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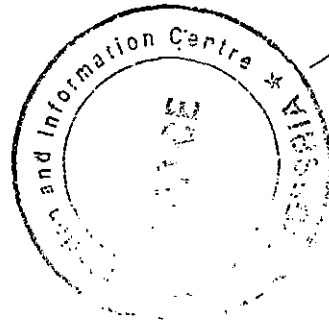
**ASSESSMENT OF FARMERS' LIVELIHOOD IN
CONFLICT AND NONCONFLICT AREAS OF
OSUN AND TARABA STATES, NIGERIA**

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**A THESIS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL
EXTENSION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT SUBMITTED TO THE
FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN IBADAN, NIGERIA.**

ABSTRACT

Between 1999 and 2001, Osun and Taraba States recorded several rural based violent conflicts between “land owners and settlers” which led to displacement, killing and destruction of farmers’ properties. In most of the violent conflicts in Nigeria mediators’ attention are most often focused on peace building and relief mechanisms with little or no effort to address post-conflict impact on farmers’ livelihood. This study examines major causes of conflict and ascertains similarity in conflict severity on Farmers’ Livelihood Variables (FLV) between Osun and Taraba States.

Osun and Taraba States were stratified into Core Conflict Area (CCA), Peripheral Conflict Area (PCA) and Outside Conflict Area (OCA) based on their proximity to conflict locations. State’s change in farmers’ livelihood is a function of FLV (crops, small-ruminants, material possessions, and off-farm activities) fluctuation across the conflict areas. In Osun state conflict strata was made of 1970 farmers while Taraba states conflict strata consist of 1880 farmers from where 10.0% of farmers was randomly sampled to give a total of 385 farmers. Data were generated during conflict de-escalation period through the use of validated interview schedule and were analysed using chi-square, Z-test and ANOVA.

The prominent causes of conflict in Osun State were Land Use Autonomy (LUA) and agitation for more local governments as rated by 70.5% and 65.6% respectively, while LUA and population growth were rated as prominent causes of conflict by 72.1% and 55.7% respectively in Taraba State. In Osun and Taraba states’ CCA, 75.5% and 23.8% of the farmers were displaced. In Osun State after the conflict, farmers in CCA had lowest Crops Standard Mean Weight (CSMW) of 1,276.6kg and Small Ruminant Number (SRN) of 14.5 and lower Material Possession Mean Scores

(MPMS) of 28,110.8. Farmers in PCA have higher CSMW of 3,547.0kg, SRN of 104.8 and MPMS of 39,145.1. Farmers in OCA recorded CSMW of 3,208.2kg, SRN of 62.2 and highest MPMS of 49,367.1. In Taraba State, extra income from Off-Farm Activities (OFFA) was reduced among 64.0% of farmers in CCA compared to 21.0% and 7.0% in PCA and OCA respectively. Lower SRN and MPMS of 180.2 and 23014.6 respectively were recorded in CCA, higher SRN of 1,786.0 and MPMS of 50,145.0 in PCA and highest SRN of 2007.0 and MPMS of 56,468.5 in OCA. Significant relationship exists between farmers' level of exposure and involvement in the conflict in Osun ($p < 0.05$) and Taraba ($p < 0.05$) States. Farmers' SRN and MPMS were significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in OCAs compared to their CCA's counterpart in Osun and Taraba States. Osun State's OCA farmers' CSMW was significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) than CCA farmers' CSMW. Significant differences exist in Cocoa farmers' production level in the conflict zones in Osun ($p < 0.05$) and yam production level in Taraba ($p < 0.05$) States.

Severity of conflict in the flash points of Osun and Taraba States led to decline in farmers' SRN, MPMS and number of farmers that generated income from OFFA while disparity is reflected in causes of conflict and displaced farmers.

Key words: Farmers' livelihood, Conflict, Land use autonomy, Farmers' activities.

Word Count: 491

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to:

- (1) The Prince of peace
- (2) My first degree supervisor Professor C. T. UWAKA the founding father of Department of Agricultural Extension University of Nigeria Nsukka.
- (3) My wife Oluwakemi Helen
- (4) My children Romoke, Kayode, and Omolola
- (5) My mother Hadjia Kudiratu Aduni and
- (6) To the memory of my father Alhaji Raimi Oduola Boiarinwa.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my profound gratitude to first and foremost my supervisor Dr. Yahaya, Kuta Mohammed for his invaluable guidance, continued interest and critical but constructive suggestions during the entire course of this research work.

My sincere thanks and appreciations to Dr. Albert Isaac, and Dr. Akinbile L. A. for their assistance at different times during the course of this work. I am also deeply indebted to Dr.(Mrs) S. O. Odebode , Professor M. O. Akoroda. Dr. Jegede A.S whose encouragement propelled me to a successful conclusion of this work. My special thank and appreciation to the Head of Department Dr. A. Ladele for his encouragement and wonderful support.

I thank the entire members of staff of the Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Development especially Professor (Mrs.) Janice E. Olawoye. Professor T. O. Ogunfiditimi, Professor Terry A. Olowu, Dr. A.O. Akinsorotan, Dr. A. E. Adekoya, Dr. G. Olujide. Dr. J. O. Oladeji, Dr. O. B. Oyesola, Dr. O. P. Fawole and Dr. M. Meludu for their constructive suggestions to bring the initially hazy ideas of this study to a focus during my seminar. I also thank the non-academic staff of the Department for their numerous forms of assistance during the period of my studentship in the department. My heart felt thanks must also be expressed to some colleagues within and outside the University of Ibadan Nigeria: Dr. Olajide B. R., Dr. Oyeyinka R. A., Dr.(Mrs) Ajala, Dr. Fakoya, E Mrs. Bolarinwa H. K., Mr. Komolafe Ademola, Mr Ademola, Lewis . They all contributed in one way or the other in lightening my families' burden in the course of producing this thesis.

My thanks go to the families of , Rev. J. O. Edivri, Rev. A. O. Folarin, Mr. Akinwale .I, Deacon Akacha N .S, Uwalaka N.N, Ibelegbu .L for their prayers and moral support during the programme. I remain grateful to my uncles, Mr Basiru Bolarinwa, Mr. Ramoni Bolarinwa, Mr Mufatau Bolarinwa for reminding me of my mission always.

I acknowledge the tremendous support of my typist, Mr. Akpan, B.B. and Data Analyst, Mr. Sam Adediran. I am grateful to the **COUNCIL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH IN AFRICA (CODESRIA)** that extended to me the small Grant for Thesis Writing in African Universities.

Last but not the least, I have to thank my dear wife, Kemi and my children Moromoke, Kayode and Omolola for bearing the pains of seeing me only in a “blue moon” in the course of putting this thesis together.

Over and above all I am grateful to the Lord Jesus Christ for his inestimable guidance, protection, mercy, direction, blessing and sustenance through out the course of my study.

CERTIFICATION

I certify that this work was carried out by Mr. BOLARINWA KOLADE KAMILU in the Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Development, University of Ibadan.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Pages
Title	i
Abstract	ii
Dedication	iv
Acknowledgement	v
Certification	vii
Table of Content	viii
List of Tables	xvii
List of Figures	xx
List of Abbreviation	xxi

CHAPTER ONE

1.0.	INTRODUCTION	
1.1	Background of the study	1
1.2	Statement of problem	3
1.3	Objective of the study	6
1.4	Hypotheses of the study	7
1.5	Significance of the study	7
1.6	Delimitation of the study	9
1.7	Limitation of the study	10
1.8	Definition of terms	10

CHAPTER TWO

2.0.	REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	
2.1	Agricultural production situation in Nigeria	12
2.2	Strategies to improve agricultural production in Nigeria	14
2.3	National food security programme strategy to boost agricultural production in Nigeria.	16
2.4	Root and Tuber Expansion programme strategies to boost agricultural production in Nigeria	17

2.5.	Second National FADAMA Development Project	19
2.6.	Goals of peasant farmers in Nigeria	19
2.7	Farmers' means of livelihood in Nigeria	20
2.7.1.	Crop production	20
2.7.2.	Livestock production as a means of livelihood for Farmers	22
2.7.3.	Fisheries production as means of livelihood for Farmers	22
2.7.4.	Processing of agricultural products as means of livelihood for farmer	22
2.7.5	Hunting as a means of livelihood	22
2.7.6	Small scale industries as a means of livelihood	23
2.8	Labour availability: A determinant of farmers production level	23
2.9	Rural livelihood concept	24
2.10	Diversification of income generating activities and farmers' mechanisms for sustaining livelihood	25
2.11	Reasons for income generating diversification	28
2.11.1	Spreading risk	28
2.11.2	Coping with insufficiency	28
2.11.3	Seasonally monetized activities	28
2.11.4	Compensation for failures in credit markets	29
2.11.5	Gradual transition to new activities	29
2.11.6	Building on complementaries	29
2.12	Assessment of farm families livelihood status	29
2.13	Concept of poverty and livelihood	31
2.14	The concept of conflict and social interaction	32
2.15	Types of conflicts	33
2.15.1	Intra-personal conflict	33
2.15.2	Inter-personal conflict	34
2.15.3	Intra-group conflict	34
2.15.4	Inter-group conflict	34
2.16	Inter-group conflict in Africa	35
2.17	Causes of conflict in Nigeria	36

2.26	Problems of land tenure system in Africa	55
2.26.1	Access to land	55
2.26.2	Land tenure security	56
2.26.3	Distribution of land holding	57
2.26.4	State governance of tenure regime	57
2.27	Resources control and conflict in Africa	58
2.27.1	Angola conflict	59
2.27.2	Zimbabwe conflict	59
2.27.3	Sudan conflict	60
2.27.4	Nigeria conflict	60
2.28	Pre-requisite to design effective land reforms programmes in Africa	61
2.28.1	Stakeholder participation in land reform	62
2.28.2	Effective information dissemination and communication system	63
2.28.2.1	Radio programme	64
2.28.2.2	Oral media	64
2.28.2.3	Use of extension agents	65
2.28.2.4	Films and videos	65
2.29	Empirical data on impact of the conflict on people's livelihood	65
2.29.1	Effect of conflict on the population	65
2.29.3	Conflict situation and displacement of people	66

CHAPTER THREE

3.0	THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	
3.1	Theoretical framework	68
3.2	Devils Theory	68
3.3	Integrated Theory	69
3.4	Economic Theory of Production	70
3.5	Group cycle model	71
3.6	Social and economic rank disequilibrium	72
3.7	Group think model	73
3.8	Theory of rebellion	74

3.8.1	Greed rebellion	75
3.8.2	Grievance rebellion	76
3.8.2.1	Inter-ethnic group hatred	76
3.8.2.2	Political exclusion	76
3.8.2.3	Revenge	76
3.10	Conflict impact assessment analysis model	79
3.11	Conceptual framework for this Study	81
3.11.1	Elements of the conceptual frame-work	83
3.11.2	Independent variables	83
3.11.3	Intervening variables	83
3.11.4	Dependent variables	83
3.12	How the Model works	84

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0	METHODOLOGY	
4.1	The area of the study	86
4.1.1	Osun State	86
4.1.2	Taraba State	89
4.2	The study population	92
4.3	Sampling procedure and sample size	93
4.4	Sources of Data	94
4.5	Test for Reliability and Validity	95
4.6	Measurement of variables	96
4.6.1	Independent Variables	96
4.6.2	Dependent variables	101
4.8	Data collection	105
4.9	Test of research hypotheses	106

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0	RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	108
5.1	Section One	108
5.1.1	Age	108
5.1.2	Sex	109

5.1.3. Marital status	110
5.1.4 Religion	110
5.1.5 House hold size	111
5.1.6. Occupation	111
5.1.2 Social-economic characteristics	114
5.1.2.1. Education status of farmers	114
5.1.2.2. Social group membership	114
5.1.2.3. Cosmopolitaness	115
5.1.2.4. Land ownership status	115
5.1.2.5. Agricultural holding	115
5.1.2.6. Sources of labour	116
SECTION TWO	
5.2. Causes of conflict in Osun and Taraba states	118
5.2.1 Farmers level of involvement in the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.	120
5.3 SECTION THREE	122
5.3.1. Farmers' accessibility to their farm, when violent conflict de-escalated in Osun and Taraba states	122
5.3.2. Assessment of farmers' livelihood variables in conflict and non-conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states	124
5.3.2.1. Classification of cocoa farmers into production categories in Osun and Taraba states after the conflict	124
5.3.2.2. Classification of farmers into kolanut production categories in Osun and Taraba states after conflict	125
5.3.2.3. Classification of farmers into Maize Production Categories in Osun and Taraba states after the conflict	125
5.3.2.4. Classification of farmers into Sorghum production categories in Osun and Taraba states after conflict	126
5.3.2.5. Classification of farmers into Yam production categories in Osun and Taraba states after the conflict	127
5.3.2.6. Classification of cassava farmers into production categories after Conflict in Osun and Taraba States	127
5.3.3. Classification of farmers into cattle production categories after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states	129

5.3.3.1. Classification of farmers into sheep and Goat production Categories after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states	129
5.3.3.2. Classification of farmers into poultry keeping categories after the Conflict in Osun and Taraba states	130
5.3.4 Distribution of farmers according to rate of performing eight off-Farm income generating activities in Osun and Taraba states	132
5.3.5 Farmers livelihood materials possession classification into Categories after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states	134
5.3.6 Distribution of farmers by pleasure derived from ceremonies after conflict in Osun and Taraba states	136
5.3.7. Distribution of farmers according to participation in recreational activities after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states	138

SECTION FOUR

5.4. Estimated Farmers' livelihood variables after the conflict	140
5.4.1. Farmers crops production in the three conflict strata in Osun and Taraba States	140
5.4.2. Livestock production trend after the conflict across the three Zones of Osun and Taraba States	145
5.4.3. Farmers' livelihood materials possession across conflict strata After the conflict Osun and Taraba states	147

SECTION FIVE

5.5. Consequences or aftermath of the conflict in Osun and Taraba States	151
5.5.1. Distributions of respondents by their migration pattern in Osun and Taraba states.	151
5.5.2. Distribution of farmers by work hour lost to the violent conflict in Osun and Taraba states	153
5.5.3. Total income of farmers after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States	155
5.5.4. Distribution of respondents by heads count, poverty level after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States	157

SECTION SIX

5.6. Farmers perceived conflict rehabilitation strategies in Osun and Taraba States.	159
--	-----

5.6.1. Farmers' perceived solutions to the conflict in Osun and Taraba states	161
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SECTION SEVEN:

5.7. Inferential Statistics and Testing of Hypotheses	163
5.7.1 Hypothesis 1	163
5.7.2 Hypothesis 2	166
5.7.3 Hypothesis 3	168
5.7.4 Hypothesis 4	171
5.7.5 Hypothesis 5	173
5.7.6 Hypothesis 6	176
5.7.7 Hypothesis 7	179

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	183
6.1. Introduction	183
6.2. Summary of major findings	185
6.2.1 Personal characteristics of farmers in Osun and Taraba state	185
6.2.2 Social and economic characteristics of farmer	186
6.2.3 Farmers Level of Involvement in the Conflict	187
6.2.4 Farmers Perception of the cause of the violent conflicts in Osun and Taraba states	187
6.2.5 Land availability and utilization for agricultural purposes in Osun and Taraba states	188
6.2.6 Farmers' level of production in post conflicts period in Osun and Taraba states	189
6.2.7 Livestock farmers' production level in post conflict in Osun and Taraba states	190
6.2.8 Farmers possession of livelihood materials in most conflict periods in Osun and Taraba states	190
6.2.9 Farmers migration pattern in Osun and Taraba states	191
6.2.10 Suggested rehabilitation strategies in the violent conflict zones in Osun and Taraba states	192

6.2.11. Suggested Conflict Mediation Strategies in Osun and Taraba States	192
6.3. Conclusion	193
6.4. Recommendation	194
6.5. Areas for Further Research	196
References	198

LIST OF TABLES

1.	Agricultural contribution to Nigerian Gross Domestic product G.D.P. constant factor cost 1981-2003 ₦ = million	12
2.	Sub-Sectoral Contribution of Agriculture to Agricultural G.D.P at 1984 Constant Factor Cost (1981-1997)	14
3.	Selected Output of Major Agricultural Commodities in Nigeria 1981-2003 (000 tonnes)	21
4.	Poverty incidences by location (Rural/Urban)	49
5.	Population of farmers in each stratum	94
6.	Grouping of Osun and Taraba states farmers into poverty categories using poverty index	105
7.	Percentage distribution of respondents by their personal characteristics n = 385	113
8.	Percentage distribution of farmers by socio-economic characteristics n = 385	117
9.	Percentage distribution of respondents by perceived causes of conflict in the two states core conflict areas	119
10.	Farmers' involvement level scores in Osun and Taraba states core-conflict area	121
11.	Distribution of farmers according to farmers' access to their farmland after the violent conflicts in Osun and Taraba States	119
12.	Distribution of respondents according to crops production level after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States.	125
13.	Distribution of respondents according to livestock production level in the two states after the conflict.	128
14.	Distribution of farmers according to rate of performing eight off-farm income generating activities in Osun and Taraba States.	130
15.	Distribution of farmers according to livelihood status, using materials possession items after the conflict in the two states.	132

16.	Farmers mean score of pleasure derived from ceremonies after the violent conflict in Osun and Taraba States.	134
17.	Farmers' participation in recreational activities after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States	136
18.	Standard crops mean production index of farmers in Osun and Taraba States after the conflict	139
19.	Mean production level of livestock in Osun and Taraba States after the conflict	143
20.	Livelihood material possession mean scores in Osun and Taraba States after conflict	148
21.	Distribution of Respondents by their migration pattern and reasons for migration in Osun and Taraba States	152
22.	Distribution of farmers' by proportion of work lost to the conflict in Osun and Taraba States	154
23.	Annual Mean income of farmers after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States.	156
24.	Distribution of respondents by head counts poverty level after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States	158
25.	Distribution of respondents' by suggested rehabilitation strategies in Osun and Taraba States	159
26.	Frequency distribution of farmers according to suggested solutions to the communal conflicts in Osun and Taraba States.	162
27.	Chi-square analysis of farmers' level of involvement in communal conflict and their personal characteristics in Osun and Taraba States	165
28.	Z-test analysis of farmers' crops output (yield) after the violent conflict in core and outside conflict zones of Osun and Taraba States	167
29.	Z-test analysis of farmers livestock production after the violent conflict in core and outside conflict areas of Osun and Taraba States	170

30.	Z-test Analysis of farmers' material possession after the violent conflict in core and outside conflict zones in Osun and Taraba States	172
31a.	Analysis of variance of farmers' crops production level 0 across the 3 zones in Osun State	174
31b.	Duncan's new multiple range tests for farmers' crops production level in Osun State	175
32a.	Analysis of variance of farmers' crops production level across the 3 zones of Taraba States	177
32b.	Duncan's new multiple range tests for farmers' crops production level in Taraba State	179
33a.	Analysis of variance of farmers' livelihood possession materials' scores after the conflict across the 3 locations in Osun State	180
33b.	Duncan's new multiple range tests of farmers livelihood material possession across the 3 location's in Osun State	180
34a.	Analysis of Variance of Farmers' Livelihood possession materials' scores after the conflict in Taraba State	182
34b.	Duncan's new multiple range test for Farmers livelihood possession materials' scores	182

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.	Pattern of diversification	27
2.	Definition of Peace	40
3.	Russel Theory 1994	70
4.	The growth cycle	71
5.	Reconciliation Locus	78
5.	A conceptual frame work for the analysis of the impact of conflict On farmers livelihood in Taraba and Osun States, Nigeria	88
7.	Map of Osun State showing the core, peripheral and outside conflict zones	88
8.	Map of Taraba State showing the core, peripheral and outside conflict zones	91
9.	Stratification of state into conflict areas	92

LIST OF PLATES

Plates		Page
1.	Farmers' huts turn into rubies	143
2.	A typical settlement outside conflict area	144
3.	Sorrowful sight of a brutally amputated and facially battered livestock farmers	147
4.	Vandalized buildings in a farm settlement	149

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Background to the Study

The determination of human beings to survive is a remarkable trait to be recognized and appreciated. Despite the conditions that tend to limit the socio-economic opportunities available to a large proportion of the population, people will out of necessity, look for means to ensure that their survival needs are met. Livelihood focuses on the totality of means by which people secure a living, have or acquire in one way or another the requirements for survival and the satisfaction of needs as defined by people themselves in all aspects of their lives (Olawoye, 2000).

Nigeria is agrarian in nature and greater percentage of the farmers dwell in the rural areas where farming activities happen to be their primary sources of livelihood. Agboola and Eniola (1991) opined that agriculture is by far the largest sector on which fast majority of Nigeria populace depends for their well-being and livelihood. The context of farmers' livelihood comprises farming activities, natural resources, economic, cultural, social equitability, and political environment, shocks and stress maintenance. Sustainability of the components of farmer's livelihood context will bring about livelihood outcome such as, food security, health, water, shelter, education community participation and personal safety (Carney, Drinkwater and Rusinwo, 1999).

Farmers' means of securing a living in Nigeria is either monetised or non-monetised. Those that are monetised are trading, food selling and working as a hired labourer. Sometime farmers' means of securing a living may or may not be monetised. For instance crop farming may be engaged to meet the needs of household consumption

while part of the produce can be sold and cash realized can be used to purchase whatever cannot be provided by members of the household. Gathering of Non-Timber Forest Products (NTFP) such as firewood, snails, mushrooms, locust beans and she nuts, could be sold and processed or some of these are equally of use at home.

Similarly, craft making including mat making and pottery-making perform two functions; provide the home with necessary furniture. It also secures some cash when some are sold. Nigerian Environmental Study/Action Team (NEST) (2000) consider many survival activities as livelihood sustainable coping mechanism that is dynamic. It helps farmers to cushion the effect of social economic and environmental shocks.

Federal government policies that placed embargo on importation of agricultural commodities produced locally and operation of free market system led to increase in the prices of agricultural commodities. Trade liberalization proved to be quite advantageous and financially rewarding to arable tree crops farmers who sized the opportunity to troop back to their neglected farms. The polices could be referred to have increased farmers income that subsequently led to expansion on acquisition of amenities that improve farmers' living standard. This positive development placed farmers on higher livelihood status. That is the policies were of immense benefit to the least advantaged groups in the society and who are located principally in the rural areas of Nigeria. (Tshibaka, 1998).

