40)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Age			
20-30	6	15.0	46yrs
31-40	14	35.0	
41-50	16	40.0	
51-60	4	10.0	
Above 60	0	0	
Sex			
Female	23	57.5	
Male	17	42.5	
Educational level			
Non formal education	0	0	
Primary	0	0	
Secondary	21	52.5	
Tertiary	19	47.5	
Years in service			

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Mean
Less than 10 years	12	30.0	
10-20 years	13	32.5	19yrs
20-30years	13	32.5	
30 and above	2	5.0	

Source: Field Data, 2016

Characteristics of delinquents

Table 2.1 entries for types of less privileged children show that the majority (92.5%) were street

babies without support and care. This was followed by babies recovered from destitute and mentally ill (67.5%). It implies that street babies without support and care dominate the welfare homes.

Table 2.1: Types of less privilege children

Types	Frequency	Percent
Dumped and abandoned babies	11	27.5
Babies recovered from destitute and mentally ill	8	20.0
Babies voluntarily given up for adoption	0	0
Street children without support and care (Vagrants-who ran away from homes to cause problems while cleaning cars)	8	20.0
Children of accident (fatal) parents	2	5.0
Children of HIV/AIDS parents	9	22.5
Children of war, disasters and natural calamities	2	5.0

Source: Field Data, 2016

Types of delinquent children in welfare institutions

From Table 2.2 children in need of care and protection constitute the majority (45.0%) of types of delinquent children in welfare homes. Children who commit offence beyond the delimitation of status offences, that is, serious crimes carried the rear with 12.5%. The given result shows that the home as a safe haven for children and babies is fast eroding, and also that there is a poor inculcation of cherished

family and societal values and norms on children by both parents and society as a whole. This finding was supported by Alemika and Chukwuma (2001) which advocated that children in need of care and protection should be handled exclusively within social welfare departments and programmes, while juvenile offenders should be treated within a carefully balanced social welfare and correctional programmes that promote the best interest of children and youth.

Table 2.2: Types of delinquent children in welfare institutions

Types of Delinquents	Frequency	Percent
Children in need of care and protection	18	45.0
Children beyond parental control	11	27.5
Children in conflict with law	6	15.0
Others (Children that commit crime: killing, robbery)	5	12.5

Source: Field Data, 2016

Characteristics of delinquents' Parents

Table 2.3 shows that majority (70.0%) of the respondents were non wedded female headed single parents, half (50.0%) of the parents had no formal education while 42.5% were school dropout parents.

Majority (45%) of the parents had a house hold size of 7-9, lived in an unplanned and highly congested area, while 25.0% (others) lived in shanties, blighted settlements.

Table 2.3: Personal characteristics of parents of delinquents in welfare institution

Variables	Percent
Sex	
Non wedded female headed single parent	70.0
Non wedded male headed single parent	30.0
Marital status	

Variables	Percent
Married	5.0
Separated/divorced	9.5
Educational level	
School dropout parents	42.5
Non formal educated parents	50.0
Educated/responsible/elitist parents	7.5
Parents status	
Vagrant parents	27.5
Illicit drug use/addicted parents	17.5
Orphans/non kindred support	7.5
Alcohol/drug addicted parents/guardians	47.5
Household size	
1-3	5.0
4-6	32.5
7-9	45.0
10 and above	17.5
Residential Area	
Low density area (G.R.A)	5.0
Planned and moderately populated area (medium density)	15.0
Unplanned and highly congested area (waterfront)- high density	55.0
Others (shanties, blighted settlements)	25.0

Source: Field Data, 2016

Test of Hypothesis

The test is on the conjecture that parents’ socioeconomic background does not significantly affect delinquent and less privileged children. Entries in Table 2.4 show that the linear model at R² of 0.5662, the f-ratio is 0.1863 and sex (2.098), marital Status (0.171), parental status (0.285), household size

(1.661) and residential area (0.5077) were significant at 0.05 significant level (P≤0.05). Indicating that parent’s background such as sex, marital status, parental status, household size and residential area significantly affect delinquent and less privileged children.