In coping with livelihood sustainability farmers' compete for resources that exist in limited quantities and scarce. Competition creates a situation where people struggle for possession of these scarce resources, which often generate conflict. Conflict situation threaten livelihood outcomes and termination of farmers' sustainable livelihood income.

1.2. **Statement of problem**

The basis of conflict in any society lies in perceived and actual relative inequity, which manifest itself in form of differing interest receiving unequal recognition. Reward allocation is not based on the failure to recognize the needs and interest of all, but systemic domination of some by others (Ugwuegbu, 1999). Conflict is a reality in Africa as shown in the prominent and intense situations in Darfur region of Sudan, Somalia, and Ethiopia, Rwanda Angola, Burundi, and Republic of Congo.

Nigeria also recorded several violent conflicts in many rural communities. Such conflicts explain noticeable distortions in farmers' livelihoods since they live and earn their living from rural areas. Tamuno (1991) once reported that these conflicts are due to internal boundary disputes, rival interest of nomads and sedentary farmers as well as agitation for improved prices for agricultural commodities and improved standard of living by groups of farmers or peasants in some local governments areas. Example of such conflicts includes series of clashes between Ife and Modakeke communities in Osun State between 1981 – 1996. Many communities in Osun State have reasons to fight and reconciled e.g Ifetedo and Olode Modakeke and Ipetumodu. However in violent conflict ridden areas, (Ife and Modakeke) hostilities of 2000 – 2001 claimed several lives and properties worth millions of Naira were vandalized.

The situation became worse when the conflict spread from destruction of farmers settlement to farms. In the two communities some Cocoa trees were cut down, salt poured on the Cocoa and Kolanut stocks to prevent them from sprouting. Also corpses of the villages attacked during the crisis littered the surrounding villages, particularly those of Ife and Modakeke indigenes. (Post express, April 20, 1999)

Similarly prominent conflict was reported in the middle belt region of Nigeria among the TIV and Jukun in Wukari community of Taraba States. Prior to this research in 2002 the two ethnic groups had several conflict between 1990-1992 which claimed several lives, retarded economic growth and destruction of properties and displacement of farmers from their farms. In 2000 and 2001 the affected communities under focus recorded another violent conflict tagged operation sweep that resulted to burning of farms, destruction of properties and killing of youth and adults.

The attempt made by the Federal Government of Nigeria to resolve the conflicts through concerted administrative and judicial panel of enquiries failed on several occasions. The failure was adduced to the panel's lack of competent and courage to examine in details the causes that are often as old as the history of the disputing communities (Idowu, 2001). Conflict within the two communities became a menace when farmer employed negative or aggressive conflict handling style. It is evident from diverse sources that negative conflict handling style employed in the affected communities in Taraba and Osun states led to destruction of lives and properties, diversion of resources meant for development to conflict mitigation. It further imposed hardship on the citizens, worsening their social conditions and led to mass migration of farm families.

In view of anecdotal account of the conflicts effect on farmers' livelihood in the conflict ridden areas and unavailability of empirical records to established the effect of the conflict that this research on assessment of farmers livelihood in conflict and non conflict areas was conducted with the aim to compare farmers' livelihood in core conflict area with non conflict areas. The study was guided by the following research questions:

- i. What are the personal and socio-economic characteristics of farmers in Osun and Taraba States?
- ii. What are the perceptions of farmers about the actual causes of conflict in Osun and Taraba States?
- iii. Were farmers in the conflict areas involved in the conflict in Osun and Taraba States?
- iv. How has the conflict led to migration of farmers in Osun and Taraba States?
- v. Does the conflict have any effect on land availability and utilization in conflict and non-conflict areas of Osun and Taraba States?
- vi. Does the conflict affect farmers' livelihood variables (crops and livestock, off farm activities, pleasure derived from ceremonies and farmers participation in recreational activities) in Osun and Taraba States?
- vii. In what ways does the conflict affect farmers' livelihood material possession in Osun and Taraba States?
- viii. Is there any difference in farmers' poverty level in conflict and non-conflict areas of Osun and Taraba States?
- ix. What are the appropriate rehabilitation strategies for the displaced conflict victims in Osun and Taraba States?
- x. What are the perceived conflict resolution mechanisms among farmers, for desirable, peaceful co-existence and sustainable livelihood in Osun and Taraba States?

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to assess farmers' livelihood in conflict and non-conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states, Nigeria.

The specific objectives are to:

- i. describe the personal and social characteristics of farmers in 3 conflict locations in Osun and Taraba states respectively.
- ii. ascertain the perception of farmers about the causes of the age long conflicts in Osun and Taraba states.
- iii. ascertain the level of farmers involvement in the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.
- iv. ascertain the effect of the conflict on land availability and utilization for agricultural purposes in Osun and Taraba states.
- v. assess the effects of the conflict on socio-economic and farmers' livelihood variables such as crop production; livestock, off-farm activities, migration pattern, derived pleasure from ceremonies, participation in recreational activities and farmers' material possession in conflict and non-conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states separately.
- vi. determine the poverty level of farmers in conflict and non-conflict areas of Taraba and Osun states.
- vii. establish appropriate conflict rehabilitation and resolution strategies for desirable peaceful co-existence and sustainable livelihood in Osun and Taraba States.

1.4. **Hypotheses of the Study**

1. There is no significant relationship between farmers' personal characteristics and their level of involvement in the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.
2. There is no significant difference in farmers' crops production level (Crops Standard Mean Weight) in core and outside conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states.
3. There is no significant difference in farmers' livestock production level in core conflict and non-conflict area of Osun and Taraba states.
4. There is no significant difference in material possession scores of farmers in core and outside conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states.
5. There is no significant difference in crops and livestock production level among the three conflict locations in Osun state and Taraba states.
6. There is no significant difference in material possession scores among the three conflict locations in Osun and Taraba states.

1.5. **Significance of the study**

Conflict arises when the difference in interaction between two or more people necessitate change in at least one person so that their engagement may continue and develop. The differences cannot co-exist without some adjustments. The adjustment is what normally results in conflicts.

According to Tamuno (1991) annual police reports between 1979 and 1995 indicated that various types of public disturbances arose for a variety of reasons in Nigeria. These ranges from chieftaincy and land disputes to clashes between civilians and soldiers outside barracks. Others are violent clashes between the Fulani cattlemen, and sedentary farmers over alleged destruction of crops. These are the prominent features of conflicts situation in Nigeria.

Also, it is rather pathetic that some development projects aimed at improving agricultural production potentials of peasants often result in conflict. For instance, the Bakolori Dam construction in Sokoto state that was meant to facilitate irrigation resulted in conflict. This led to the looting of properties and burning of granaries, houses and vehicles; as well as killing and wounding of hundreds of men, women and children (Ken, 1985, and Yahaya, 2002). In this particular case, the conflict resulted because the beneficiaries felt cheated by the planners, the contractors and the government.

In the same vein, Ife – Modakeke in Osun state and Tiv Jukun conflict in Taraba State, which started as far back as 19th Century, had escalated over the years. It worsened between 1996 to early part of the year 2000 in Osun state and 1999 – 2002 in Taraba state. Both have claimed thousands of lives and properties worth millions of naira for both farmers and non-farmers alike.

Several reports and narrative studies have been written on these conflicts. The dearth of empirical data concerning effect of the conflict on farmers' livelihood necessitates this study. The outcome of the study shed more light on perception of farmers about causes of conflict in the two states. In addition, it reveals the impact of the conflict on farmers' production level and livelihood materials as an indication of conflict handling style effects, which may be positive or negative.

Finally a "bottom up" approach would be used to generate appropriate home-derived rehabilitation strategies and solutions to such conflicts. The study is also significant because it provides insight into the similarities and differences in conflict impact on farmers' production level and livelihood material possessions across two socio-cultural and agro-ecological locations in Nigeria so that farmers' means of livelihood in the two states will be revealed and empirical data concerning the severity of the conflict can easily be detected in the two states.

Conclusions and recommendations arising from the study will provide needed framework for conflict managers, agricultural research stations, extension organizations, and conflict intervention by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and governments alike to handle researches that will be conducted in conflict ridden areas. It will also facilitate desirable actions in addressing conflicts related circumstances as obtained in these two conflict sites.

1.6. Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited to assessment of conflict impacts on farmers' livelihood in communities experiencing conflict in South West and Middle belt regions of Nigeria. These communities are located within Osun and Taraba States. Farmers were considered

as primary targets because of the visible impact of the conflicts on their livelihoods. In other words, they were considered as primary targets because of the need to safeguard their interest in the practice of extension and rural development. Hence, it is paramount to consider the effect of conflict situation such as witnessed in the study areas on agricultural productivity as well as its implications in the welfare of farming households.

1.7. **Limitation of the study**

Communal conflict affects the livelihood status of several groups, particularly farmers, youths, professionals, artisans, and community leaders in the two states. Most importantly anything that affects farmers will also affect the nation given their prominent or crucial roles in the provision of food and fiber for the teeming Nigerian population. Apart from the fact that the study areas were rough terrain, the egalitarian nature of farmers in the study areas had its advantages but sometimes-unavoidable liabilities. For instance once the researchers are sighted in some villages, the interviews become community affairs, leaving no room for privacy.

Moreover, while the use of video camera and photograph of damages were allowed in Taraba State during data collection, it was not the same in Osun State where farmers did not permit the use of video camera and snapping of pictures of damages resulting from the conflict. However, these limitations did not in any way affect the attainment of the study objectives.

1.8. Definition of terms

Conflict:- Conflict as used in this study refers to disagreement through which the parties involved perceive a threat to needs, interests, means of livelihood and material possession. It is also applied to both open fighting between hostile groups and to struggle between antithetical forces.

Livelihood:- Livelihood in this study comprises the capability, assets including both materials and social resources and activities required for a means of living.

Poverty level:- It is defined with reference to poverty line e.g. if a farmer earns income lower than a set amount, that is less than 1/3 of the average income he is poor while 2/3 of the average income and above is rich. Hence, 1/3 and 2/3 of the average income is the poverty line in this study.

Off-farm Activities:- Refers to off-farming season activities farmers embark on to generate extra income.

Conflict Area:- It refers to area where conflict that had occurred in the past led to destruction of lives and properties.

Non-Conflict Area:- It refers to areas in the outskirts of the conflict areas that are not in the same geographical location with conflict areas.

Core Conflict Area:- Area where anecdotal account of conflict is obvious.

Peripherals Conflict Area:- Area that is 15-20km to core conflict area and conflict effect on farmers livelihood is not as severe as may be witnessed or experienced in the core conflict areas.

Outside Conflict Area:- Area where farmers only hear news of conflict never experience violent conflict and 20-30km from peripheral conflict area.

After Conflict: Refers to periods when conflicts deescalated

Material Possession:- It refers to farmers' asset.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 Literature Review

2.1. Agricultural production situation in Nigeria

Agriculture remains the second highest foreign exchange earner after petroleum; accounting for more than 90 percent of the total non-oil export earnings (Yusuf, 2000). Majority of Nigerians still depend on agricultural product for their well being and livelihood. Apart from supplying food for her teeming population; it provides employment for about 70-80 percent of the population (Arokoyo, 2003).

Available records show that a total of 365,233.8 metric tones of agricultural products were exported in 1996 and ₦14, 802 billion was generated from agricultural products exported to foreign countries (C.B.N, 1995). It's contribution to Gross Domestic Product (G.D.P) between 1980-85 averaged ₦25, 229.20million and this contribution to G.D.P rose to ₦41, 694.7million in 2003 (C.B.N, 2003).

Table 1: Agricultural contribution to Nigerian Gross Domestic Product G.D.P constant factor cost 1981-2003 ₦ = million.

Period	Total	Agric. G.D.P	Agric. % of total
1981 – 1985	67,773.02	25,229.2	37.0
1986 – 1990	78,681.42	32,228.20	41.0
1991 – 1995	98,275.10	37,367.18	38.0
1996 – 2000	107,202	41,786.67	39.0
2001 – 2003	103,309.28	41,694.7	40.4

Source: Computed from C.B.N. Statistical Bulletin Vol. 14, December 2003.

In 1986 agricultural contribution to G.D.P was 41 percent, which was higher than 39 percent contributions to G.D.P recorded in 1996. Reasons adduced to this are, adequate price incentive brought by scraping of commodity boards, placement of embargo on importation of locally produced crops, encouragement or promotion of exportation of cash crops, devaluation of naira; and high prices of agricultural commodities that made farmers to troop back to their abandoned farms. Also, favorable weather condition and promotion of improved technology to small-scale farmers by Agricultural Development Programmes contributed to higher G.D.P recorded in 1986. However, Yusuf (2003) attributed the decline in agricultural sector contribution to G.D.P in 1996 to lack of focus and diversification of efforts that could not be sustained by the government.

The sub-sectoral analysis of the components of agricultural contribution to G.D.P as indicated in table 2 shows that crop sub-sector contributed more than three quarters of the agricultural contribution to total G.D.P. Crop sector contributed more than other sectors because of diverse ecological zones of the country which permit the cultivation of different and multiple crops in the field (Jibowu, 2000). This is coupled with the cash crops playing significant role in foreign exchange earning and arable crops, which are mainly staples and cultivated extensively by farmers.

Table 2: **Sub Sectoral Contribution of Agriculture to Agricultural G.D.P at 1984 Constant Factor Cost (1981 – 1997)**

Period	Total	Crops	%	Livestock	%	Forestry	%	Fisheries	%
1981 – 1985	25,229.7	18,341.6	72.7	4,306.84	17.7	1,258.68	4.99	1,322.08	5.214
1986 – 1990	32,229.7	24,773.26	76.87	4,958.98	15.39	1,382.60	4.29	1,167.62	3.62
1991 – 1995	32,228.50	29,721.33	79.12	5,154.73	13.72	1,274.83	3.39	1,416.30	3.77
1996 – 2000	37,567.15	33,356.67	79.83	5,466.67	13.08	1,363.33	3.26	1,473.33	3.53
2001 – 2003	103,98.28	37,235.61	82.83	5,564.07	14.08	1,467.33	3.89	1,573.33	405

Source: Computed from C.B.N. Statistical Bulletin Vol. 14, December, 2003.

It can be inferred from agricultural production situation analysis that the nation still depends on revenue generated from agriculture despite increase in the price of crude oil. Hence, strategies to improve agricultural production should be intensified so as to increase the sector contribution to G.D.P and achieve food security objectives.

2.2. Strategies to improve agricultural production in Nigeria

Evolutionary improvement of agricultural production strategies in Nigeria could be divided into 4 periods; colonial and post independence period 1893-1968, period of oil boom, period of state wide Agricultural Development Programmes which span 1984 to date and period of economic reform programme tagged National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), 1999 – to date.

Agricultural development strategies embarked upon during the colonial and post independence period are the following.

- (1) Promotion of exportation of crops through establishment of agricultural commodity base improvement strategy.
- (2) Establishment of ministry of agriculture and compartmentalization of the ministry into the various sectors such as forestry, crops fisheries and livestock.
- (3) Revitalization of agricultural commodity production strategy.
- (4) Establishment of farm settlement scheme to entice young school leavers to farming (Arokoyo, 2003).

The second period tagged oil boom era 1970-1974, agricultural production improvement strategies promoted by government are the following:

- (1) Establishment of National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP).
- (2) Operation Feed the Nation (O.F.N).
- (3) Establishment of River Basin Development Authority (RBDA).
- (4) The Green Revolution.
- (5) Establishment of pilot enclave agricultural development project in some states (Oyeyinka, 2002).

The third period witnessed the Federal government focus on the expansion of enclave Agricultural Development Programmes' benefit to farmers in all the states. The main objective of the agricultural development programme is to boost agricultural production, by linking farmers with the research stations (A.D.P, 2005).

The fourth period concentrated on the Economic Reform Programme tagged National Economic, Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS). The

programme gave birth to Agricultural Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (AEEDS). According to Bello (2006) target set for the programme are.

- (1) Minimum annual agricultural growth rate of 60% per annum.
- (2) Realization of \$3.0billion annually from exports with cassava a major component of the programme
- (3) Drastic reduction in food importation.
- (4) Development and implementation of land preparation scheme to increase cultivable arable land and faster private sector participation through incentive schemes.

In order to accomplish these objectives the following result orientated programmes were initiated and implemented;

- (1) Presidential initiatives on crops, livestock, and fisheries and aquaculture were inaugurated.
- (2) National Programme for food security
- (3) National FADAMAII development programme and
- (4) Root tuber expansion Programme. These are current agricultural production improvement strategies embarked upon by the Federal Government to boost agricultural production in Nigeria.

2.3. National Food Security Programme strategy to boost Agricultural production in Nigeria

The special programme for Food Security (NSPFS) in Nigeria was a follow-up to the November 1996 World food summit. Broad objectives of the programme are to contribute to sustainable improvements in the national food security through, rapid increase in productivity and food production on an economically and environmentally

sustainable basis, reduce year to year variability in agricultural production; and improve access to food (NSPFS, 2005).

The programme covers the following components: Food Security Project; Aquaculture and Inland Fisheries Project; Animal Diseases and trans boundary pests control project, marketing of agricultural commodities and food stock management project and soil fertility initiative. To effectively implement the above projects, NSPFS focuses on innovative approaches to soil conservation and fertility improvement and water use for crop production. Crop intensification and diversification of farm activities, supported by an analysis of constraints to household food security.

Soil conservation and fertility improvement emphasis the use of proven technologies for soil fertility and plant nutrient management. Water use activities focuses on measures for improving moisture availability to crops. These consist of simple, cost-effective and sustainable water harvesting techniques for irrigation. Crop intensification promotes the introduction of high yielding disease-resistant crop varieties. Farm diversification promotes suitable livestock, fisheries and agro-processing activities. Improved extension delivery and reliable input supply system is to encourage farmers adopted of improved farm practices (NSPFS, 2005).

2.4. Root and Tuber Expansion Programme strategies to boost agricultural production in Nigeria

Root and Tuber Expansion Programme (RTEP) implementation commenced in year 2002 when activities such as sourcing for planting materials, conducting base line survey and clearing of land for cassava multiplication were carried out. The overall goal

of RTEP is to increase income and food security for the target group farmers categorized as the poorest and the poor (RTEP, 2005).

In order to achieve the broad objective of this programme the following components, crop production, extension; processing and marketing units of agriculture are to be improved (OYSADEP, 2005). Crops targeted for improvement or multiplications are cassava, yam, cocoyam, and sweet potato. Two methods of multiplication were adopted.

- Programme direct effort, establishment of on-farm adaptive researches for cassava, yam, cocoyam and sweet potatoes.
- The second method is out growers' effort; here farmers were directly involved in production of root and tubers crops.

Technology generated and pass on to farmers are related to storage of fresh cassava cutting, seed yam production through mini stem technology, rapid multiplication of cassava through mini stem. Extension component deals with use of existing ADP village, Extension Agents (VEA) to train 63,962 farmers.

Root tuber expansion programme makes use of leaflets and posters carrying messages on farm preservation of cassava stems, when harvesting is done in the dry season. The programme also makes use of Radio programme and television to disseminate information to the farmers. Processing and marketing of agricultural product. The mandate of this component is for crop diversification and to generate markets for the disposal of products. The component is given mandate of assisting both farmers and agro-processing groups at securing credits facilities from credit agencies and non government organization (NGOs).

2.5. **Second National FADAMA Development Project**

The National Fadama Development project II is a follow-up on the first phase of National Fadama Development Project. The project development objective is to sustainably increase the income of Fadama users. That is those who depend directly or indirectly on Fadama resources (farmers, pastorals, fishers, hunters, gatherers, and service providers); through empowering communities to take charge of their own development agenda and by reducing conflict between Fadama users, (Fadama Manual, 2006).

Strategy for raising rural productivity and incomes rest on five pillars, increasing yield, producing higher value crops and livestock, reducing losses of crops, livestock, fish and other Fadama products and reducing cost of producer inputs, strengthening the forward and backward linkage in rural economy that stimulate investment, employment and incomes in rural non farm enterprises and reducing conflict between various Fadama user groups. In order to achieve these goals government focuses on several key activities: investing in infrastructure, reforming agricultural and rural research and advisory services, enhancing access to rural financial services, and improving mechanism to avoid and resolve conflict among resource users (National Fadama II Manual, 2006).

2.6. **Goals of peasant farmers in Nigeria**

In Nigeria peasant farmers constitute a substantial proportion of the total population and they produce the largest quantity of the nations output (F.A.O, 1994). Like any other enterprise, two main goals of peasant farmers in Nigeria include, striving

to satisfy the family units consumption demands and secondly to earn income from a miniature business or entrepreneur in a partially monetize market economy (Olayide, 1982). In order to achieve the second goal they would have to employ not only the limited resources, but also hire extra labour in addition to self-exploitation and other inputs. These two goals of the peasant farmer economy give way to profit maximization.

These goals are reflected in the reaction of farmers to increase in price of cocoa, which led to increase in cocoa output from 100,000 tonnes in 1986 to 256,00 tonnes in 1998 (Ogundijo,1998). Further investigation revealed that Modakeke declined to be reallocated to another place because their present land is suitable for planting cocoa their only income generating enterprise. In the postulation of Subair (1991), change in cocoa output was attributed to farmers' rehabilitation of abandoned farms and planting of improved cocoa varieties as well as expansion of cocoa farms.

2.7. Farmers' means of livelihood in Nigeria

Farmers means of livelihood in Nigeria can be grouped into Agriculture (crop), livestock raising, fishing, processing of agricultural outputs, marketing of agricultural products, hunting and small scale industries (Jibowu, 2000). These groups are briefly discussed below:

2.7.1 Crop production

Farmers' produce crops for the purpose of consumption and sale to generate income that could be expended on acquisition of livelihood essential amenities. Crops planted in Nigeria include tree crops and annual crops. The tree crops such as Cocoa, Kola ,Coffee, Cashew, Oil palm mango, Citrus, produce seeds and fruits, which are of a

great commercial importance (Jibowu, 2000). Annual crops such as vegetable melon, yam, cassava, rice, groundnut, pepper and onions are also cash crops, which furnish much income to the farmers.

Tree crops thrive well in Southern part of Nigeria where Osun state is one of the states that contributed greater percentage to the production of tree crops in Nigeria. Grains thrive well in the Northern part of Nigeria where Taraba state is regarded as the food basket state in Nigeria (Durojaiye, 1998). Available record from Central Bank of Nigeria (2003) as indicated below revealed crops production in Nigeria started increasing from 1986 when Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was introduced into Nigeria. Increase in farmer crops production level was attributed to placement of embargo on importation of locally produced crops, increase in the prices of agricultural commodities and encouragement government gave to exportation of crops (Durojaiye, 1998).

Table 3: Selected Output of Major Agricultural Commodities in Nigeria 1981-2003 (000 tonnes)

	Cocoa	Coffee	Rubber	Maize	Sorghum	Beans	Rice	Yam	cassava
1981 – 1985	770	819	213	5318	19,915	2847	86.8	23,982	27,025
1986 – 1990	1004	988	1076	21,992	27,992	4893	89.75	42,460	78,251
1991 – 1994	1189	1388	990	24,842	23,524	5885	11,978	81,523	116,285
1995 – 2000	1328	1253	1270	38,874	48,194	11970	20,404	147670	167,936
2001 – 2003	516	615.7	859.7	20,309.5	29,424.5	7852	12,33.7	8298.9	114,109

Source: Computed from Central Bank of Nigeria, Statistical Bulletin (2003) Volume 14.

2.7.2 Livestock production as a means of livelihood for Farmers

Livestock raising is concentrated largely in the Northern part of the country because of the abundance of grasses and open rangeland in the North. The livestock kept by farmers from there they generate means of livelihood. Such livestock includes the following: cattle, sheep and goat, pigs and camels. Poultry production includes production of fowls, turkey and guinea fowl.

2.7.3 Fisheries production as means of livelihood for Farmers

It is carried out largely in the riverine areas of the country. Fishing is concentrated in Niger and Benue delta region and along rivers Niger as well as some other big rivers in the country. Large-scale commercial fishing is done in the Atlantic Ocean.

2.7.4 Processing of agricultural products as means of livelihood for Farmers

This is a major female farmer's occupation. Apart from assisting their husbands to harvest and carry farm products from the farm, the females process agricultural products (Mgbada, 2000). Agricultural product processing by female farmers to generate income are cassava into garri, cassava into flour, yam into flour and palm seed into palm oil and preservation of kola nut and palm oil (Jibowo, 2000).

2.7.5 Hunting as a means of livelihood

It is an exclusive male occupation in Nigeria. Men go on hunting expeditions either as individual or groups during the day, and after the days farm work. Also, after

having some rest some farmers go hunting at night often individually. Some farmers see hunting as a game while some engage in hunting to make a living (Jibowo, 2000).

2.7.6 Small scale industries as a means of livelihood

Small scale industries are blacksmithing, gold smiting, watch repairing, basket weaving, barbing, palm wine tapping, cloth-weaving, dyeing, food selling, carpentry, bricklaying pot making, leather works and drumming. Farmers engaged in many of these activities could be developed to contribute significantly to the national economy (Olawoye, 2000).

2.8. Labour availability: A determinant of farmers production level

Production involves human labour from land clearing, planting operations to harvesting periods of both crops and livestock keeping. Olawoye (1991) observed that farming as practiced by vast majority of producers in Nigeria is labour intensive. The level of agriculture is limited by the amount of labour available to farmers directly for production. This accounts for low production level obtained over the years. For instance, a study conducted in Iseyin Local Government indicated that the main source of labour for farmer farm operations, apart from family labour was hired labour which most of the time was scarce and expensive when available (Bolarinwa, 1997).

Investigation revealed that farmers employ the services of yearly paid hired and casual labour for weeding and planting operations. Labour needed for harvesting and spraying are however, produced by their children and wives. Many times farmers employ the services of women and men in the village. This explains or accounts for

farmers marrying more than one wife and the tendency to have many children (Ekong, 2003).

Ugwuegb (1999), relating conflict with availability of labour reported that conflict reduces the production activities of the conflicting parties by causing them to divert time, energy, material, and human resources to fighting in conflict situations. Conflict situation often draws the attention of people to battle ground with the aim of winning, there by creating labour scarcity for farmers (Akanni,2000).

2.9. **Rural livelihood concept**

The rural livelihood concept is the way in which rural households earn their living or the living standard of rural dwellers (Overseas Development Institute (Odi), 2003). Carney (1998), observed that livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets, both natural and social and activities required for a means of living. Loubstan (1995), as cited in Olawoye (2000) define livelihood as the totality of means by which people secure a living, have or acquire in one way or another the requirement for survival and the satisfaction of needs, as defined by people themselves in all aspects of their lives. Therefore, the issue of sustainability comes into the concept of livelihood.

According to Sanderson (2000) livelihood is said to be sustainable when it can cope with or recover from stresses and shocks, both now and in the future. The concept embraces not only the present availability but also the means against unexpected shocks and crisis that threaten livelihood.

Farmers' livelihoods are threatened by environmental hazard, decrease in production level, availability of land resources and incessant violent conflicts (Odi,

2003). For instance, Nigeria dry land and wetlands are precious and fragile common resource. Increasingly, wetlands become places of sometimes-violent conflict between various user groups, notably, herders men and farmers. One of such places is in Nigeria the Hadejia – Nguru wet land in Jigawa State, where water is the prime resource over which people compete for livelihood (Bulletin of the Dry lands, 2002).

Livelihood study assumes that to design better policy, it is essential to understand the complex reality facing the poor. The ultimate goal is to understand from past processes, what would help households to get into a path of accumulation, to exit from poverty. Therefore, the first step to be taken in the analysis of livelihood is the stratification of people into livelihood categories using poverty level indices such as core poor, moderately poor and non-poor. With this classification of people into groups it becomes easier for policy makers or development agencies to direct aids to the class they intended to develop in the society.

Policies and programmes in Nigeria necessarily rest on assumptions about how people live, what they need and how they respond to new incentives regulations or opportunities. However, livelihood analysis helps to improve our understanding of what is really happening in people's lives, what enables some, but not others to escape from poverty, and how people are affected by the policy (Odi, 2003).

2.10. Diversification of income generating activities and farmers' mechanisms for sustaining livelihood

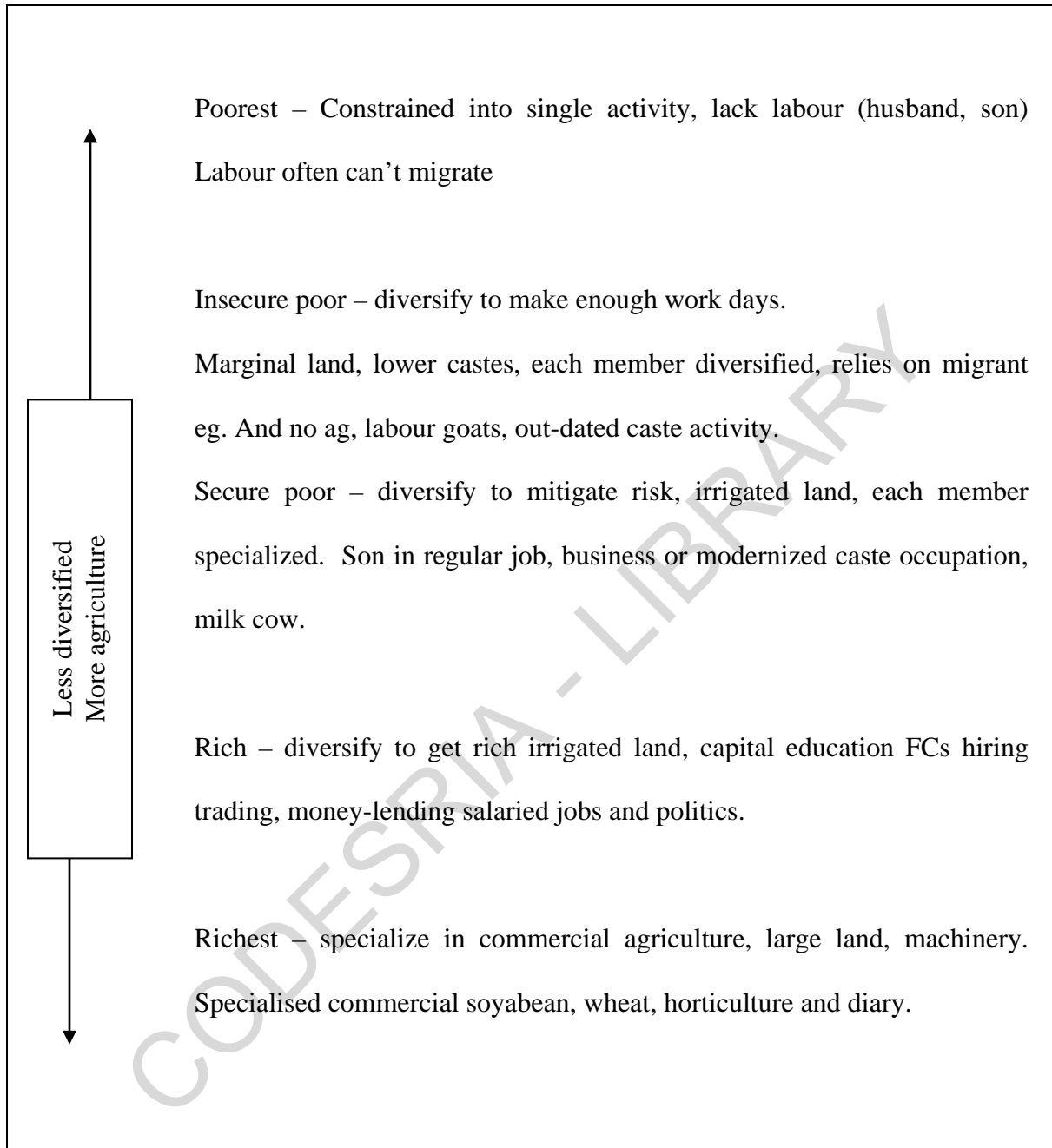
Household with diverse livelihood relies on several income-generating activities within a year, a week and a day. A diverse livelihood is the opposite of specialized livelihood, which is based on a single, fulltime activity. Diversification is defined as the

incorporation of new income generating activities into the economic portfolio in order to sustain livelihood status. At the household level, livelihood is sustained through pull or positive and pushes or negative diversification of income generating activities. When new activities generate higher returns than before it is pull or positive diversification. However, when new activities or occupations offer lower returns than before it is either a direct consequence of positive or negative diversification.

The positive diversification often leads to asset accumulation or improvement of living standards. Negative diversification is adopted out of necessity; may be in response to some shock or down ward trend. It forms part of coping strategy or can be part of a cycle of impoverishment.

Nigeria farmers in general diversity income generating activities in two ways referred to as agricultural and non-agricultural diversification. In case of agricultural diversification farmers may decide to adopt high yielding variety of crops or decide to plant a non-variety of high value crops such as cocoa, soybeans, wheat, cotton, cucumber, while retaining other food crops and keeping small number of animals. Okunmadewa (2002) opined that majority of farmers diversify their skill and resources through practicing mixed cropping and multiple enterprises to sustain their livelihood. It is in line with this postulation that farmers in Osun and Taraba States practice agricultural diversification through mixed farming as a means of sustaining their livelihood. Non-agricultural diversification refers to enterprises farmers embark upon outside agricultural practice e.g. tailoring, trading blacksmith, money lending and politics. Globally, Odi (2003) provided information on the pattern of income generating activities for majority of poor and rich farm households that differ in rate of returns on economic opportunities

Figure 1: **Pattern of diversification**



Odi (2003) Understanding Rural Livelihoods in Rural India, Department of International Development, U.K.

2.11. **Reasons for income generating diversification**

Farmers have several reasons for diversifying their income generating activities, prominent among them are spreading risks, coping with insufficiency, seasonality, compensating new activities, compensating for failures in credit markets, gradual transition to new activities and finally building on complementaries.

2.11.1. **Spreading risk**

Farmers' activities are spread across several sectors. The spread of activities help them to spread risk and manage uncertainty. For instance farmers may produce wide range of crops rather than specializing in just the most profitable one.

2.11.2 **Coping with insufficiency**

The diverse activities may be undertaken as an expose response to short coming in other activities. For instance a failed harvest owing to drought or pest, loss of job, need to pay emergency medical or funeral bills etc may force farmers into pursuing other monetized activities.

2.11.3. **Seasonally monetized activities**

These seasonal activities such as hunting gathering of fruits, nuts and mushrooms depend on the weather and seasons. Certain items, such as crafts produced for particular festivals are seasonally monetized activities. Therefore, farmers undertaking different activities in the off season even if they produced lower returns than the main crops; is preferable to outright unemployment.

For instance when there is little farm labouring work available in the dry season, poor households in rural areas collect and sell non-forest products as a means of sustaining their livelihood.

2.11.4 **Compensating for failures in credit markets**

Farmers may resolve into undertaking some activities to generate cash to pay for the inputs necessary to improve production. For example, crop farmers may work off-farm just before the main crop season to finance needed fertilizers and seeds. That is they may grow minor crops such as vegetable farming in the dry season and sales of which allow for the purchase of fertilizers for main cropping enterprises.

2.11.5 **Gradual transition to new activities**

Farmers' decision to change to new activities with higher returns may be incremental, particularly if the new occupation is untested. The new activity is adopted as an addition to the farm household portfolio rather than a substitute for existing activities (Odi,2003)

2.11.6 **Building on complementaries**

These are activities that build on existing skills, experience and information. Home-based part-time work may complement the main monetized activities. Farmers may move into trading on agricultural produce, hunting and crafts like basket weaving. In this case change is path dependent, in that it depends on previous condition and experiences.

2.12 **Assessment of farm families livelihood status**

The assessment of the exact needs of farm families in terms of livelihood depend on the research purpose and policy questions at hand. However, the key areas of assessment are, household composition, household asset balance, activities and cash flow. Household asset includes main domestic productive, assets and income generating activities undertaken by farmers (Odi, 2003).

In the field of extension, farmer's asset assessment is determined using socio-economic status indices. It's indicators measure the position farmers occupy within the rural community relative to others. The position farmers occupy could be high or low depending on the possession and non-possession of socio-economic indicators adjudged as important by the rural community (Oviwigbo, 2000).

The importance of measuring and analyzing socio-economic status (S.E.S.) of farmers is that it portrays farmers' livelihood status in social stratification scale. Onwume and Ugbor (1994) in collaborating with this fact, stated that one social class determines the person's life style and opportunities.

Different indices have been used in measuring S. E. S. of rural farm families. Such indices are single factor and multiple factor. Single factors index deals with the use of indices such as income, occupation, and cloth, rent to measure SES. On the other hand as the name suggests, multiple factor index requires so many indices such as cultural possessions, material possessions and participation in-group activities.

Patel and Anthonio (1974), developed an S.E.S. scale using multiple factor approach that gave quantitative expression to the measurement of the S.E.S. of rural families in South Western Nigeria. However, Subairu (1991) discovered that the indicators used are now obsolete but the techniques of obtaining S.E.S. remain valid. Meanwhile, Akinibile (1997) developed S.E.S. scale for measuring rural farm families, which included 21 items with weight, attached to each item using biseria correlation technique.

2.13. Concept of poverty and livelihood

As it was elucidated in the concept of livelihood, poverty level of individuals or families is an important factor leading to stratification of people into poor and rich in a community. Therefore, World Bank (1990) defined poverty as the inability to attain a minimal standard of living interpreted to encompass not only consumption of food, clothing but shelter and access to education, health service and clean water. In a similar postulation, Killick (1981), in his submission opined that relative poverty referred to people whose living standard is below what is generally regarded as a socially acceptable minimum. Adereti (2000) referred to rural poverty as a situation in which rural individual groups, communities and societies at a given point in time, experience a level of income below that which is needed to provide a desirable minimum living level.

Nigeria is one of the most resource-endowed nations in the world, but socio-economically, Nigerians are also among the poorest in the whole world. Over 60% of Nigerians live below poverty line. Not only that, majority live in the rural areas where agriculture is the predominant occupation and principal source of livelihood (Olayemi, 2002).

Relevant surveys have shown that poverty is on the increase in Nigeria with well over 67 million people living below the poverty level in 1996 compared to 18 million people in 1980 (Okunmadewa, 2000). Highlights of occupational analysis of nation's consumer, survey for the period of 1985, 1996 show that poor families are in higher proportion in farming households, who are mainly in the rural areas.

Adereti (2000) traced the causes of poverty among farm families to over use or misuse of natural resources such as land forest and water. In another perspective,

Tamuno (1991) stated that conflict whether intra or inter often precipitate poverty in the conflicting community.

2.14. **The concept of conflict and social interaction**

There seems to be no precise definition of the word conflict. Conflict is a concept that its definition varies with the number of authors, and handling of conflict situation within the community. While some scholars view it as abnormal dysfunctional, disjunctives, others view it as an agent of growth and development for all parties when it is constructively handled.

Oke (2000) defines conflict as war, battle, struggle, opposing ideas or belief, disagreement, argument, quarrel. Viewing it from the same perspective, Harrowits (1985) defines conflict as a struggle (both overt and covert) among persons, parties whose aim is to gain certain objectives, advantages while simultaneously neutralizing, injuring or if possible in extreme cases eliminating rivals. Conflict often breaks down the institutional infrastructure and destroys the human resources on which the administration and enforcement of a legal-political order relies (Daudelin, 2003).

Otite (1999) in another perspective viewed the concept differently, when he stated that what makes a society an ideal polity is the extent to which the conflicting interest and needs in a society are constructively managed so that violence does not threaten its continued existence. He stressed that what is to be emphasised is not conflict per se but the ways people respond to it.

Therefore, conflict should not be viewed only in negative light of dysfunctional or disjunctive process and a break down of communication, as some scholars tend to

suggest. It is a process whereby differences are expressed by interdependent people in the process of achieving their needs and goals (Donohue and Kolt, 1992). Hence, conflict arises when a difference between two or more people necessitates change in at least one person, in order for their engagement to continue and develop further. The difference cannot co-exist without some adjustment; the adjustment is what normally results into conflict. Asaju (2000), opined that to say that conflicts will summarily end is as meaningful as to say that decisions will equally be conclusive with such finality. That will create a completely stagnant society for this to become true.

2.15 **Types of conflicts**

Asaju (2000), classified conflict in rural communities into 4 groups. These are: Intra-personal conflict; Inter-personal conflict; Intra-group conflict and Inter-group conflict.

2.15.1 **Intra- personal conflict**

This type of conflict is that which falls within a person and caused by being pushed in two or more directions at once. For instance when opinion leaders within the rural community delegate responsibility to their subordinates. They often create intra-personal conflict; by expecting too much from the subordinates. That is conflict within the person. Sote (2003) defined intra-personal conflict as the conflict within one individual, which can occur at three other sub-levels.

- i. Approach - avoidance conflict occurs where a person is both attracted to and repelled by the same object.

- ii. Approach - approach conflict occurs where a person can be attracted to two equally appealing alternatives; and
- iii. Avoidance - avoidance conflict occurs where a person can be repelled by two equally unpleasant alternatives.

2.15.2. **Inter – personal conflict**

Inter-personal conflict involves strain between two or more people in an organization or society (Asaju, 2000). It has to do with two or more individuals arguing over different goals or values task assignment in the society. Ademuyiwa (1999), discovered that in Nigeria, person-to-person or individual-to-individual conflict is among the commonest form of conflict.

2.15.3. **Intra-group conflict**

Intra-group conflict is that type of conflict that often occur between sub groups, factions, and committees, formed within a group (Asaju, 2000). For instance, arable crop farmers, livestock farmers, water users association, farmers' cooperative society are groups. Within these groups are factions; that is self-interested group of persons. Therefore, conflict within the factions that constitute the above-mentioned groups is referred to as intra-group conflict.

2.15.4 **Inter – group conflict**

Inter-group conflict results from disharmony between groups in the community such as ethnic groups, tribal groups or specific dialectics groups. Such conflicts can be over assignment of responsibility-limited resources or as a result of status.

Otite (1999) observed that intergroup conflict is the most common conflict in Nigeria. These conflicts result from different value systems, aggressive competition for

natural resources e.g. land, water, political positions or interests. Gbade (2003) observed that intergroup occurs between two different groups in form of competition for scarce resources.

2.16. **Inter-group conflict in Africa**

Inter-group conflict is not a new phenomenon in Africa nor its nation, communities, groups and organizations. The Twentieth century has been dotted with several conflicts, among which are Iraq and Kuwait war of 1990, when the former annexed the oil rich area of the latter. There is still unending Ethiopian and Eritean war, the Liberian conflict, which led to the emergence of “ECOMOG” in 1990, and Sierra-Leone armed conflict.

Nigeria experienced civil war between 1967 –1970 and several ethnic, religious and tribal conflicts have been reported to have occurred between 1970 to the year 2000 (Oтите, 1999). Among those conflicts are the Niger Delta conflict of 1995 and 1999. Also, conflicts have been reported in Zango Kataf and Tafawa Balewa towns in Kaduna and Bauchi States respectively. Also, there was another conflict due to the violation of “oro” norms that resulted into bloody clash between Yoruba and Hausa communities in Sagamu and counter reactions or reprisals attacks in Kano and other northern states.

2.17 Causes of conflicts in Nigeria

Nigeria social structure is inherently prone to generate conflicts from diverse ethnic-cultural interests and goals and from the political and economic necessities of survival. Otite, (1999) identified seven causes of conflicts in Nigeria. These include:

- (1) Land space and resource availability,
- (2) Disputed jurisdiction of certain traditional rulers and chiefs,
- (3) Creation of local government,
- (4) Competition over access to scarce political and economic resources,
- (5) Population growth and expansionist tendencies to sustain ethnic bound occupation
- (6) Perception of disregard for cultural symbols and pollution of cultural practices
- (7) Micro and macro social structures in Nigeria.

2.17.1 Land space and resources availability

People within and across the boundaries of local government council areas lay claim to land as original settlers or aborigines, on this basis, fight off those regarded as intruders. The farmer may voluntarily or involuntarily allow strangers to settle as tenants with or without some periodic symbolic payment as recognition and re-enactment of tenancy. Otite (1999) ascertained that farmers and pastoralists, fisherman and pond owners, foresters and timber logger have clashed through out Nigeria over controverted uses or exploitation of land and water resources.

2.17.2 Disputed jurisdiction of certain traditional rulers and Chiefs

When a king of one ethnic or sub ethnic group claims ruler ship over people belonging to another group, his action often generates conflict. For instance Albert

(1999) attributed cause of violent conflict between Modakekek and Ife to, claims of Modakeke to the ownership of their settlement and farmland of which Ooni of Ife (King) and his subjects rejected. This resulted in the violent conflict where many lives and properties were destroyed.