Table 2.4: Result of Regression Analysis showing the linear, semi-linear and double log

Model Summary and Fitness	Parameters	Linear
Coefficients estimates	Variables	22.7892
B0	Intercept	0.9274 (0.5) NS
B1	Sex	2.098 (0.03)*
B2	Educational level	-1.021 (3.05)ns
B3	Marital status	0.171 (0.04)*
B4	Parental status	0.285 (0.60)*
B5	Household size	1.661 (1.10)*
B6	Residential Area	0.5077 (0.82)*
	R Square	0.5662
	f-ratio	0.1863*
	P-value of the f. ratio	0.0152*

*Figures in parentheses are t ratios

*=Significant difference (p<0.05)

NS=Not significant (p>0.05)

$$R^2 = 0.03 - 1.021 - 0.171 + 0.285 + 1.661 + 0.5077 = 1.6347$$

Roles of welfare institutions

The roles of the welfare institutions are shown in table 3. Table 3 shows that the major role of the welfare institution was counselling. Followed by rehabilitation (13.4%) and cognitive base therapy (12.5%), play therapy, psychosocial analysis,

electronic monitoring and daily office reporting. The import of counselling sessions is once again brought to the fore, that is, counselling is invaluable in every case and pathology. This implies that the major therapy/treatment available in the welfare institution was counselling. Counselling is an important therapy

in getting a delinquent child back to a better behaviour because it involves changing the mindset of the child from criminal and violent attitude to a well-trained child. However Martin (2015) view was at variance when he stated that experiences of, and

issues raised by these frontline staff are consistent with existing research that emphasize the critical importance of meeting the psychosocial needs of vulnerable children in addition to their basic physical needs such as food and shelter.

Table 3: Roles of welfare institutions

Therapies	Frequency	Percentage
Cognitive based therapy (CBT)	5	12.5
Play therapy	5	12.5
Psychosocial analysis	5	12.5
Counselling sessions	19	37.5
Electronic monitor	5	12.5
Duty office reporting time	5	12.5
Rehabilitation	6	15.0

Multiple responses
Source: Field data, 2016

Factors influencing delinquent behaviours

Figure 1 shows that the major factors that influence delinquent behaviour in children. It established that majority (39.0%) were influence by peer group. This is followed by hunger/deprivation (27%). Also, lack of attention, strong moral influence and support from parents and guardians, parental model and unbridled desire and exuberance influence children behaviour with 14%, and 10%, respectively.

By this, it is apparent that parental care in the provision of basic needs of a child and given attention of the company/friends the child keeps is important. In corroborating this finding, Regoli *et al.* (2006), stated that close or best friends appear to have significantly greater influence on teen behaviour and that a youth is about twice as likely to engage in delinquency if his or her close friends engaged in it.