2.17.3 Creation of local government

Creation of local government councils has been the responsibility of the federal government. However, conflict arose when section of the areas opposed such creation; or their inclusion in the wrong council. This was evident in Ife Modakeke and Warri conflict. Similarly, ethnic claims over new headquarters and new markets caused conflict in Zangon Kataf and Tafawa Balewa town in Kaduna and Bauchi states respectively (Akinfeye, Wuye and Ashafa, 1999).

2.17.4 Competition over access to scarce political and economic resources

Creation of states and local government councils means availability of more political and administrative positions in the localities. These positions are limited and contestants mobilize members of their ethnic groups for support in the competition to hold such positions. Hence, divergent interests and inter-ethnic or sub ethnic and town conflicts occur. It is expected that winner in any competition will bring political goods home and promote the interests of his people in matters of conflict and contested local development programme. Albert (2001) opined that conflicts occur when two or more people want the same thing and there is not enough to go round. The competition could be between two groups or organizations in a community.

2.17.5 Population growth

This factor generates conflict among users of land resources. The migration of Tiv and their tendency to give birth to many children, scrambling for fertile land to farm have been a source of conflict in the territories of their neighbours, e.g. the Jukun in Wukari areas. In these circumstances, mythology and migratory histories as well as a descent and inheritance claims are manipulated to assert new ownerships in foreign territories and in the process, create conditions of conflicts and bloody clashes (Otite, 1999).

2.17.6 Perception of disregard for cultural symbols and pollution of cultural practice

Perception refers to how we see understand or interpret the situation around us. Perception could be generated into conflict when others don't see the same issue as you see it. It could also generate conflict where an individual of one neighboring or immigrant group threatens the cultural trait of another group. For example, the killing and eating of a dog or crocodile within a community that respects or worship dog and crocodile could flare up emotion and impel men to violent action.

2.17.7 Micro and macro social structures in Nigeria

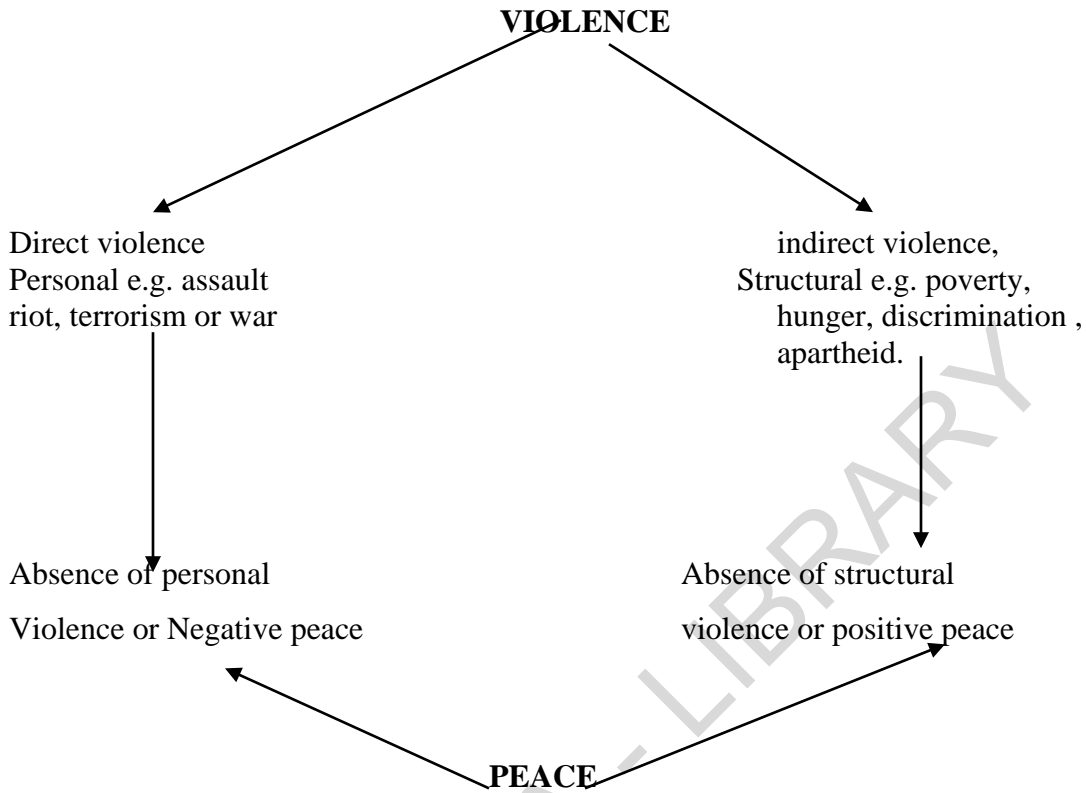
Nigeria is a segmented society with varieties of conflicting cultural interests, values and preferences. Claims to the control of common wealth, and to national political positions and economic resources as well as the divergent perceptions of coexistence in the same country setting provide grounds for conflict (Otite, 1999). The opposing views, which ethnic groups have of one another, such as Jukun, have of the Tiv and vice versa, predisposes Jukun and Tiv to crisis (Best, Idyorough and Shehu, 1999).

2.18.1. Concept of Peace and conflict resolution at the community level

Peace involves cooperation, non-violent social change aimed at creating more equitable and just structures in a society. The main purpose of a culture of peace is to promote worldwide respect for human rights, justice and care for one another. It is an ideology that consciously tries to integrate these values into all human activities (Lagunju, 1997).

It is essential in a democratic society that people develop the skill of critical thinking and ethical responsibility for supporting life (Hicks, 1988). Peace education constructs a new paradigm by which one can perceive the world. According to this perception, humanity is viewed as a unit and people as manifesting the same universal life. By perceiving the world in a 'new light' individuals understand that the importance of cultural diversity and see how every creature on earth has a value in themselves.

In this modern world, direct and continues action are required for the preservation of life; non-violence towards people and nature can and must become the sacred value of all humanity (Hicks, 1988). Peace education creates basis for educating people into belief that it is not important to posses, win or rule but to feel and show readiness to search for alternative solutions by non-violent means. Therefore, it must be made clear that to support non-violent action requires great personal courage especially in this time when people tend to further their own interest by means of violence or power politics (Langunju, 1997).

Figure 2: Definition of peace

Source: Hicks, S. (1988). Education for Peace Routledge London.

2.19 Tolerance indicators in the community

Tolerance is not supposed to be an end in itself but a means to an end. It is the minimal essential quality of social relations that eschew violence and coercion (Lagunju, 1997). Without tolerance peace is not possible. Intolerance derives from belief that one's own group; belief system or way of life is superior to those of others. It is a symptom that carries the potential of a life threatening social illness referred to as violence.

Violence is such a pathological phenomenon that requires the mobilization of all possible efforts to protect the health and well being of society. While "preventive medicine" in the form of comprehensive life long education for peace, human rights and

democracy is the most effective remedy, efforts also need to be made, to respond effectively to intolerant symptoms. Some symptoms or indicators of intolerance and behavioural indicators among conflicting parties either intra-group or international are explained below:

Stereotyping: - It is a situation where by a picture is created, where all members of a group are characterized by the same attributes – usually negative.

Teasing: - Calling attention to particular human behaviour, attributes and characteristics resulting in ridicule or insult.

Prejudice: - Judgement on the basis of negative generalizations and stereotypes rather than on the actual facts of a case or specific behaviour of an individual or group.

Scape goating: - Blaming traumatic events or social problems on a particular group.

Repression: - Forceful prevention of enjoyment of human rights (UNESCO, 1992). Some of these symptoms occur in all groups and areas where intolerance erupt, such as in Ife-Modakeke and Tiv-Jukun intergroup conflict in Osun and Taraba States respectively.

Since the conditions of tolerance do not readily catch the attention of conflicting parties. Therefore some notions of how to recognize and encourage the practice of tolerance among conflicting parties becomes crucial.

Language: - Absence of racial, ethnic and gender epithets. The media should use gender-neutral language and refrain from prejudicial adjectives and verbs in the description of events and persons.

Public Order: - This should be characterized by equality among person i.e. equal access to social benefit, public activities and educational and economic opportunities for all groups, men and women, young and old social group.

Social Relation: - Should be on the basis of mutual respect for human dignity in all societies.

Inter–group Cooperation: - All groups address common concerns of the entire community. Solution to public problems and controversies are cooperatively sought by all groups as the common social goals (UNESCO, 1992).

2.20 **Enemy images and conflict escalation**

The antagonistic position by different actors in human reactions make conflict inevitable. It is obvious that no one could presume to state which image of the opponent is objectively “correct” and which one is distorting the truth (Lagunju, 1997). Just as the doctors describe complex illnesses as syndromes, so certain phenomena like conflict in social science field can also be described.

In the field of peace and conflict studies, certain characteristics have been identified as the syndrome of the enemy image and these have been discovered to be responsible for conflict escalation in varying degrees. The following seven characteristics were identified and explained by Spillmann and Sillman (1988):

(i) **Distrust: -** In people’s mind everything originating from the enemy is seen as bad even when it appears reasonable and created for dishonest reasons. This is

the most important of the characteristics with regard to conflictual relationship in people's interaction in the society. All actors in the society are mutually distrustful of each other's motive. Hence, the escalation of conflict across the globe.

- (ii) **Placing the guilt on the enemy:** - The enemy is responsible for the tension, which exists and is to blame for everything that is negative under the predominating circumstances.
- (iii) **Negative anticipation:** - Wrong perception that whatever the enemy does is to harm one or the other.
- (iv) **Identification with evil:** - The enemy embodies the opposite to what we are and strive for, wants to destroy what we value most, and must therefore be destroyed.
- (v) **Zero-sum thinking:** - Anything, which benefits the enemy, harms us and vice versa.
- (vi) **De- individualization:** - Any one who belongs to a given group that is not automatically an enemy.
- (vii) **Refusal of empathy:** - We have nothing in common with our enemy, there is no information which could divert us from our original perception of the enemy where human feelings and ethical criteria towards the enemy are dangerous and ill- advised (Spillmann, and Sillman 1988).

Images of the enemy are thus formed by perception determined solely by negative assessment. Enemy images spirit seems to be the prevailing, 'human instinct', that aggravated the communal conflict in Ife-Modakeke and Tiv-Jukun conflicts in Osun and

Taraba states respectively. For instance, in a workshop organized by the United States Agency for International Development/Office of Transition initiatives (US AID/OTI) for peace keeping in Ife-Modakeke environs. It was difficult, on the first day of the workshop to bring the two communities together. However, before the end of the 5 days reconciliation workshop, they were able to interact and solve their internal problems not only in the workshop but also in their communities.

Personal communication with inhabitants of Jukuns' land in 2002 revealed that the Tivs' claimed Jukuns to be their enemy because they prevented them from acquiring farmland. On the other hand, the Jukuns' also lamented that among the tribes farming on Wukari land, the most stubborn are Tivs. They don't normally abide by traditional laid down pattern of acquiring farmland.

It is obvious that those characteristics identified as the syndromes of the enemy images, escalates conflict and may account for the conflict situations in various states. Therefore, the enemy-image factor could be said to constitute the bedrock of the conflict in Osun and Taraba States in particular and in several conflicting areas in general.

2.21 **Strategies for handling conflict in Nigeria**

Conflict is an inevitable social phenomenon in the society. That is, every dynamic plural society is bound to experience one form of conflict or the other. Asaju (2000) enumerated conflict behaviour, which focuses on the following conflict handling strategies.

2.21.1 **Smoothing strategies**

In applying the smoothing strategy conflict is ignored. That is, groups or individuals involved in conflict ignore the conflict by “sweeping” it under the “rug” hoping that it goes away naturally (Asaju, 2000). They pretend that the conflict does not exist. Another method is by reducing conflict tension through consoling the conflicting parties or emphasizing the area of agreement and common goal and driving underneath the area of conflict.

2.21.2 **Editing strategy**

In this mode of handling conflict, the conflicting groups or individuals are told, usually by a higher-level administrator, to ease the conflict and to “get along with each other”. Often the conflict is not really resolved, only driven underground so that the administrator does not see the more open conflict that had been visible before. Thus, positional power is used to force a decision.

2.21.3 **Suppression strategy**

Here conflict is handled when the stronger party orders the other parties to cease action with regards to the conflict situation they find themselves. It has to do with the use of power or authority to coerce the weaker party to submission. The Federal Government and State Governments, most of the times employ this method to suppress unions or groups in trade disputes as well as tribal and religious conflicts (Asaju, 2000).

2.21.4 **Avoidance/Withdrawal strategy**

This method involves one or more diversionary tactics where one or more parties affected in the conflict are encouraged to ignore it. Here, issues most of the time are left to resolve themselves. Wilmot and Hocker (1998), noted that this style allows conflict to sour and heat up unnecessarily rather than providing an avenue for resolving it. This kind of response to conflict situations compounds problems as the party that is “avoided” will later seek other means of attracting attention. Such party that is ignored or denied often resort to violence as a means of registering their agitation (Asaju, 2000).

2.21.5. **Emergency strategy**

This approach is commonly called fire brigade approach, where panicky circumstance measures are adopted in dealing with conflicting situations. For instance, it is common sight to see where institutions are instantly closed down, proscription of striking unions, and drafting of anti-riot police to conflict areas or locations (Asaju, 2000).

2.21.6. **Democratic process**

It is a participatory method of handling conflict. The practice creates a forum for the conflicting parties to express the immediate and remote causes of conflict and propose solutions to the conflict (Asaju, 2000).

2.21.7. **Confrontation strategy**

In this situation, conflict is perceived and recognised. The opposing parties openly debate the issue, bringing together all relevant facts, until a decision is reached. Here, opposition and conflicting viewpoints are encouraged. Any issue related to the

conflict is dealt with in open terms until a solution agreeable to all is reached (Asaju, 2000).

2.21.8. Compromise strategy

This strategy of handling conflict has to do with one party seeking to establish a middle ground. Attempt is made to transform an original position and then moving to a position towards the middle. It may involve each party yielding, some of its original demands. This is basically a bargaining position (Asaju, 2000).

2.21.9. Locating a common enemy

When the conflicting groups realize that they have a common enemy, they will quickly resolve their differences to join forces against the common enemy. For instance conflict that erupted between Government and Agbekoya farmers in 1969, in Oyo State and Bakolori farmers in Sokoto State are simple examples of “locate your common enemies” conflicts in Nigeria (Asaju, 2000).

2.21.10. Problem solving strategy

In problem solving strategy of resolving conflict, the parties to a conflict, either by themselves or through the assistance of a third party find solutions to their crisis in a crucial environment. It is a non-judgmental and highly participatory in character (Albert 1999). It promotes cooperation between antagonists who jointly analyze the structure of the conflict and carefully work out strategies for reconciling with each other.

The essence of the problem-solving procedure according to Alber (1999) is that representatives of the parties in a dispute should meet in the presence of a small panel of disinterested consultants, professionally qualified in social sciences, in order to analyse and possibly also resolve their conflict in condition of total confidentiality. The parties

should be enabled by the panel to negotiate not by bargaining in the conventional manner, but by collaborating in the solution of their joint predicament through the discovery of accommodating affecting net advantages to all concerned. Their joint predicament is the problem to be solved (de Reck 1990).

Problem solving approaches empower the parties, meet their vital needs for identity and security, and lay foundation for a stable, cooperative relationship consistent with the welfare and development of each party. Hence it is regarded as the best approach to resolve conflict.

2.22. **Measurement of poverty**

In order to arrive at the poverty profile of a community or to quantify poverty and identify the poor, two basic requirements must be met. First, is the standard of living measure, to distinguish different individual households and communities from each other. Second, is a cut off point or poverty line that separate the poor from non-poor, society (Kanbur, 1990). Livelihood or living standard of individual household is measured using livelihood material scores. The mean scores of individual livelihood material possession items are then calculated. Consequently, two lines are set relative to the standard of living in the study area as used in Nigeria poverty assessment document of 1995.

A core poverty line is equivalent to one third of the mean scores per individual possession of livelihood materials. From the above household scores, people can be classified into one of the three mutually exclusive groups, separated by these poverty lines either as core poor, moderate poor and non poor (Yusufu, 2000).

Illustration drawn from the poverty situation in Nigeria is measured in quantitative terms, data from the Federal Office of statistics (FOS) reveals that in 1980 only 28.3 percent of the rural people were poor but by 1985 the percentage had moved to 51.4%. The proportion of the poor in rural areas declined to 46 percent in 1992 and there after increased to 69.6 percent in 1996. On the other hand the proportion of the urban residents that are in poverty grew from 17.2 percent in 1980 to 37.8 percent in 1995. It further fell slightly to 37.5 percent in 1992 and rose to 58.2 percent in 1996 (Mafimisebi, 2002).

Table 4: Poverty incidences by location (Rural/Urban)

Year	Urban			Rural		
	Non poor	Moderate poor	Are poor	Non poor	Moderate poor	Are poor
1980	82.8	14.2	3.0	71.7	2.8	6.5
1985	62.2	30.3	7.5	48.6	36.6	14.8
1992	62.2	26.8	10.7	54.0	30.2	15.8
1996	41.8	33.0	25.2	30.2	38.2	31.6

Source: Federal office of statistics poverty for Nigeria 1980-1996.

2.23 Media and conflict management

The primary role of the mass media in resolving conflict is to give truthful but not inflammatory reports. This requires that as practitioners they should be unbiased umpires or over-taken by interests that negate objectivity. Discussion programmes on radio and television are particularly useful when respected members of conflicting communities are invited as contributors.

There are also specific conflict resolution programmes in the mass media especially the broadcast media. Disputes can then be directed to those programmes that

involve elders in the society rather than legal officers. Some of these programmes are “so do bee” (is this fair way of doing things) on the Broadcasting Corporation of Oyo State (B. C. O. S.) and “Agborandun” (those who help others to solve problem) on Nigeria Television Authority (N. T. A.) Ibadan (Albert, 1995). Leaders of conflicting parties can be encouraged to appear on such programmes and make their cases and also abide by the judgment of the mediators.

2.23.1 The roles of the mass media in preventing conflict

Mass media prevents conflict through investigation of their stories and exercise restraint in reporting them. Volatile issues such as nomadic and crop farmers rifts, intra-ethnic and inter-ethnic relations, funding and non-payment of salaries of agricultural project, workers etc have been over-blown by the media. Due to the volatile nature of these issues, it often leads to destabilizing of the nation among others. Therefore, press responsibility requires that reports that are likely to lead to a break down of law and order be played down (Ibie, 2000). One way in which media could prevent conflict is selective focusing of stories on areas of instructing leaders on how to prevent conflict. For instance, local government chairperson can monitor news reports regularly or depend on his public relations officer for advice on issues requiring attention. Certain reports that are adjudged too sensitive are sometimes suppressed in the mass media in the over all interest of the council areas or state as a whole.

2.23.2. Mass media as conflict initiator or promoter

The history of the role of mass media in promoting or initiating conflict, can be traced to the first and second republic in Nigeria where ownership, interest and sectional interest rather than professional ethics dictated the tempo and colour of media input in

crisis situation. For instance, in the second republic, Daily Times was a tool of the central government; national concord was a tool of the ruling party and late chief M. K. O. Abiola. Tribune newspaper was a tool of the Unity Party of Nigeria. It was also observed that Tribune and Osun State Radio Corporation over-blew the Ife-Modakeke crisis (Ibie, 2000). In several cases, casualty figures were exaggerated and pictures that could have negative effects on the psyche of the populace were used (Ibie, 2000). The general tendency may be marginally harmonious but they point to the protection of interest in most of the cases. Therefore, in Nigeria the mass media could be accused of fueling conflict due to the pattern of coverage of religious and ethnic clashes. It is evidently manifested in coverage of conflicts in Northern Nigeria by the southern press, which could be described as biased and instigative.

2.24 The situation of farmers in communal conflicts in Nigeria

In Nigeria, internal boundary disputes and the rival interests of nomads and sedentary farmers often led to conflict. These bitter feuds explain the border crisis that has left behind relics of agony in Benue and Taraba States. For instance in the clash, between Tiv and Fulani, which involved the use of dane guns, bows and arrows among other lethal weapons seven person were feared dead (Tamuno, 1991). Also, agitation by groups of farmers or peasants in some other local government areas in the North and south of the Niger revealed sources of protest, unrest and violence at the grass roots. Two of these episodes are the Agbekoya farmers' clash in Oyo State and revolts by Bakolori farmers in Sokoto State. In both cases, mass demonstration at the village level posed serious problem to the police where their first attempt to use tear gas failed to

restore peace. Aggrieved villagers, in both cases, used whatever opportunity available to them to further amplify the crisis with the government. Details of sampled groups-violence conflict are discussed below.

2.24.1. **Agbekoya conflict in Oyo State**

Agbekoya conflict took place precisely between July 1st 1969 to mid October 1969. The origin of the grievances as expressed by their leader Tafa Adeoye revealed a wide range of issues. The remote causes of the conflict were related to agitation for better prices for cocoa, improvement of roads, abolition of district council where town-dwellers rather than farmers control as well as enjoy countrywide recognition (Tamuno 1991).

Apart from the fact that the conflict threatened security in the Federal Republic of Nigeria, in the clash, many policemen and farmers suffered several casualties. The aggrieved farmers armed with dane guns, machetes, and charms, established and maintained a reign of terror within the areas (Daily Sketch, 4th July 1969 in Tamuno 1991). However, peace returned to the area only after the intervention of Chief Awolowo who negotiated the end to the crisis with Tafa Adeoye (Tamuno 1991). The broad peace terms when communicated to the state military government, had official approval. The term included a reduction of the poll tax and abolition of market park fees. Also restriction of activities of town planning authorities to layouts outside the old town areas, raising the price of cocoa, removal of non-farmers from offices in the farmers union and election of practicing farmers into such offices were included in the term of agreement between farmers and the government.

More-over government further undertook to release all person arrested and detained. Those standing trial and convicted for various offenses were released except those charged with murder. Peace was restored through mediation.

2.24.2. **Bakolori farmers conflict in Sokoto state**

The communal conflict among the Bakolori farmers in Talata Mafara Local Government Area of Sokoto State started on 26 April 1980. It was slightly different from “Agbekoya” in Oyo state. Their agitation was less organised and short-lived in contrast with development among the Agbekoya (Tamuno, 1991).

The origin of the conflict was traced to attempt to achieve modernization through construction of a giant dam, which brought sudden difficulties to Bakolori peasant farmers. The construction of the Bakolori Dam as part of the irrigation project resulted in dislocation of thousands of farmers. Mobile police squads were drafted to intervene during protests, which left hundreds of displaced Bakolori farmers in search of compensation for lost settlement and farmlands in April 1980 (Abba, 1985).

Alhaji Hassan the village head of the village where much of the 1980 violence took place explained that hunger and desperation instigated the affected farmers to protest on the crisis that followed the limitations associated with the project. As the crisis escalated by the end of June 1980 not less than three hundred and eighty six people were killed. The crisis also resulted in looting of property while granaries, houses and vehicles were set ablaze (Yahaya, 2002). The remote causes of the crisis were traced to government and project officials underrating the peasant farmers as well as inadequate and fraudulent handling of compensation issues.

2.25 **Cosmological perception of land use and conflict**

Land is not only a matter of power and wealth, but is loaded with meaning. Land is sinequano to life; it is a bridge between livelihood and beyond, as people spend useful parts of their living on land till transition to grave for external preservation inside the land (Yahaya, 2005). Hence, the way by which people perceive land culturally may be instrumental to how disputes between agriculturalist and pastoralists as well as land resource explorers are handled.

Land fertility as a united factor to be considered in an attempt to understand how land use principles and practices are perceived and how it is culturally constructed in different context. For instance, for most crops farmers in Burkina Faso fertility is central idea of worship; because it is granted by supernatural powers e.g. the ancestors, the earth and the sky. The earth is female (the wife) whereas the sky is the male (the husband). Her husband through the rain fertilizes the earth. Both the earth and sky are venerated as supernatural powers and all fertility depends on them (Sten, 2000).

The fertility of livestock is central to many pastoralists. Ideally cows bring life and herds should therefore grow. Fertility of land is important but it is the fertility of cattle that matters culturally (Sten, 2000). If cattle start to die off, pastoralists will leave the place in consequence. Pastoralists have medicine (fura) for cattle against threats of fertility. Hence, there is a difference in cosmological perception between (Karahoro) farmers and (Fulbe) agro pastoralists. Therefore, it is very important to understand different perceptions of land use principles and practices in the study of dispute settlement. Agriculturalists and pastoralists tend to differ from each other both regarding principles and practices of land use. For instance, many disputes often occur around

water courses where farmers grow vegetables in dry season and herders water cattle there. If crop damage occurs and it does frequently, conflict occurred when vegetable farmers claim right to grow vegetable around the water water courses and the herdmen should stop destroying their corps. However, the herders will perceive this act as sabotage, indicating that their cattle need to be watered somewhere.

For instance the Chad Basin that is well known for its smoked fish which sold as far as Lagos had production decreased because of dispute amongst the fishermen and farmers (Williams, 1999). The causes of the conflicts are both natural and induced by man while the immediate causes may be attributed to the behavior and action of the core conflict parties.

2.26 Problems of land tenure system in Africa.

The assemblies of the famous issues related to land globally are organized around four basic problems: access to land, land tenure security, distribution of land holding and governance of tenure regime (Daudelin, 2003).

2.26.1 Access to land:

Access to land has a number of meanings. In it's most basic form, it points to the ability of the willing farmers or breeders to obtain land on which to plant and harvest or pasture on which to plant and harvest or pasture on which to graze their herds (Daudelin, 2003). Lack of access to land is a very common problem from relatively land rich countries with massive rural population as found in South Asia and lands in Brazil with relatively low population densities in rural areas (Legrand, 1998).

Demographic and natural factors play a role in hunting access in Bangladesh, but social and political dynamics are also very important. For instance in Colombia land was acquired in massive quantities by a minority of landlords to ensure adequate supply of labour for their states (Legrand, 1998). The problem of access is meaningless when it is worse than that of landlessness. Fragmentation ends up making access meaningless when a parcel become too tiny to sustain a family as obtained in Brundi where fragmentations often leave sons with barely enough space to build their house (Gatunage, 2002). Finally, access to land often create tension when the less privilege farmers, see the need to claim their right to use land.

2.26.2 Land tenure security:

Tenure security is critical for a number reasons. It has impact on investments, which are discouraged by insecurity; access to credit, which is facilitated by sound titles. Also, Incentives for resources conservation, which grow with security, as well as crop selection which are constrained by increased tenure (Delive, 2000). The security situation is difficult in poor transition countries such as Cambodia where the basis of traditional systems has been broken and new regimes are shaky (Daudelin, 2002).

Land tenure security is critical in Africa where the laws and customs, which have in the past assured that farmers land right are under pressure and the state which claim to replace them have failed. In such cases one would be entitled to speak of state sponsored formalization of land tenure. In many instances, it is the state actions that often create insecurity by instituting an inconsistent legal pluralism that enable some challenge customary systems by resorting to state authorities (Delive, 2000).

2.26.3. **Distribution of land holding:**

Unequal distribution land is the most traditional issues in the debate about land and violence (Seligson, 2000). This problem is central to discussion of land in America and also acute in Southern Africa particularly in Zimbabwe and South Africa. In these countries a small minority of people still control most of the land that is for agriculture (WWW.hrw.org/org./2002/zimbabwe/zimland0302-02htm). Problems of distribution are not confined to large countries with massive farms and small population. It also affected densely populated areas such as Chiapas, Elsalvador and Palestine. Therefore, attention is now focused on the impact of liberalization on the distribution of land between small and large land owners (Daudelin, 2003).

2.26.4. **State governance of tenure regime:**

Weak regime governance creates political opportunities for violent mobilization, poor implementation and rule enforcement as well as limited ability to resolve local conflict, all of which create significant tension. Land tenure is organized through a system of rules that constitutes a regime. These rules regard the functioning of the regime itself in selection of authorities, rule making procedure, as well as administration, enforcement and dispute resolution mechanism (Daudelin, 2003). The regime can be formal that is defined by a given state's legal arrangements or customary based on the rules that are inherent to a given community of people. Like any other legal political regime, the tenure regime can be fair or not, participative or not democratic.

Land tenure regime or customary systems are relied upon for conflict resolution increase where state institutions are either absent or too weak to effectively enforce their

rulings. Therefore, the key issue in land tenure regime is the effectiveness of the regime to enforce its rules. It is this effectiveness that is damaged by a weak state and overlapping rules and sub regime that leads to land tenure problems. This is the problem that is usually pointed to when pluralism is denounced (Daudelin, 2003).

2.27. **Resource control and conflict in Africa**

Africa possesses substantial reserves of some of the world's most important resources, oil, minerals, gem and timbers. These reserves have long acted as a magnet to foreign mining companies many of whom have recently stepped up their efforts to exploit the regions mineral wealth (<http://WWW.guardian.co.uk/westafrica>). For instance exports of minerals and germs are major source of revenue for countries such as Angola, Congo, South Africa, Zambia and a number of other African countries (Shasah, 2004).

Susane Rice, Assistant Secretary to Africa affairs in 1999 argued that the U.S. government saw itself as having "important strategic interest in Africa" as Africa is the source of over 16 percent of their nation's imported oil (<http://WWW.guardian.co.uk/congo>). These resources are critical for the unique roles in sustaining human life and economic activity. Such resources ignite full scale combat and precipitate conflict between ethnic and political functions that are already divided over a variety of issues.

Internal warfare over resources has proved to be one of the most prominent and disturbing features of the current global and Africa conflicts. In many cases, sought after resources is concentrated in an area that is occupied by ethnic or religious group that seek to increase its political power to break away from existing state. These conflicts are

portrayed as ethnic and sectarian conflict in the international media. The combatants stir up and exploit ethnic and religious animosities in order to obtain their desire to reap the financed benefits of resources exploitation that most often sustain the fighting. The numerous civil wars and conflicts in Africa are resource control oriented. Resources oriented conflicts in some of the countries are cited below:

2.27.1 **Angola conflict:**

In Angola the diamond trade generated as much as \$ 700 million per year and it is the only source of wealth to the countries. Shasha (2004) opined that ruthless and enterprising factions are prepared to provoke civil war or employ violence in the pursuit of the valuable resources. Hence, Angola conflicts provide a conspicuous and bloody example of resource war phenomenon. Fighting between the government and rebel Uniao Nacional para a Independencia Total de Angola (UNITA) forces lasted 5 years and claimed over one million lives and displaced millions of people (Conchigha, 1999).

The conflict began as an ideological conflict, with the government supported by Cuba and Soviet union and UNITA by the United States. The conflict between these groups was largely over control of the country's valuable oil and diamond
(<http://WWWivvnnewsorg./reportaspsouthicaselectcountry.angola>)

2.27.2 **Zimbabwe conflict:**

Zimbabwe conflict stems from unequal land distribution inherited by the government at independence. At the time, majority (41%) of Zimbabweans were crowded into communal areas of land while a few thousand white commercial farmers owned 39 percent of the land (<http://www.org of land crisis zibabwe htm>). Zimbabwe made progress in countering inequalities in land ownership. However, during 1990, the

land reform process was stalled and frustrated those waiting since 1980 to serve on agricultural viable land. Since February 2000 over 1600 farms have been affected with associated violence resulting in agonies and killing of many people (<http://WWW.org> of land crisis Zimbabwe htm).

2.27.3 Sudan conflict

Conflict in Sudan was attributed to the Sudanese governments forcefull eviction of thousands of people from oil rich areas of the country. As the oil companies rush in to develop infrastructure for their operations 48 villages were destroyed and 55,000 people displaced. Villages along an oil pipeline to the red sea were forcibly relocated (<http://WWW.Christian-and.org.uk>).

The government prevented people from moving near the oil. A Sudanese official John Bayak proclaimed that “we cannot see a single, hut, crops, livestock and homes all have been destroyed. The conflict is funded by petroleum dollars flowing into the country (<http://.www.Christianaid.org>. U.K).

2.27.4 Nigeria conflicts

Among the resource control based conflicts in Nigeria is the Niger Delta conflict. The conflict has been attributed to ecological and the recurrent environmental predicaments and irregularities in the administration of derivation formula and allocation of land rent on royalties to the state governors . Warri in Niger Delta area is enclosed with enormous water and petroliferous resources. The exploitation of petroleum and its processing, hinder and annihilate farm lands, water and marine life as well as economic trees, fishing and hunting.

The Ijaw, a major segment of Warri community collected their resentments regarding the alteration of their mode of life as stated “fishing the main source of our peoples livelihood is in jeopardy as both the fishing gears and aquatic lives have been destroyed (Akanin, 1999). The Niger Delta people believed that the minerals resources and petroleum are meant for the people not the nation. The reaction was reflected in their protest letter to the federal government “we can neither suffer like refugees in our own area, nor allow our resources to be destroyed by S.P.D.C that has been insensitive to our plight (Akanin, 1999). All these hardship made Niger Delta remind the central government in Nigeria of the agreement they reached before the exit of the colonial masters “that the federal government could use the crude oil fund in any part of the country for a period of 30 years after which the management of the oil wealth would be returned to land lords from which the oil was being produced for their developments, only for the territories to pay tax to the federal government (Ugbolue, 1998). Significant number of the current cases of inter- communal crises in Niger Delta have same bearing on the activities of the illegal oil bunkrers who exploit the occasion of communal agitations to perpetuate the economic crimes against the nation (Sunday Sun Dec, 2004).

2.28 Pre- requisite to design effective land reforms programme in Africa.

According to Tadess (2003), land reform is a generic term denoting a wide array of legal and policy – led structural changes including granting access to land, changing ownership patterns and rights of the state and its subsidiary agents . Logo and Bikie (2003) conceptualized land as property highly solicited by both the state and population. In some Africa countries the State possesses the land and it represents the spatial expression of the state’s power and sovereignty.

In recent past several countries in Africa have had adverse legislative reforms that attempted to ensure sustainability or fairness in various land reform programmes. The process has however, been characterized by a lack of consultation of all stakeholders, with very little information being made available to the public. Hence, stakeholder participation and information dissemination or communication systems become essential in formulation of land reform programmes.

2.28.1 Stakeholders participation in land reform

Stakeholder refers to all the different parties who have an interest in or stand to benefit or lose from the land reform process (Bhathagar & Williams, 1992). Although there are a number of stakeholders, only the economically or politically powerful stakeholders involved in the consultation and negotiations over land reform resettlement in Africa. Participation means different things to different people but most common theme of participation is that people have to be placed at the center of planning and decision making (National policy workshop, 1993).

People must not be viewed as objects of planning to be planned for but the subject of planning who should be involved in the process. Therefore, participation should be viewed as a process by which stakeholders especially disadvantaged people can exercise influences over policy formulation; design alternative investment choices, management and monitoring development interventions in their communities (International Institute of Environmental Development (ILED), 1989).

Rural peoples' participation should not be limited to participation; they must be represented at all levels of national decision-making and be in a position to call state representatives and other bodies. Also, it should include representatives at all levels,

from the village committees right up to parliament. This calls for a change in attitude and a more participatory approach to the land reform process, which can only be achieved through a willingness to accept contribution from the marginalised communities and acknowledgement of their inputs in the policy making process. There is also, the need to re-orient attitudes of technocrats from perceiving communities as passive dependents of government programmes to those who seek to enhance their own capacity to work with communities in a supportive way (FAO & UNDP,1998).

In conclusion, participatory development technique should not be viewed as a set of development, but rather as a state of mind reflecting a deep-rooted respect for the values and creativity of others. This cannot take place, without due recognition of the potential creativity of the poor and making them the subjects and not the objects of development. The need to involve beneficiary communities in planning as well as monitoring and evaluation need to be emphasized in formation of effective land reform programmes.

2.28.2 **Effective information dissemination and communication system.**

Information on land reform and settlement process is not easily available to make it open for further discussions and consultations (Land reform and resettlement program (LRRL2), 1999). The information on land reform flows tended to be confined to central government, farmers' organizations, international finance organization, the donor community and a few NGO's most especially in Zimbabwe. These organizations may be regarded as privileged to receive information. However, they are not able to communicate and share it with others (LRRP2, 1999). The problem of effective information dissemination is one of the major constraints to development in the rural

areas. This is largely because of the minimal access to both the print and electronic media. It is therefore imperative to develop complementary methods in order to reach rural population, which is not only far flung, but is usually too poor to offer both print and electronic media products (LRRP2, 1999).

The print media products like newspapers magazines, pamphlets etc have an obvious drawback because of the need for literacy and cost. The means of communication which provide most vital component for effective communication (feed back) are the following: Radio, oral medial extension agents, audience research, films and video (LRRP2, 1999).

2.28.2.1 **Radio programme**

Radio does not require literacy skills and can easily reach the most distant parts of the country. Radio programmes can be listened to in groups (listening clubs) and some community leaders can lead the discussions emanating from their clubs. The public sphere created by these two media should be that feed back must be received from the target groups and the general public so that the policy formulation and planning for land reform incorporates the wishes and aspirations of the people. These public fora will lead to greater participation by all stakeholders in the programme (LRRP2, 1999).

2.28.2.2. **Oral media**

Oral media is another low cost locally available technology. The oral media could reach people at different levels of society. It is a collectively owned network, which is well established in the indigenous culture produced and owned by the people (LRRP2, 1999). Examples of oralmedia are the social relations at such meeting points – hospitals shopping centers, religious meeting, women clubs, burial ceremonies and other forms of society gathering.

2.28.2.3 **Use of extension agents**

Governments of many countries in Africa have developed grassroots structures such as the videos and village assemblies as well as the village community workers who can be used effectively in the dissemination of information. They are very effective for disseminating information since they involve close-knit groups who usually respect and trust each other.

2.28.2.4 **Films and videos**

Films and videos are very powerful forms of visual media. Short film and video documentaries featuring local community members especially the resettled and target group for resettlement can be made and disseminated through the ministry of information. The idea is to have the films reflecting what the stakeholders wish to see packaged in the LRRP.

2.29. **Empirical data on impact of conflict on people's livelihood**

Conflict is not only destructive, but could be viewed as constructive process if treated well it will often leads to development, while destructive conflicts lead to underdevelopment. Conflict impact direction is determined by handling of conflict situation. Most of the conflicts in Africa and Nigeria in particular are handled negatively. Conflict impact is shown, in reduction in population, increase in malnutrition and displacement of the people. These will be discussed as follow:

2.29.1 **Effect of conflict on the population.**

Civilian adults and children constitute 90% of war victims (UNDP, 1998). In the conflict of the past decade two million children have been killed, four to five million disabled, twelve million made homeless, more than one million orphaned or separated

from their parents and ten million have been psychologically traumatized. In Liberia an estimated 3000,000 people died as a result of conflict. In Southern Sudan it was estimated that there were 220,000 excess deaths in 1993(FAO,2005). In Rwanda an estimated 5,800,000 people were killed within a period of three months in 1994 as a result of civil war and genocide (Joint Evaluation of Emergency Assistance to Rwanda, 1995).

2.29.2 Malnutrition in conflict situations

Many conflicts situations are characterised by wide spread malnutrition and death among vulnerable groups such as women, children and workers. In Liberia prior to the conflict, acute malnutrition was reported to be 16%, but since the start of the conflict in December 1989, malnutrition levels of 10-50% have been reported (FAO, 2005). The increase in malnutrition followed periodic upsurges in the scale of conflict and displacement of a large segments of the population. Similar trend in nutritional status were experience in Sudan and Somalia

2.29.3 Conflict Situation and displacement of people

Widespread displacement is the major effect of conflict, causing large population groups to become vulnerable to both diseases, malnutrition as well as social disruption. In Liberia it is estimated that at one time or another, 80% of population has been displaced (FAO, 2005). In Afghanistan approximately 3 million people are refugees or displaced out of a total population of 17 million in 1995. In Nigeria, during the conflict between Biron and the immigrant ethnic Hausa farming communities in Plateau State, an estimated five thousand people were killed while 120 people were seriously injured.

Also in an interstate border clashes between the Northern communities of Enugu State and Agola people of Benue State, the conflict led to the displacement of about 300,000 people (NNOZI, 2003). In Benue state the Mbangwaza and Utange communities in Ushogo Council area engaged one another in bloody conflict. It is estimated that in Utang alone two compounds were razed and 10,000 people were displaced to neighbouring town of Kasina, Asa and Adukpo.

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CHAPTER THREE

3.0 CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

3.1 Theoretical frame - work

This study draws theoretically from the fields of Psychology, Economics, Political Science, Sociology as well as Peace and conflict. Therefore, there are various theories or ideologies that could be used to explain the farmers' livelihood in conflict and non conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states, Nigeria. Some of the theories in these circumstances are explained in this order:

- i. Devil's theory;
- ii. Integrated theory;
- iii. Economic theory of production;
- iv. Social Economic Rank Disequilibrium;
- v. Conflict reconciliation models;
- vi. Conflict impact assessment analysis model;
- Vii Theories of Rebellion;

3.2 Devil's theory

In the devil's theory postulated by Ugwuegbu (1995) posits that conflict erupts because of a bad man. The second explanation of the theory suggests that conflict occurs because of the activities of greedy men who engage in the exploitation of the wealth of the nation (Ugwuegbu, 1995). For instance, the conflict in Liberia is personified in both Samuel Doe and Charles Taylor who are perceived as troublemakers or bad men.

Likewise, political disturbance in Nigeria that led to the annulment of the June 12, 1993, election presumed to have been won by Basorun M. K. O. Abiola was attributed to the intention of the military regime not to hand-over power to a democratically elected president.

The devil's theory of conflict focuses on a specific individual as the cause of rift or crisis in the society. In the case of Ife-Modakeke and Tiv-Jukun crisis, many people were accused of fueling the conflicts. Among them are the monarchs, the philanthropist and the youth, in the affected communities. Tenant farmers on the other hand, also accuse landowners of being the devils behind the conflicts. At the same time, landowners also accuse the tenants as the devils behind the conflicts. Hence, these conflicts were characterized by counter accusations.

3.3. **Integrated theory**

Russel propounded the theory in 1994. It involves integration of effective or angry aggression into a simple diagram as shown in Fig. 3.1. The diagram begins with provocative situation and ends with an overt act of aggression, accompanied by anger. When a person encounters a provocative situation, the initial response is that the person feels sad (Russel, 1994). Hence, two basic options available to the person are fight or flight.

In the flight paradigm, negative effect activates other associated units such as hostile attitudes, angry emotions and aggressive motor tendencies. The integration of effective or angry aggression as shown in figure 3 allows conclusion to be drawn that,

highly aggressive personalities or individuals have large well-articulated, well-connected networks of the stated associations.

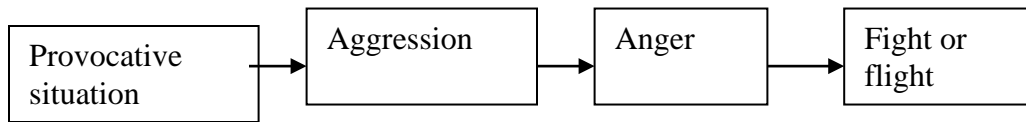


Fig 3.

Russel .G.(1994) Science week end cited in B. Azar: The American Psychological Association Monitor 27 (10), 30pp- 32.

These are the likely prevailing psychological feelings and tensions within individuals in the two states as the conflicts lasted.

3.4. **Economic theory of production**

Production theory presents technical relationships between inputs and outputs in any production process (Olayide, 1982). The theory establishes the rate of returns when inputs are used and other factors are assumed to be constant. For instance, increase in returns occur when each additional input of production resources result in a large increase in production. For instance, application of fertilizers to crops boost production level of crops.

The principle of production operates, only when other factors of production apart from inputs are in favour of production. In situation where negative conflict occurs within the community, production level would be adversely affected despite the availability of production factors. Thus, conflict within the community, be it between tenants and land owners, or between boss and subordinates, may decrease or increase production level based on the conflict handling style adopted.

In situations where conflict is handled negatively, it reduces production because time, energy, material and human resources will be diverted to fighting (Ugwuegbu,

1999). Hence, peaceful or harmonious condition is paramount to production in either or both industrial or non-industrial enterprises.

3.5. Growth cycle model

The growth cycle model indicates a situation where a typical society has been broken out of the vicious cycle of poverty. It also shows the society set a course towards the achievement or development, which eventually leads to improvement in the living standard of the people in the society. The model explains how higher investment leads to capital improvement and how this in turn leads to increase in productivity. Increase in productivity often leads to higher money income, that is enough to encourage both higher savings and higher demand. The model was propounded by Pye's (1977) cited in Oyeyinka (2002) as it is illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 4.