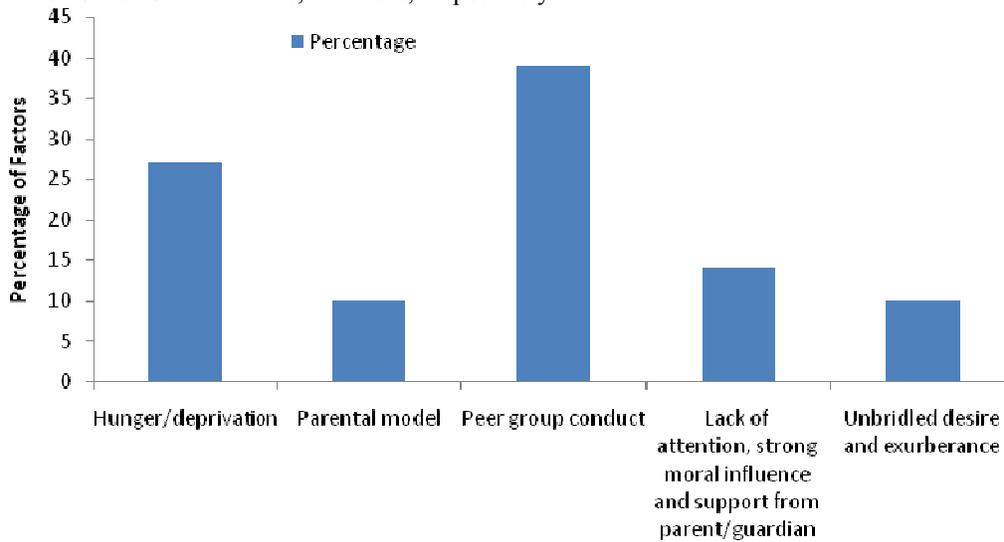


Fig 1: Factors/Influences Leading to Delinquent Behaviors

The hypothesis tested for different among the treatment given by the three institutions. Entries in Table4 show that there is a significant difference among the various treatments given by the three Social Welfare Institutions. The result showed that F_{cal} (36.357) is greater than F_{crit} (2.847).The null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference among the treatment given by the three institutions is rejected since the f-calculated (36.357)

is greater than the f-tabulated (2.847). It shows that there is a significant difference among the types of treatments given by the three social welfare institutions. This means that treatments vary depending on the human concerned, whether an infant or a grown up child, or custodial (in-mate) assessment and classification

Table 4: Result of ANOVA showing relationship among treatments offered by the three Social Welfare Institutions

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F-cal	P-value	F-tab
Between Groups	4383.619	6	730.6032	36.35703	9.37E-08	2.847726
Within Groups	281.3333	14	20.09524			
Total	4664.952	20				

(p<0.05)

Challenges to optimal functioning of welfare institutions

Table 5 shows that the major challenge to optimal functioning of welfare institution in the study area were poor budgetary allocation and lack of finance (80%). This was followed by poor, obsolete and inadequate equipment/ machines (40.0%). Poor budgetary allocation and finance has showed the functioning of the welfare institution in the state. This was observed by Albert and Ezeano (2014) who

stated that low budgetary allocation to government institutions has reduced the effectiveness of these institutions. On the other hand, Owasanoye and Wernham (2004), identified poor management at the ministry level to ensure systematic provision and replacement of tools and facilities. Apparently, by implication; given poor budgetary allocation and finance; poor, obsolete and inadequate equipment and machines these institutions perform below average.

Table 5: Challenges to optimal functioning of welfare institution

Challenges	Frequency	Percentage
Poor budgetary allocation and finance	32	80.0
Poor, obsolete and inadequate equipment and machines	16	40.0
Poor training and retraining programmes for staff	11	27.5
Poor curriculum content of institutions programme	11	27.5
Lack of incentives/motivation to care givers	5	12.5
Inadequate care giver personnel	4	10.0

Multiple responses

Source: Field data, 2016

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The average age of the caregiver personnel based on their personal characteristics was 46 years. Therefore, most of the caregiver personnel are deemed mature and emotionally stable to meet the challenges of the job. Majority of the respondents were female. Most of the respondents had secondary education followed by those who attained tertiary education level. The mean years of service was given as 19 years. Street babies without care and support were mainly the types of less privileged/babies found in social welfare institutionalized homes. Furthermore, children in need care and protection formed the majority of the delinquent children in institutional custody.

Concerted efforts and provisions should be made to take out more less-privileged babies from the streets, that is, babies of the mentally ill, destitute, discarded babies etc. having little or no care and support, but given the benefit of the welfares policy of the government, put in institutional homes and nurtured to become responsible productive citizens. There is need for government beef up budgetary allocation and availability of funds for social welfare services and the institutions. This also will facilitate timely and periodic update of facilities and

curriculum for effective and efficient service delivery. More so, improved motivation, training and re-training of personnel will be achieved. There is a need on the part of parents to be mindful of the effect of peer group influence on their children.

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