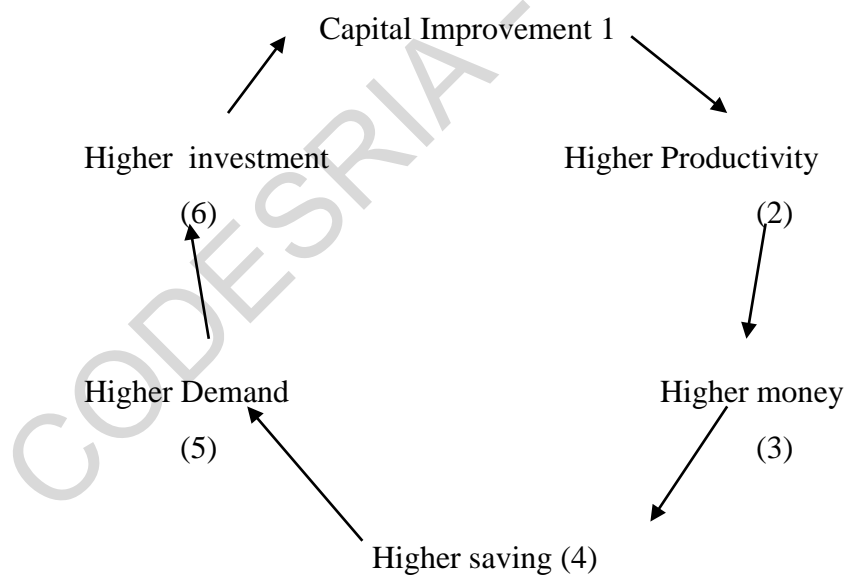


Fig. 4: **The Growth Cycle**

Source: Pye Laced, (1977). *Agricultural Extension and Development Communication 1, Readings*, Department of Development Communication U. P. Los Banos Philippines pp. 36-37.

The theory stated that a farmer with higher savings would be able to diversify his investment, thereby increase his demand for social amenities, from money accruing from the investment diversification. Yusuf (2000) observed that in Nigeria there was a gradual increase in the production of cocoa and grains from 1986 -1990. This increase was attributed to farmers capital improvement which eventually enabled farmers to purchase some items, or goods essential for the house holds in Ile-Ife and Modakeke and Wukari and other communities in Osun and Taraba states respectively. However, this may easily be disconnected in conflict situations with disruption of conducive environment for production and business transaction, but lives and properties could be affected too (Akanni, 2000). Thus, it hinders business transaction as shown in fig 4.

3.6 Social and economic rank disequilibrium

The concept of social and economic rank disequilibrium is a precursor of social and economic change in the society (Galtung, 1980). The theory stratifies rural community into groups and classes. Such groups and classes are then ranked on three scales, representing economic, political and social status.

Relative status or rank of a group or individual will be the same on all three scales or it may differ from one scale to another. A group that does not have the same rank on all the three scales is considered to be in rank disequilibrium. An attempt of the group to achieve rank equilibrium often results into conflict in the society.

Social mobilization often result into conflict in societies running close system of government because there will be no upward or downward movement between and

within the classes created. There is a clear indication of this model, in Ife-Modakeke conflicts in Osun state and Tiv-Jukun conflicts in Taraba state.

For instance, Albert (1999) attributed the root causes of Ife-Modakeke conflict to discrimination against tenants (Modakeke farmers) by the land owners (Ife farmers) and the desire of Modakeke farmers to be recognized as land owners, a call that Ife people refused to honour in the years past.

3.7 **Groups think model**

The model is built on the formation of “in group” pressure within the society. Building of in-group pressure stemmed from a tendency for highly cohesive groups to seek concurrence, most especially groups subjected to condition of stress (Janis, 1982). Group cohesiveness is defined as high degree of amiability and “esprit de corps” among group members.

The tribal ethnic and dialectic groups in the society base their foundation on the in-group pressure. Ademuyiwa (1999) noted that some of the social problems such as ethnicity and ethnic cleavages are the root causes of conflict in Nigeria. Albert (1998) also observed that each of the three main ethnic groups in Nigeria feared the domination of one another and this is the root cause of communal clashes in Nigeria.

An ethnic group has been interpreted to connote social collectivity with members having common language, culture, religion, ancestral, myths and political organisation with implicit understanding of common descent or identity (Suberu, 1996).

It is obvious from the contention of Suberu that subjective perception of ethnic groups, rooted in their shared origin, becomes heightened in contest involving two or

more ethnic groups. Amuwo (1998) cited the reaction of three nationalists as clear evidences of ethnic rivalry as follows: Dr. Nnamdi Azikwe once remarked that:

It would appear that the God of Africa has created the Ibo nation to lead the children of Africa from the bondage of the ages. The Ibo nation cannot shirk its responsibility from its manifest destiny (West African Pilot 1948 cited in Amuwo, 1998).

The above remark elicited a counter reaction from chief Obafemi Awolowo:

It seemed clear to me that Azikwe's policy was to corrode the self respect of the Yoruba people as a group: to build up the Ibos as a master race (Amuwo, 1998).

Mallam Tafawa Balewa equally registered his dissenting voice regarding Azikwe's statement as follows:

It is therefore natural for the people of the north though greater than south in numerical strength, to fear domination (Amuwo, 1998).

These statements are evidences of how ethnicity has undermined Nigerian federation from its very foundation.

3.8. Theory of rebellion

Rebellion is an act of armed resistance to an established government and rebel is a person who refuses to conform with conventional or rise up against authorities (Robert, 2000). Collier (2000) opined that civil war or conflict occur as a result of rebellion. He identified some peculiar characters of a rebel organisation as follows:

- Rebellion can fight over a prolonged period against organized force which aims to kill them.
- They generate income even if they are not productive
- Rebel organisations usually have between 500 and 5000 workers.

The theory discussed two motivational models for rebellion as explained in the greed and grievance models. These models are briefly discussed below:

3.8.1 Greed rebellion

Greed rebellion is a distinctive type of organized crime. It is distinctive from other crime, in the scale of organized violence because the object of extortion is not a street of shopkeepers but the export of primary produce (Collier, 2000). Many rebellions are linked to the capture of resources such as diamonds in Angola and Sierra Leone, drugs in Colombia and timber in Cambodia. The primary commodity exports are sustainable targets for predation because their production is intensive, irreversible and produce must be transported once, they are exposed to predation at many geographic points.

Kuran (1989) as cited in Collier (2000) found that government forces are not simply trying to impeded rebels from predation, but trying to kill them. Hence, if the rebels force is too small when it attacks the choke points, the government force which it encounters will turn from defense to attack. The theory of greed conflict explains extreme or excessive desire for symbols of wealth by the rebel organization and how government either force, prevent or eliminate the rebels in an attempt to protect the symbol of wealth that belong to all citizens as the basis for civil war and armed conflict in Africa and the world in general.

3.8.2 **Grievance rebellion**

Grievance rebellion objective is not predation but rather to assuage grievance (Collier, 2000). Grievance rebellion could be classified into three groups: Inter-ethnic group hatred, political exclusion, and vengeance.

3.8.2.1 **Inter-ethnic group hatred**

Inter-Ethnic or inter religious Hatreds are the most common popular explanation for civil conflict, example of such conflict reflected in Bosnian and Palestine (Collier, 2000). There is indeed evidence that hatreds are the cause of such conflicts. Since many conflicts are inter-ethnic or inter-religious. In the society, hatreds are usually not directly observed they can occur in societies which are multi-ethnic or multi-religious.

Inter-group hatred can be monotonic in the extent of social fractionalisation or the relationship could be a quadratic. For instance societies with two groups may have incidence of inter-group hatred than societies with many groups.

3.8.2.2 **Political exclusion**

Collier (2000) opined that there is a relationship between conflict and political rights of a society as the latter range from dictatorial repression to full representative democracy. Econometric studies found that other than repression is very severe, it tends to increase the rise of conflict (Gieditch and Hegre, 1997). Hence, grievance due to political repression is postulated to be a function of the general level of political rights of the ethnic composition of the society and degree of inequality.

3.8.2.3 **Revenge**

Here rebellion is motivated by the desire to revenge atrocities committed during the previous conflict. Collier (2000) assumed that the longer the period since previous

conflict the less strong might be the demand for grievance assuagement for such atrocities.

3.9 **Reconciliation model**

Reconciliation represents a place or the point of encounter where concerns about the past and future can meet (Lederach, 1997). Reconciliation as an encounter indicates, that space for acknowledging the past and envisioning the future. It is the necessary ingredient for improving the present. In other to accomplish this, people must find ways to encounter themselves and their enemies, their hopes and their fears.

In more specific terms, reconciliation deals with three specific paradoxes. First, reconciliation promotes an encounter between the open expression of painful past, on one hand and search for the articulation of long term, interdependent future on the other hand (Laderach, 1997). Secondly, it provides a place for the truth and mercy to meet where concerns for exposing what has happened and substitution with a regeneration of renewed relationship by all. Thirdly, reconciliation recognizes the need to give time and place to both justice and peace where redressing the wrong is held together with the envisioning of common connected future (Ledrach, 1997 cited in USAID/OTI, 2000).

In essences the model focused on building relationship between antagonists. The relational dimension involves the emotional and psychological aspects of the conflict and the need to recognize past grievances and explore future interdependence. Also, the locus of the model create a space for encounter by the parties, a place where the diverse but connected energies and concerns driving the conflict can meet, including the paradoxes of Truth and Mercy, Justice and Peace. Reconciliation as a concept and a

praxis endeavours to reframe the conflict so that the conflicting parties are no longer preoccupied with focusing on the issues in a direct as cognitive manner. Its primary goal and key contribution is to seek innovative ways to create a time and a place, within various levels of affected population, to address, integrate, and embrace the painful past and if necessary share the future as a means of dealing with the present (Kenwin, and David 1987).

Application of this model to resolve ethnic or tribal conflict or dialectic conflict will go a long way to bring sustainable peace in the community than adoption of the confrontational style. Hence, Ife-Modakeke conflict could be resolved using this model in organizing workshops, seminars for leaders and youths in the two communities.

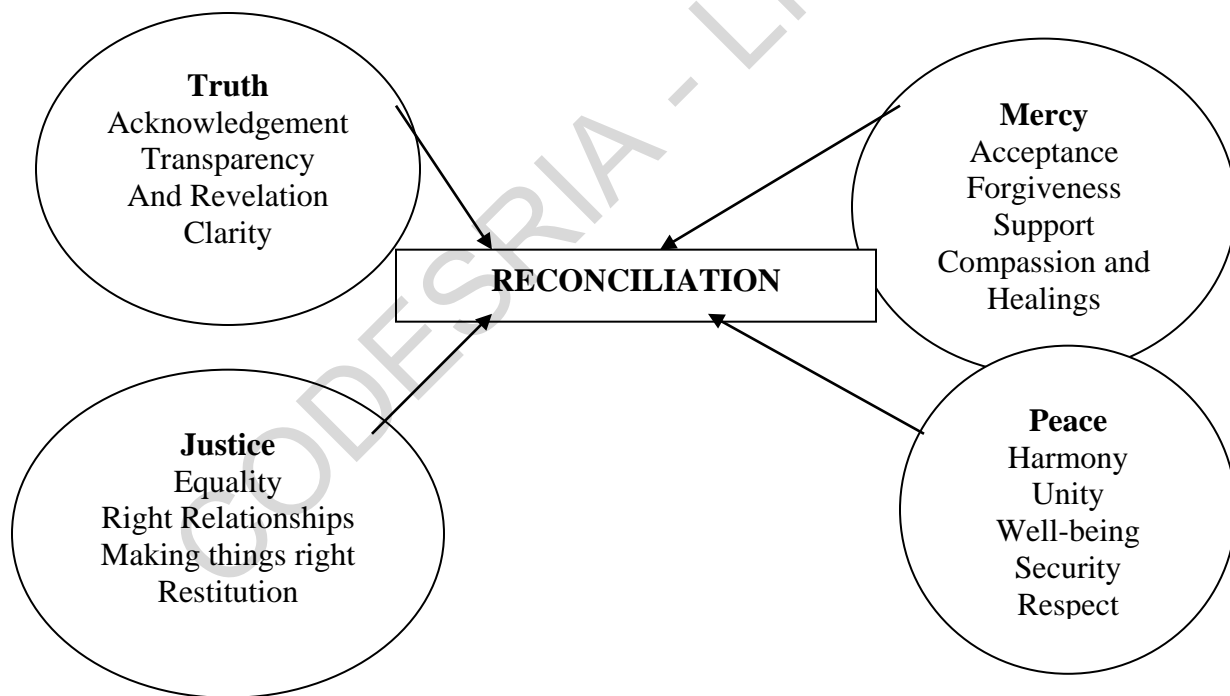


Figure 5: Reconciliation Locus

Source: Laderach, J.P. (1997). Building Peace Sustainable Reconciliation in Divided Societies. Washington D.C.

3.10 Conflict impact assessment analysis model

Conflict analysis starts with detail analysis of the conflict in order to gain a thorough understanding of the conflict actors, conflict causes and issues and also of the coping strategies adopted by the local population (Chandrasekara, 2005). It is necessary in order to establish meaningful indicators for quantitative observations of conflict. Conflict impact assessment study is an important step to understand the conflict risks as well as peace potentials of different development interventions. Hence, conflict analysis is the systematic study of the structures, actors and dynamics of conflict (Chandrasekara, 2005). There are two newly developed tools for conflict impact analysis: triangular technique and stakeholders analysis. Triangular technique called ABC has developed to identify conflict potential associated with projects. The analysis is based on the premise that conflict has three major components: the contest or situation, the behaviour of those involved and their attitudes (Fisher Simon 2000). These three associates influence each other. For example a context that ignore the demand of a group could lead to an attitude of frustration which may result in violent therefore, ABC conflict analysis is very useful to compare perception between groups that are in conflict situation with each other.

Stakeholder analysis reveals the interest positions and the relationship of the group involved in or affected by the conflict. It provides important background information of primary, secondary and external stakeholders. Primary stakeholders are the party engaged in the conflict refers to as core conflict area in the study. The groups that are particularly significant from the development policy point of view are those whose lives are directly affected by the conflict. Secondary stakeholders groups play the role of intermediaries and have various means of influencing the course of the conflict.

External stakeholders are groups that are not involved directly in the conflict but do have certain interest. The stakeholder analysis enables us to know about the relationships between the different groups that are involved in conflict and how it could be resolved.

In another perspective, assessment is viewed as valuation of the livelihood lost items during the conflict in order to establish similarity and differences in possession of essential livelihood items in conflict and non-conflict areas. The difference or similarities in farmers' possession of livelihood items in conflict and non-conflict areas establish the impact of the conflict in core conflict area. Therefore, Impact is defined as the ultimate change in the living standard of beneficiaries resulting either wholly or partially from a specific project/programme. Such changes may include: increased income, improved nutritional status, increased literacy rates, wider participation of target group in development planning, decision making and increased capacity for self reliance and self sustained development of beneficiary groups (World Bank, 1984). It is an expression of the result actually provided, usually at the level of broader long-range objectives.

Impact assessment of project or events induced changes in target groups and other socio-income groups on the basis of "before and after" with or without. In the case of before or after, the base line or benchmark before project implementation is established. This is followed by assessing changes anticipated and unanticipated changes induced by the project on completion. At full "development" with and without selecting a "control area", and "control group: comparable to the project area or groups and making before and after comparisons for occurring in both areas/groups (World Bank, 1984).

Whatever method is employed in analyzing an impact assessment study, it is worthwhile to consider critical steps involved: enquire whether socio-economic conditions/income changes in levels of living standard of target groups in relation to significance in ways as a result of project altitudes, defined direction of change (whether it is positive or negative) and a measure of the extent of change (World Bank, 1984).

3.11 **Conceptual framework for this study**

It has been discovered that none of the above stated models can be used independently to determine the impact of conflict on farmers' livelihood of Osun and Taraba States. Therefore synthesis of all theories mentioned in this study leads to farmers livelihood framework in conflict and nonconflict areas of Osun and Taraba states so that findings from this study get substantial evidences.

Since the individual farmers interact with one another socially or culturally and even economically, factors such as personal characteristics and intervening factors affect the degree of conflict and its impact on farmers' livelihood among others. Thus assessment of farmers' livelihood in conflict and non conflict areas is a result of the amalgamation of the above theories.

Fig 6. A Conceptual Frame Work for the analysis of the impact of conflict on farmers livelihood in Taraba and Osun States, Nigeria.

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3.11.1 **Elements of the conceptual framework.**

The elements that make the model functional include the following:

3.11.2 **Independent variables**

The independent variables of this framework consist of the farmers' characteristics. These characteristics are: farmers' age, sex, marital status, religion and household size, while educational level, membership of social groups, cosmopolitanism and farm size are social characteristics of farmers. In addition, other independent variables include: people's needs or "drive", blockade of motivational, behaviour, conflict or frustration signal and conflict handling styles, tagged conflict process and action in the community.

3.12.3 **Intervening Variables**

Many variables can either aid or impede reaction of individual or groups in conflict situations. Such variables are referred to as intervening variables. These are the intermediate variables between farmers' characteristics, conflict process and action, and conflict impact on farmers' livelihood and its outcomes. The variables considered as intervening variables in this study are: government influence, philanthropist action, and non-governmental organizations 'reaction and politicians' influences. These are unpredictable actions of agencies that could positively or negatively contribute to conflict.

3.11.4 **Dependent variables**

The dependent variable in this study is the farmers' livelihood status after conflict. In this context, farmers' livelihood status was operationalized to cover production level attained and possession of livelihood materials by farmers. The

livelihood outcome analysis reveals the degree of poverty categories to which farmers belong after the conflict. Such outcome could be either be poor or better off or both as in the framework(Fig 6).

3.12 **How the model works**

The model functions in accordance with the potency of each component. A block arrows in this framework indicates a feed forward mechanism, which depends on a continuous interaction between farmers' conflict handling styles and its impact on their livelihood. The framework is built around needs or drive, which help an individual or group to attain the set goal. In case the path of attaining the goal is blocked, it will leads to ultimate failure. Repeated failure in attaining the goal will further aggravate the situation leading to frustration, conflicts and stresses (Mangal, 2002).

The personal and social characteristics of farmers influence their reaction to "needs" or drives" which generate motivational behaviour. Several blockade of motivational behaviour will generate individual or group aggression. However, if such individual or group perceived aggressive action as the solution to achieve their blockade goal; negative conflict style may be adopted. Ugwuegbu (1995) found that people always believe that it is to their benefit for violence and conflict to occur. Hence, farmers' livelihood outcomes could be predicted based on conflict handling styles adopted.

For instance a farmer may have a high need to expand farmland, or desire for chieftaincy title. This framework predicts that such a farmer will either adopt positive or negative style of handling conflict in case his motivational behaviour is blocked. Therefore, the choice of conflict handling style determines conflict impact on farmers'

livelihood variables. The implication of this analogy is that a farmer who approaches his motivational behaviour blockade positively through adoption of negotiation, mediation and collaboration styles may not experience conflict hazards. While those who adopt negative style of handling conflict, to motivational behaviour blockade may feel the adverse effect of the conflict on their production and material possession. That is, the conflict impact on a farmer's production level may be poor, while material possession may be low after the conflict. Hence, the poverty position of a farmer may fall into core poor, moderately poor or non poor, based on his level of involvement in the conflict and degree of impact of the violence on his live as a whole.

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CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 METHODOLOGY

4.1 Area Of the study

The study was carried out in Osun and Taraba states. The basic features consider relevant to this study are provided for the two states as follow:

4.1.1 Osun state area

Brief history: Osun State was created on August 27, 1991. It was carved out of the old Oyo State with it's capital in Ibadan which intherto consisted of Osun and Ilesha provinces. The state is made up of 30 local government areas and its capital is located in Osogbo where administrative headquarter is sited.

Location: Osun state lies roughly between latitude 8.40 and 12.20 north and longitude 7.50 and 10.27 east. It is bounded on the North by Kwara state, South by Ogun state and in the East by Ondo state and in the West by Oyo state.

Population: Based on the figures obtained from the 199i census provided by the National Population Commission (NPC), Osun state has a provisional population figure of 2.22million people made up of 1,079million males and 1.23 females.

Ethnic groupings: Osun state is populated mainly by Yoruba's united by a general language. Within the population there are groups associated with particular dialects – version of Yoruba language: Osun, Ifes, Ijesha and Igbominas. There are people from other parts of the country in the villages and in the town. Being parts of the Cocoa belt, Osun state has been a major destination for migrant farmers from other parts of Nigeria. Some of them work as hired labourers in cocoa farms while others settle down as migrant tenant farmers.

Climate: The climate is of low land tropical land forest with distinct wet and dry seasons and annual rainfall mean above 2000mm. The raining season commences in April and May and dry season extends from October to March which is marked by the hot dry harmattan wind.

Occupation: The major occupation of the population is farming both of export and food crops. The land tenure system is predominantly the original communal system which gave way to individual tenure. Hence, migrant tenant farmers are able to secure land on which they grow annual food crops and perennial crops such as Cocoa and Kolanut. The state is second to Ondo in terms of Cocoa production. Farmers in the state benefited from the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) that result in the cocoa boom of 1986 – 1990 when prices of cocoa shot up astronomically.

Vegetation: The state is covered by secondary forest in the South and in the Northern part by forest savannah mosaic predominates, while towards the Southern part the commonest is the wood savannah. Human interference by way of Cocoa plantation has replaced the forest. Hence, natural tree species had give way to Oil palm Cocoa and Kolanut.

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Map of osun

4.1.2 Taraba state

Brief history: Taraba state is identified as “Natural gift to the Nation”. It was created on 27th August 1991. It was carved out of the defunct Gongola state. Its administrative headquarter is sited in Jalingo. Taraba is made up of sixteen local government as indicated in figure.8

Location: Taraba state his roughly between latitude 6.30 and 9.36 North and longitude 9.10 and 11.50 east. It is bounded on the North East by Adamawa and Gombe states and on the West and South East by Plateau and Benue states respectively. On its eastern border lies the Republic of Cameroon.

Population: Based on the release of 1991 population figures by the National Population, Commission, Taraba state has a provisional population figure of one million four hundred and eighty thousand and ninety (1,480,590).

Ethnic groupings: Taraba state is heterogeneous in ethnic composition with rich, diverse, historical and dialects etc. Hausa is mainly spoken through out the state. Major ethnic groups include Fulani’, Mumuye, Jukun, Jengo. Kutes, chamber and Mambilla, each forming Mosaic in at least local government area.

Occupation: The major occupation’s of the people of Taraba state include agriculture and other primary activities like fishing, pottery cloth-weaving, dying mat making, wood carving, embroidery and black smiting.

Climate: Taraba state has a wet and dry climate. The wet season lasts on the average from April to October. Mean annual rainfall varies between 1058mm in the North around Jalingo and Zing to over 1300mm in the South around Serti and Takun.

The driest months are December and January, with relative humidity dropping to about 15 percent (Abbas 1993). The minimum temperature ranges between 15°C and 33°C.

Vegetation: The vegetation in Taraba state may be classified into three broad types the northern guinea the southern guinea and mountaingrassland

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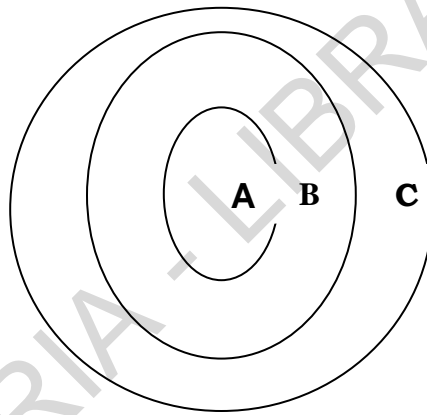
Taraba State Area Map

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4.2. The study population

The target population of the study is all farmers in the conflict zones and surrounding localities as shown in Fig.9. Farmers were selected from a list of farmers compiled by Agricultural Development Programmes in each village that comprise up the core, peripheral, and outside conflict areas in the respective ecological zones of each state.

Figure 9: Stratification of state in conflict areas



- A - **Core conflict area:** Area where anecdotal account of conflict is obvious
- B - **Peripheral conflict area:** Area that is 15-20km to core conflict area and conflict effect on farmers livelihood is not as severe as may be witnessed or experienced in the core conflict areas.
- C - **Outside conflict area:** Area where farmers only hear news of conflict never experience violent conflict and about 20-30km from peripheral conflict area.

4.3 Sampling procedure and sample size

Based on conflict severity or anecdotal account of conflict, villages in each state were stratified into core, peripheral and outside conflict villages. In core conflict villages, violent conflict resulted to destruction of lives and properties. Peripheral villages are 10-15km to core conflict villages, and evidence of anecdotal account of conflict is not obvious. However, they provide accommodation for farmers that migrated from core conflict areas. Outside conflict villages is about 21-32km to core conflict area, hence, because of the distance; these villages did not suffer the effect of the conflict.

In core conflict area of Osun state, out of 54 villages 31 had violent conflict while out of 62 villages in Taraba state core conflict area, 37 villages had violent conflict. Peripheral conflict area has 72 villages in Osun State and 81 villages in Taraba state while outside conflict area in Osun state have 63 and Taraba state 64 villages. (ADPs Villages register, 2002). Village register of ADP (2002) revealed that 6,120 and 7,101 farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively were in core conflict villages while 9252 farmers and 11,295 farmers were in Osun and Taraba states respectively are in peripheral conflict areas, 10,352 farmers were in outside conflict area of Osun state and 13,145 farmers in outside conflict area of Taraba state.

Base on intensity of damages of properties recorded in each village, 5 and 6 villages were purposively selected in core conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states respectively. Proximity to core conflict area was used to select 7 and 8 villages in peripheral conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states respectively while proximity and random sampling technique were used to select 7 villages in Osun and Taraba states'

outside conflict areas. The selected villages consist of 2,150 and 1,965 farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively. The Table below indicates farmer's population in each stratum.

Table 5: **Population farmers in each stratum.**

State	Farmers Population in Osun	Farmers Population in Taraba	Selected farmers	
			Osun	Taraba
Core conflict	6120	6121	61	61
Peripheral conflict	766	678	76	67
Outside conflict	770	675	77	67

Source: Village listing register of Osun and Taraba states ADPs 2002

Simple random sampling technique was used to select 10% of farmers from the stratum. Hence, 61 farmers were selected in Osun state, and 61 farmers were selected in Taraba state, core conflict areas. Seventy-six and 67 farmers were selected in Osun and Taraba states peripheral conflict areas respectively, while 77 and 67 farmers were selected in outside conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states respectively. However, only 197 and 188 farmers' questionnaires from Osun and Taraba states respectively were available for data analysis.

4.4. Sources of data

The data collection for this study started from September 2002 and was completed in Feb 2003. The states were stratified into core, peripheral, and outside conflict areas based on proximity to the conflicting areas. Primary data were obtained

from each village that constitutes the location of zones. Secondary data were obtained through personal communication with several officers of the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources of the two states. Monarchs and chiefs were orally interviewed while relevant Ministries and Agencies files, records and reports were consulted.

Structural questionnaires were used in obtaining information from farmers in the three locations in Osun and Taraba states. The questionnaire elicited information on their personal and social characteristics and other variables specified in the objectives of the study. The questionnaire was used to obtain information from the farmers with the help of trained enumerators under close supervision. Secondary data were obtained from books, agricultural ministries and files of parastatals and personal visits.

4.5. **Test for reliability and validity**

The pre-test of the instrument was done among a sample of 30 farmers in Irawo Saki zone of Oyo state. Irawo was chosen because it has conflicting parties within the community with similar conflict characteristics with Osun and Taraba states. This was done in order to remove all ambiguities that may arise in items and restructuring it where necessary. To ensure that the data obtained from the instruments are reliable and consistent, an analysis of internal consistency of the instrument was carried out.

The questionnaire was coded and analysed to ascertain its internal consistency. This was done using Kuder Richardson formula (KR – 20), which resulted in a correlation coefficient of $r = 0.75$ for the entire instrument.

Content and construct validity were conducted on the instrument. This ensured that all the behavioural constructs covered by the measurement match those specified in

the stated objectives. The instrument was subjected to “the validity” involving experts in agricultural extension, agricultural economics, sociology, educational measurement, psychology, and rural sociology.

4.6 Measurement of variables

Scores were assigned to the items/variables using sigma scoring technique.

4.6.1 Independent variables

Independent variables of the study include personal and social characteristics of respondents such as age, sex, marital status, religion educational attainment, cosmopolitaness, household size , farm size land ownership status farmers involvement level in the conflict, membership of social groups, migration pattern , causes of conflict rehabilitation strategies ,solutions to the conflict .

1. Age:

Respondents were asked to state their actual age. After which various ranges of ages, were established as follow:

20 – 29 years

30 – 39 years

40 – 49 years

50 – 59 years

60 – 69 years

71 – 90 years

And were further classified into young, middle age and old as follows:

1- 30years = young 31 - 50years = Middle Ages

50 years and above =older farmers

2. **Sex:**

Respondents were asked to indicate their sex

Male

Female

3. **Marital status:**

Respondents indicated their marital status from the following:

a. Single

b. Married

c. Divorced

d. Widowed.

4 **Religion:**

Respondents indicated their religion from the following:

Christianity

Islam

Traditional

Others

5 **House hold size:**

Respondents were requested to state the actual number of persons in their households:

Wives

Children

Other Dependents.

6 Educational attainment:

Respondents were asked to identify the highest educational level attained from the following:

No formal education

Adult literacy

Primary education

Post primary school

Tertiary education.

Farmers were further classified into

Literate farmers – farmers with formal

Non literate farmers - farmers without formal education

7 Cosmopolitaness:

Respondents were asked to state the number of times they may have traveled out of their villages and were scored using the following rating scale.

Regularly =3, Sometimes = 2, Rarely = 1

8 Land ownership status:

Respondents indicated their land ownership status from these categories:

Own personal land

Land tenant

Family land

Purchase

Gift

Least.

9 **Farm size:**

Farmers were asked to indicate available farm size in the areas of tree and food crops production and scores were assigned to each category as follow:

1-5 acres = 1 point

6-10 acres = 2 points

11- 15 acres = 3 points

10. **Involvement level in the conflict**

Respondents were requested to indicate their level of involvement in the conflicts.

Ten validated roles played by farmers were itemized as follow:

Table 5: **Roles played by the farmer in the conflict.**

	Statements	Active	Seldom	Never
A	Donation of money			
B	Supply of food			
C	Purchase of Ammunition			
D	Use of ammunition			
E	Remove of bullets from war victims body locally			
F	Preparation of confusions			
G	Transportation of warriors			
H	Co-ordination of activities			
I	Report of war situation			
J	Attendance of reconciliation meeting			
K	Others specify			

Respondents were asked to rate each items based on individual's degree of involvement and were scored as follow:

Active = 3 points

Seldom = 2 points

Never = 1 point

Based on the 10 roles and a 3 points rating scale, each respondent could therefore score a minimum of 10 points and maximum of 30 points. Farmers are grouped into 2 groups actively involved and not involved based on their level of involvement scores.

11 **Membership of social groups**

Farmers' degree of participation in social groups such as age groups, town union, village society, social clubs. Scores were assigned to each category as follow:

Regularly = 3 points

Occasionally = 2 points

Never = 1 point

12 **Migration pattern**

Respondents were provided with 5 migration patterns and were asked to indicate patterns of movement during and after the conflict

13 **Proportion of work hours lost to conflict**

It is measured by asking farmers to state actual work hours they wasted on the conflict. Farmers were group into 2, those that lost work hours to conflict and those that did not

14. **Causes of conflict**

Respondents were asked to provide information on actual causes of conflict in the study areas

15. **Rehabilitation strategies**

Respondents were asked to provide information on relevant rehabilitation strategies for conflict victims in the study areas.

16 **Solutions to the conflict:**

Respondents were asked to suggest appropriate solutions to the conflict

4.7.2 **Dependent variable**

The dependent variable for this study is the farmers' livelihood variables while farmers' poverty level is the outcome of the conflict. Such variable are crops and livestock production level, performance of off-farm activities, pleasure derived from ceremonies and participation in recreational activities and farmers basic incomes as well as poverty level .

i. **Crops production level**

It was measured in local scale and converted into conventional scale (Kg).

Local Scale	Conventional Scale
Maize jute bag	100kg
Cassava pick up loads	1000kg
Yam in pick up loads	1200kg
Sorghum jute bags	120kg

Farmers were asked to indicate their crops production in a farming season prior to escalation of the conflicts and de-escalation of the conflict between 2000 and 2002 for crops such as cocoa, kolanut, yam, cassava, sorghum and maize. Production category is measured by grouping farmers into low average and high production categories using farmers; mean production level for each crop. Farmer that his production level fell below

average belongs to low production category while farmers that produce above mean production for level belong to high production level. In order to calculate total crops production for each stratum total standard mean production index was used because crop weights are not the same. For instance weight of cassava is not the same with maize.

ii. **Livestock production**

It was measured by asking farmers to state actual number of livestock kept. Based on livestock distribution in each state, farmers were classified into small, average and large production level as follow;

Cattle

Small 1-5

Average 6-10

Large 11-15

Sheep and Goat

Small 1-5

Average 6-10

Large 11-16

Birds

Small 1-10

Average 11-20

Large 20-30

Farmers' livestock mean production per stratum was determined from total number of animas kept by farmers in each stratum

iii. **Farmers' income in 2000 – 2002 period of farming season**

This was measured in Naira value for the production harvested from the farm. Total output of crops in kg and livestock produced by farmers were multiplied by the prevailing estimated prices in the area. Therefore farmers' income is the average income of farmers from crops and livestock, which Okumadewa (2002) called basic income of farmers, which is the total income of farmers in each stratum divided by numbers that participated in the research per stratum.

iv. **Material possession**

Farmers were asked to indicate items possessed from the list of items provided for them as indicated in appendix 5. Common items within the locality are used to measure material possession. Out of 60 items initially selected only 26 items were retained in the final scale after item analysis. Those items and their weight in appendix 5 were adapted from previous studies (Akinbile, 1997 and Yahaya 1995) and also based on personal observation in some villages in the study locations. Standard scores of validated items were calculated using sigma-scoring method. These became the weight of items.

The weights ranged from 0-5, while 0 was for non-possession of such items. The minimum score was 38 while the maximum score was 190. Respondents were then categorized on this basis into:

Low	material possession
Medium	“ “
High	“ “

v. **Off farm income generating activities**

Seven off farm income generating activities were provided; farmers were to indicate the extent to which they have been able to perform such activities after conflict using the following rating scale:

Regularly	4
Occasionally	3
Rarely	2
Never	1

vi. **Participation in recreation activities**

Farmers were asked to indicate the rate to which they are able to participate in recreational activities. Rate of participation in recreational activities was measured using the following rating scale:

Regularly	3
Occasionally	2
Never	1

vii **Derived pleasure from ceremonies**

Farmers were asked to indicate whether they derived pleasure from various ceremonies such as naming, marriage, funerals, Ileya and Christmas in the communities after the conflict. Derived pleasure was measured using the following rating scale:

Little Pleasure	4
Great Pleasure	3
Little displeasure	2
Great displeasure	1

.viii **Farmers poverty level after the conflict**

The income level revealed the poverty position of farmers after the conflict. Poverty level index was used to determine farmers' poverty level. Those farmers whose income level fell below 1/3 average income level of farmers in each stratum as indicated in Table 23 were in core poor, above 1/3 average income were in moderately poor category while those with income level above 2/3 average income were in the better off category (Nigeria poverty document, 1995). Based on Nigeria poverty document of 1995

farmers were classified into poverty categories using the following computed poverty index data on Table 6.

Table 6: Grouping of Osun and Taraba states farmers into poverty categories using poverty index

States	Zone	1/3 Average income level	2/3 Average income level
		₦ K	₦ K
Osun	Core	13,132.42	26264.34
	Peripheral	29,013.96	58027.94
	Out side conflict	21,126.07	42,252.15
Taraba	Core conflict	9,551.02	49,102.04
	Periphery	16,200	37,076.33
	Out side	32,206.60	64,413.24

Computed poverty index from data from the field

4.8 Data collection

Seven trained enumerators and 2 research assistants were recruited for primary data collection. The seven enumerators were males and the 2 assistant researchers were made up of one male and one female in each stratum.

The of enumerators were recruited from each of the conflict stratum while the assistant research officers were selected from the subject matter specialists in each zone.

Qulification of enumerators' range from, National Diploma (ND) to Higher National Diploma (HND) and B.Sc, while research assistants were holders of H.N.D or M.Sc.

4.9 Testing of research hypotheses

Hypotheses of the study were tested as follow:

1. There is no significant relationship between the personal and social characteristics of farmers and their level of involvement in the communal conflict.

Chi- Square X^2 was used to determine the type of association and contingency coefficient that exists between identified and categorized personal characteristics of respondents.

2. There is no significant difference between farmers' production level in core and outside conflict areas after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States.

Z – test was used to determine the differences in farmers' production level after the conflict.

3. There is no significant difference in farmers' livestock production level in Osun and Taraba states.

Z test was used to determine the differences in farmers' livestock production level after the conflict.

4. There is no significant difference in material possession score of farmers in core and outside conflict areas after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States.

Z- test statistics was used to test for differences between farmers' livelihood material items after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States.

5. There is no significant difference in farmers' livelihood material possession among the three locations in Osun and Taraba States.

ANOVA test was used to test for the differences in farmers livelihood across the 3 locations in Osun and Taraba States. Also Duncan's new multiple range test (DMRT) was

used to differentiate the communal conflict impact on farmers' production level and livelihood material items among the three groups in the two states.

6. There is no significant difference in farmers' production level among the three locations in Osun and Taraba states.

ANOVA test was used to test for the differences in farmers' production level across the 3 locations in Osun and Taraba States. Also Duncan's new multiple range test (DMRT) was used to differentiate the communal conflict impact on farmers' production level and livelihood material items among the three groups in the two states.

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CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 RESULT AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter presents the equivalent and qualitative data obtained from the study areas as well as discussion of findings. The chapter is organized into seven main sections. The first section presents background information of farmers. Such information includes their personal and social characteristics and agricultural production variables. In the second section, farmers' level of involvement in the conflict and causes of conflict among farmers in the study areas were enumerated. Section three discusses farmer's access to their farm after the conflict and assessment of farmers' livelihood variable such as crops production, livestock, off-farm activities, pleasure derived from ceremonies, participation in recreational activities and farmers' material possession using percentage parameter.

The fourth section provides information on the estimated output of farmers on crops, livestock and farmers' materials possession mean scores. Section five considered consequences of aftermath of the conflicts using farmers' income to estimate poverty level of farmers and farmers' migration pattern. Section six provides information on appropriate rehabilitation and solutions to the conflicts. Finally, in the seventh section, the results of tested hypotheses postulated to guide the research were presented.

Section one

5.1 Personal and social characteristics of farmers in Osun and Taraba states

5.1.1 Age (years)

Entries in Table 7 show the age distribution of farmers from, conflict and non-conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states. According to Ekong (2003) any age range

between 0-14 years, is classified as children and 16-64years is classified adult and 65years and above as aged person. It is obvious from Table 7 that in core conflict area 85.4% and 90.2% of farmers in Osun and Taraba state respectively fell within the age range 25-63 years in Osun and Taraba states respectively. Mean age range for farmers in Osun state core was 40.5 and 42.5 in Taraba state, while mean age range of farmers in Osun state outside conflict area was 41.8 and 40.5 in Taraba state. The implication of these findings is that more than 80.0% of farmers across conflict strata are young and still in their productive years. These findings are in line with the finding of Bolarinwa (1997) and Yahaya (2000) where they found that fewer older farmers take farming as a vocation due to lack of strength to cope with farm drudgery. This is an adventurous age when young people explore new horizons for green pastures of which attempt to block this ambition may result into personal and inter-group conflict in the society, which may have negative effect on farmers' livelihood.

5.1.2 Sex

Table 7 indicates that in core conflict areas 83.3 %and 86.8% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively were males while similar data was available in outside conflict areas 87.0% and 69.0% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively were females . Investigation during field survey revealed that female farmers are more interested in processing, trading and distribution of agricultural produce than tilling the land and rearing of animal in two states.

These findings corroborated Makinwa (1991) who discovered that food processing and agricultural produces distribution are main activities of women in Nigeria. The implication of the finding is that, since males and females were involved in

agricultural activities in the study area any agricultural development program, that aim at livelihood improvement should be focused on how woman would be encouraged to sustained their livelihood through embarking on agricultural production.

5.1.3 Marital status

Table 7 indicates that in core conflict area 92.0% and 85.3 of farmers were married in Osun and Taraba states respectively and 82.6% of farmers were married in Osun state outside conflict area while 87.5% were married in Taraba state outside conflict area. Distribution of wives possessed by farmers in Table 7 indicates that in core conflict area 36.6% and 40.9% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively were married to 2-3 wives. The implication of the findings is that majority of farmers (50.8%) in Osun state core conflict area, and 32.7% of farmers in Taraba state core conflict were married to only one wife. In the outside conflict areas, 46.4% and 48.2% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively were married to one wife.

Therefore, the findings confirmed that as a result of cultural contact and use of farm mechanization a number of modification and changes have taken place in the family institution in rural areas. Marriages in the rural areas tend to be monogamous today. That is rural people practice progressive or serial polygamy rather than outright polygamy (Ekong, 2003). That is farmers prefer taking a single wife at a time instead of several at a swoop. Farmers also enjoyed services of wives on their farm.

5.1.4 Religion

Table 7 further shows that in core conflict areas majority (69.0%) of farmers in Osun are Christian, while 44.3% of the farmers in the core conflict area of Taraba are Christian. However, in outside conflict area of Osun state majority (60.9%) of farmers are

Muslims while 18.0% are Muslims in Taraba state. Hence, religious inter-conflicts may be one of the causes of conflict in the study area that is diverting farmers' attention from making progress pursue of livelihood activities.

5.1.5 Household size

Table 7 shows that in core areas majority (67.2%) and (78.5%) of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively had a household size of 5-8 persons while 29.5%, and 6.5% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively had a household size of more than 8 people in core conflict areas.

In outside conflict 59.0% and 71.4% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively had 5-6 household size while 41.0% and 11.0% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively had household size of 1-5. The implication of these finding is that majority of farmers across the 3 strata were in medium household size of 5-8 persons, hence according to Ekong (2003) 90.0% of rural household incomes in Nigeria which farmers spent on consumption items now invest on farming activities in order to improve and sustained their livelihood.

5.1.6 Occupation

There are only 3 main occupations in the study areas, farming, trading and civil service. In core conflict areas in Table 7, distribution of farmers by occupation indicates that agriculture provides the primary means of livelihood to 83.6% and 50.6% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively. In outside conflict areas, 66.7% and 67.6% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively depend on farming as primary means of livelihood. However, in core conflict area of Osun state 39.4% and 13.1% of farmers further generate means of livelihood from trading and working as civil servants

respectively. Also, in Taraba state core conflict area 18.0% of farmers generate means of livelihood from trading and 8.2% generate means of livelihood from working as civil servants in addition to farming.

In outside conflict area of Osun state 14.5% and 31.9% combine farming with trading and working as civil servants respectively while in Taraba state, 19.6% and 16.9% of the farmers combine farming with trading and working as civil servants respectively. This finding is in line with Olawoye (2000) who postulated that with several sources of income or produce, farmers' household food security could be guaranteed, as they are likely to suffer in the event that one activity fails.

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Table 7: Percentage distribution of respondents by their personal characteristics n = 385

Variables description	Osun State			Taraba State		
	N = 61 Core Conflict	N – 67 Peripheral Conflict	N = 69 Outside conflict	N = 61 Core conflict	N = 71 Peripheral conflict	N = 56 Outside conflict
Age	%	%	%	%	%	%
12 – 24	6.5	00	2.9	00	9.8	8.9
25 – 39	21.6	5.9	13.4	21.3	44.3	30.4
38 – 50	19.6	43.2	39.1	39.3	25.7	42.9
51 – 63	39.7	50.7	43.3	29.5	21.5	7.1
64 – 76	8.13	00	1.45	9.8	00	10.7
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Sex						
Male	83.6	91.0	87.0	86.5	70.4	69.6
Female	16.4	9.0	13.0	13.2	29.6	30.4
Total	100	100	00	100	100	100
Marital Status						
Single	3.3	00	5.8	4.9	5.7	10.7
Devoted	92	100	82.6	85.3	87.1	87.5
Devoted	00	00	00	4.9	2.8	00
Widowed	5.0	00	8.7	4.9	5.6	1.8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Religion						
Christianity	69.0	41.8	27.5	44.3	73.2	57.1
Islam	29.5	52.2	60.9	33.7	12.7	18.0
Traditional	1.6	6.0	11.6	2.3	14.1	25.0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Wives						
None	13.1	9.0	20.3	14.7	14.7	10.7
1. Wife	50.8	42.9	46.4	32.7	43.6	48.2
2. Wives	29.6	34.3	26.1	27.8	12.6	25.0
3. Wives	6.6	11.9	5.8	13.1	12.6	25.0
4. Wives	00	13.0	1.5	11.5	7.0	7.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Household Size						
Small 1-5	29.5	19.4	41.0	6.5	17.0	11.0
Medium 5-8	67.2	77.6	59.0	78.5	63.3	71.4
Large 8-13	3.3	3.0		15.0	19.7	17.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
*Occupation					1	
Farming	*83.6	100	66.7	50.6	67.6	67.5
Farming & artisan	9.80	00	1.5	8.19	00	5.4
Farming & Baker	1.60	00	00	00	00	00
Farming & Blacksmith	00	8.90	5.8	9.8	1.4	7.1
Farming & Trading	39.34	17.90	14.5	18.0	5.6	19.6
Fishing &	00	00	00	1.6	1.4	5.4
Farming & Native Dr.	1.64	00	00	1.7	00	00
Farming & civil servant	13.1	14.9	31.9	8.2	9.9	16.9

*Multiple responses

5.1.2 Social-economic characteristics

5.1.2.1 Education status of farmers

Table 8 shows that in core conflicts 27.9% and 24.6% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively have no formal education. Also, in outside conflict areas 27.5% and 28.6% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively did not have formal education. In core conflict area, greater proportion (72.1% and 17.4%) of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively had one of formal education or the other. In outside conflict areas 72.5% and 71.4% in Osun and Taraba states respectively had one form of formal education or the other. The implication of these findings is that many of the farmers across the 3 conflict strata were educated and would be able to adopt new agricultural technologies, have access to credit facilities, which will lead to improvement in farmers' livelihood. This finding substantiated the assertion of Oyeyinka (2002) that broad mindedness can be determined by the level; of education which is very important in farmers' acceptance of new technologies that will increase agricultural production.

5.1.2.2 Social group membership

Table 8 shows that 67.2% farmers in core conflict area 46.5% of farmers in outside conflict area in Osun belonged to social group. In Taraba state 80.3% and 82.1% of farmers in core and outside conflict areas respectively belonged to social group. The finding across the 3 strata of the states revealed that greater proportion of farmers belonged to one social groups or the other. Danne and Mongbo (1991) assured that group

participation is a framework by which peasant farmers defend and negotiate their interest is an essential ingredient for achieving success in agricultural development projects.

5.1.2.3 Cosmopolitaness

Table 8 revealed that all the farmers 100.0% had the opportunity to travel outside their villages across the 3 conflict strata. However, as indicated in Table 8, in core conflict area 41.0% and 39.0% of the farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively traveled more than 11-20 times in a year outside their villages. It is possible that those farmers who traveled out would have access to seeking advice on how to improve agricultural production from Agricultural Development Programme offices and be able to purchase input from Agricultural Input Supply Company that were located in town, instead of purchasing input from retailer who might adulterate or sell fake inputs.

5.1.2.4 Land ownership status

Entries in Table 8 revealed that in 29.5% and 50.8% of the farmers from Osun and Taraba States respectively inherited their pieces of land. On the other hand 70.5% and 49.2% of the farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively got farm land through any of the following least, purchase and gift. The implication of this finding is that the most common land sources to farmers in Osun state core conflict area are least, purchase and gift while inheritance and purchase of land were the most common land sources for Taraba state. Therefore, land allocation to farmers should be done in such a way that it will not generate violent conflict that may adversely affect their livelihood.

5.12.4 Agricultural holding

Table 8 indicates that in core conflict area of Osun state, 57.4% of farmers had 1-5ha farmland as against 27.8% farmers in Taraba state. Those that had 6-10ha in Osun

and Taraba states accounted for 42.0% and 92.2% respectively. Those that had farm holding between 21-25ha accounted for 9.9% and 39.5% in core conflict area of Osun and Taraba respectively. The implication of this finding is that farmers' farm holdings are still small. This justifies the reason for combination of farming with other work in order to sustain their livelihood. This finding is in line with the submission of Okunmadewa (2002) that small scale farming largely dominates the agricultural sector in Nigeria.

5.12.5 Sources of labour

Table 8 indicates that majority (67.2%) in core conflicts area of Osun and 57.2% in Taraba state core conflict area made use of family labour while 78.7% and 68.0% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively engaged hired labour for farm operations. Also, in the outside conflict area of Osun, 63.7% and 81.2% engaged family and hired labour respectively for farm operations. In Taraba state, 82.1% and 57.0% engaged family labour and hired labour respectively. Table 8 also indicates that fewer 9.8% made use of farm machine in Osun state core conflict areas and majority of farmers made use of machineries for farm operations in Taraba state core conflict areas.

The implication of the findings is that farmers make use of family and hired labour more than farm machineries in Osun state while more farmers use farm machineries in Taraba state. What actually accounted for variation in labour utilization by farmers could be attributed to difficult terrain in the rain forest of Osun state with dense or thick vegetative cover. This may be the reason why the use of mechanical implements for land preparation is not prominent in Osun state compared to relatively low vegetation cover obtainable in Savannah Agro-Ecological zones where Taraba state is located.

**Table 8: Percentage distribution of farmers by socio-economic characteristics
n = 385**

Variables description	Osun State			Taraba State		
	N = 61 Core Conflict	N – 67 Peripheral Conflict	N = 69 Outside conflict	N = 61 Core conflict	N = 71 Peripheral conflict	N = 56 Outside conflict
Education	%	%	%	%	%	%
None	27.9	34.4	27.5	24.6	8.5	28.6
Adult lit	9.8	14.9	5.8	32.8	2.8	23.2
Primary	32.2	17.9	21.7	6.6	38.0	6.1
Post primary	16.4	25.4	17.4	29.5	42.3	23.2
Tertiary	13.1	7.5	27.5	6.6	8.5	8.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Social Group Participation						
Yes	67.2	40.5	34.8	80.3	46.5	82.1
No	32.8	40.1	65.2	19.7	53.5	17.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Cosmopolitiness						
7-10 times	59.0	59.7	55.1	60.7	56.5	71.4
11–20	23.0	35.8	14.5	11.5	28.2	16.5
21-30	(00)	4.5	7.2	8.2	00	4.8
31-40	14.8	00	15.9	6.6	00	2.1
41-50	3.3	00	7.2	13.1	5.5	14.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Source of land						
Inheritance	29.5	37.3	50.7	50.8	56.3	58.9
Lease	31.1	53.7	11.6	16.34	2.8	7.1
Purchase	24.6	00	14.5	26.2	26.7	16.0
Gift	14.8	7.5	23.2	6.6	15.5	17.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Agricultural Holdings(ha)						
1-5	57.4	17.9	26.1	27.8	7.4	75.0
6-10	18.0	37.8	20.3	9.8	8.5	16.1
11-15	11.5	32.8	10.1	13.11	7.0	3.6
16-20	3.3	10.6	20.3	9.8	5.6	00
21-25	9.8	1,5	23.2	39.3	8.5	5.4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
*Sources of labour						
Family	*67.2	76.0	63.7	57.4	38.5	82.1
Hired	78.7	88.1	81.2	68	38.3	57
Exchange	26.9	50.7	11.6	1.64	4.22	16.7
Machines	9.8	3.4	-	50.8	60.6	62.5

*Multiple response

5.2 Section Two

5.2.1 Causes of conflicts in Osun and Tarba states

Data in Table 9 show that 70.5 %and 72.1% of farmers from the core conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states respectively perceived land use autonomy as being the primary source of incessant conflict among and between themselves . It is also, evident form Table 9 that 50.8% and 55.7% of farmers from the core conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states respectively claimed that population growth is the cause of the violent conflict.

The implication of these findings is that as population increased scrambling for farmland in the study areas and land owners denying tenant farmers from acquisition of more farmland often result to violent conflict This study corroborates Jibowo (2002) who reported that tenant farmers desire for unlimited freedom to own farmland free of charge that may be undesirable to land owners might inevitably precipitate violent conflict among farmers. This implies that abundant farmland is available in the study areas but landowners need to approve farmland before tenant farmers will be allowed to farm.

This implies that abundant farmland notwithstanding autonomy to use land constitute a problem in the study areas as shown in Table 9. Hence, in designing sustainable agricultural development programme for the farmers land use negotiation committee must be put in place. Government should ensure that creation of local government become a grass root decision oriented and down play politicians and elites influences. In addition, farmers should be trained on how t o manage conflict before it escalates into destruction of properties and lives.

Table 9: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Perceived Causes of Conflict in Osun and Taraba States Core Conflict Areas n=122

VARIABLE DISCRIPTION	Osun State Core Conflict Location	Taraba State Core Conflict Location
	N= 61	N=61
*Causes conflict	%	%
Cultural Values	42.6	45.9
Land space	41.0	42.6
Land use autonomy	70.5	72.1
Creation of L.G.A.	65.6	42.6
Scarcity of Resources	27.5	47.5
Population Growth	50.8	55.7
Violation of tenancy	24.6	16.4
Personal disagreement	44.3	63.9
Territorial Dispute	54.2	44.3
Total	100	100

5.2.2 **Farmers level of involvement in the conflict in Osun and Taraba states**

Table 10 indicates that 60.0% of the farmers were actively involved in the conflict in Osun state while in Taraba state core conflict area 70.0% of the farmers were actively involved in the violent conflict. Since farmers were actively involved in the violent conflict it is likely that farmers' livelihood variables will be affected

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Table 10: **Farmers' Involvement level scores in Osun and Taraba states core conflict areas n=122**

Category	Scores	Osun State	Taraba State
		N = 61	N = 61
		%	%
Actively involved	17 – 33	60.0	70.0
Not involved	1 - 16	40.0	30.0
Total		100	100

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5.3 Section Three

5.3.1 Farmers accessibility to their farm when violent conflict de-escalated in Osun and Taraba states.

Table 11 indicates that a very low percentage 24.0% of farmers in core conflict area of Osun State had access to their farms when conflict de-escalated compared to 65.7% and 96.5% of the farmers in peripheral and outside conflict areas respectively that had access to their farms. Similarly, in Taraba state, majority (78.0%) of farmers in core conflict area, 77.2% in the peripheral and 100.0% in the outside conflict areas respectively had access to their farms.

The implication of this finding is that in core conflict area of Osun State 76.0% of farmers were displaced from their farm while 22.8% of farmers were displaced from their farm in Taraba State when conflict de-escalated. Hence, Osun state landowners may be very hostile to tenant farmers because majority 76.0% of them were prevented from entering their farms, unlike fewer farmers 23.0% that were prevented from entering their farms in Taraba state.

Table 11: Percentage distribution of farmers according to farmers' access to their farm land after the violent conflicts in Osun and Taraba States n = 385

Variables	Category	Osun State			Taraba State		
		Core N=61	Peripheral N=67	Outside N=69	Core N=61	Peripheral N=71	Outside N=56
Access to the farm land conflict	Yes	24.0	65.7	98.0	78.9	77.2	100
	No	75.5	34.3	1.5	23.0	21.0	-
		100	100	100	100	100	100

5.3.2 **Assessment of farmers' livelihood variables in conflict and non-conflict areas of Osun and Taraba States**

Assessment of farmers' livelihood variables across conflict location in the two states concentrated on crops, livestock and off-farm income-generating activities participation in recreation activities and pleasure farmers derived from ceremonies.

5.3.2.1 **Classification of cocoa farmers into production categories in Osun and Taraba states after the conflict.**

Location specific data in Table 12 reveals that Osun state core conflict area recorded fewer farmers (3.0%) while peripheral and outside conflict areas recorded 9.0% and 2.8 % respectively in high cocoa production categories. Also, farmers in Taraba state core conflict area recorded 1.6% farmers in high production category as against 1.4% farmers recorded in peripheral conflict area. It can be deduced from this finding that restriction of farmers from entering their farms as shown in table 11 might have accounted for reduction in the number of farmers in the high cocoa production categories in Osun state. More-over the finding confirms that small-scale production still largely dominate agricultural sector in Nigeria since fewer farmers (16.0%) are in high production categories in the two states. The finding further reveal differences in tree crops production level among farmers in Osun and Taraba states. It could also be inferred from the study that the conflict affected cocoa production which is farmers major means of livelihood in core conflict area since 3.0% of farmers were in higher cocoa production category compared with 28.0% in higher cocoa production category in outside conflict area. These findings are supported by Albert (1999) who reported that the Osun state violent conflict reduced cocoa production in Ife –Modakeke (core

conflict area). This community is regarded as the cocoa belt region of Osun state. Hence, farmers' livelihood in this location was adversely affected.

5.3.2.2 Classification of farmers into kolanut production categories in Osun and Taraba states after the conflict.

In the Osun state core conflict area, 5.0% of the farmers were in the average kolanut production category where peripheral and outside conflict areas recorded 3.3% and 4.4% of farmers in high kolanut production category after the conflict. In Taraba state, only peripheral conflict area recorded 2.8% of farmers in the high kolanut production category after the conflict. Hence, core and peripheral conflict areas of Osun state felt the impact of the conflict more than outside conflict area since they recorded fewer farmers in high kolanut production category. It is however noteworthy that fewer farmers (2.8%) in peripheral conflict area in the high kolanut production category indicate that kolanut planting is not common among farmers in Taraba state since majority of farmers in core and outside conflict areas belong to poor kolanut production category. Also, in Osun state, cocoa is the main crop, farmers' only plant kolanut to demarcate farm boundaries or it is planted inside cocoa farmlands. The findings revealed that farmers in core conflicts area would not be able to generate income from kolanut and this may have negative effect on farmers' livelihood.

5.3.2.3 Classification of farmers into maize production categories in Osun and Taraba states after the conflict

Table 12 indicates that Osun state core conflict area felt the impact of the conflict more than the other two zones since, it recorded fewer farmers (3.3%) in high production level compared to 19.4% of farmers in the peripheral and 13.0% of the farmers in the outside conflict areas.

Table 12 also indicate that core conflict area in Taraba state recorded 13.0% of farmers in high maize production category compared to 4.2 % and 1.8% of farmers in peripheral and outside conflict areas respectively. It can be inferred from the result that Taraba state core conflict area recorded higher proportion of farmers in the high production category because 77% of the farmers were not displaced from their farms (Table 11) and the area is noted particularly for its high food production status. This finding further confirms the effects of preventing farmers from entering their farms in Osun state. Hence, conflict effect is more pronounced in Osun state core conflict area. However, the effect of the conflict is not pronounced in Taraba state because farmers specialize in planting annual crops whereas farmers in Osun state specialize in planting permanent crops (tree crop) that require at least 6 to 7 years before maturity stage could be reason why conflict effect is not severe on crops. Therefore, farmers livelihood was adversely affected in Osun state core conflict area when compared with outside conflict area

5.3.2.4 Classification of farmers into Sorghum production categories in Osun and Taraba states after the conflict.

Investigation reveals that sorghum production is not rampant among farmers in the two states. This is reflected from the result in Table 12 where fewer farmers (5.9%) in peripheral conflict area of Osun state belong to average production category and 2.0% of the farmers in the outside conflict area belong to high production categories. In Taraba state 13.1%, 11.3% and 10.7% of the farmers belong to average production category in the core, peripheral and outside conflict areas respectively. Hence, the sorghum farmers did not feel the impact of the conflict given the fact that more farmers are recorded in average category recorded in core conflict than other two areas

5.3.2.5 **Classification of farmers into Yam production categories in Osun and Taraba states after the conflict.**

Entries in Table 12, revealed that conflict impact on yam farmers production level is obvious in core conflict area of Osun state where only 4.9% of the farmers belong to the average yam production category as against 19.5% and 13.1% of the farmers in the peripheral and outside conflict areas. Similarly, farmers in Taraba state core and peripheral conflict areas felt the effect of the conflict more than those outside the conflict area, where it was revealed that 18.0% of the farmers in core and 17.0% in peripheral conflict areas belong to the above average production categories compared to 66.0% of farmers in the same category in the outside conflict area. This finding confirms that the conflict had a serious impact on yam producers in core and peripheral conflict areas because the number of farmers in the average yam production categories in the outside conflict area is greater than that of core conflict area.

5.3.2.6 **Classification of cassava farmers into production categories after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.**

In Osun state core conflict area, as shown in Table 12 5.0% of the farmers, belong to high cassava production category whereas higher proportion (17.0%) of the farmers belong to the same category in the outside conflict area. Taraba state core conflict recorded 19.6% of farmers in the high cassava production category compared to 34.1% of farmers in the average category in the outside conflict area. Evidently, the finding depicts that core conflict area in Osun state had a negative impact on cassava production level since the number of farmers in the high production category in the core conflict area is smaller than what obtains among farmers in the outside conflict area who belong to the same category. However, the violent conflict in Taraba state slightly affected cassava farmers, because the gap between farmers' production level in core and outside conflict area is very close.

TABLE 12: Percentage distribution of respondents according to crops production level after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States.

n = 385

Crops	Production Categories	OSUN STATE			Production categories	TARABA STATE		
		Core N = 61	Peripheral N = 67	Outside N = 69		Core N = 61	Peripheral N = 71	Outside N = 56
Cocoa	Low1- 4320.6kg	95.1	94.3	52.2	Low < 409	91.8	94.4	100
	Average 4320.6kg	1.6	16.6	13	Average 409	6.5	4.2	-
	High 4320.6kg	3.0	9.0	20.9	High > 409	1.6	1.4	-
Kola nut	Low < 601kg	93.0	79	84.3	Low < 34.1	100	94.8	100
	Average 601kg	5.0	18.9	10.1	Average 34.1	-	2.8	-
	High > 601kg	-	3.3	4.4	High > 34.1	-	2.8	-
Maize	Low < 3966.9kg	88.5	89.7	63.7	Low< 4226.4	77	80.3	89.3
	Average 3966.9kg	8.2	20.9	21.7	Average 4226.4	18.8	15.5	8.9
	High > 3966.9kg	3.3	19.4	14.5	High > 4226.4	4.9	4.2	1.8
Sorghum	Low < 851.8kg	100	94.0	89.3	Low < 4810	85.2	87.3	89
	Average 851.8kg	-	5.9	8.7	Average 4810kg	13.1	11.3	10.7
	High > 85.8kg	-	-	2	High > 4810kg	1.6	1.6	-
Yam	Low < 38007kg	95.1	68.7	81.2	Low< 4304.3kg	72.1	71.8	24
	Average 3800.7kg	4.9	19.5	13.1	Average 4304.8kg	10.0	11	
	High > 3800.7kg	-	1.5	6.0	High > 4304,3kg	18	117	66
Cassava	Low < 6718.6kg	93.4	49.3	55.1	Low 2759.37kg	60.1	86	66
	Average 6718.6kg	1.6	26.8	27.5	Average 2759.1kg	18	12	24
	High > 6718.6kg	5.0	23.2	17.4	High >2759.1kg	19.6	2	-

5.3.3 **Classification of farmers into cattle production categories after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.**

Table 13 indicates that in core conflict area of Osun state, only 7.0% of the farmers belong to average production category whereas in peripheral conflict area, 10.0% belong to average cattle production category. Taraba state outside conflict area recorded greater number of farmers where 29.0% were in the average production category compared to 10.0% of the farmers in core conflict.

The finding reveals that conflict situation in this study may be attributed to decrease in the number of farmers within the average cattle production category in core conflict area of Taraba state. However, in Osun state it cannot be established that the conflict situation has any significant impact on cattle production level since core and outside conflict areas have the same mean number of farmers in the large cattle production category. Hence, cattle production in Osun is not all that popular among farmers in Osun state where majority of farmers (90.0%) belong to small number cattle production level across the zones.

5.3.3.1 **Classification of farmers into sheep and Goat production categories after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.**

In the classification of animals by Livestock Centre for Africa's (ILCA), sheep and goat belong to small ruminant. Small ruminant is the most important rural enterprise in the West African sub region. However, it is a minor farm enterprise with minimum investment on feeding, housing and health. As indicated in Table 13 Osun core conflict area recorded 2.0% of farmers in the average small ruminant production category while peripheral locations recorded 19.0% of farmers in average category. Meanwhile, in the outside conflict area, 100% farmers are in the small number ruminant production

category. Also, in Taraba state conflict impact is evident in core conflict area since fewer farmers (19.0%) are in the large small ruminant production category compared to 43.0% of farmers in the outside conflict area. Findings of this investigation show that there was a sharp decline in sheep and goat production level in core conflict areas, which undoubtedly is as a result of the conflict situation.

5.3.3.2 Classification of farmers into poultry keeping categories after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.

. Specific location data in Table13 reveals the impact of the conflict on poultry production, where it was revealed that in the core conflict area of Osun state, 12.0% of farmers were in the average poultry production category while peripheral conflict area recorded higher proportion of farmers (30.0%) in the large poultry production category. However, poultry farmers' production declined to the extent that no farmer belong to large number of poultry production category in core conflict area of Taraba state compared to higher proportion of farmers (29.5%) in the large production category in outside conflict area. Hence, this finding depicts that the impact of the conflict on small ruminant production is severe in the core conflict areas of the two states since outside conflict area recorded higher 30.0% and 29.0% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively.

Table 13: Percentage distribution of respondents according to livestock production level in the two states after the conflict. n = 385

vestock	Categories	Variables description	Period	OSUN STATE			TARABA STATE		
				N = 61	N = 67	N = 69	N = 61	N = 71	N = 56
				Core conflict	Periphery Conflict	Outside conflict	Core conflict	Periphery conflict	Outside Conflict
Cattle	Small number	≤ 5	After conflict	98.4	80.5	100	86.9	91.5	86.3
	Average number	6 – 15	After conflict	6.6	10.4		9.8	7.0	28.7
	Large number	≥ 16	After conflict		8.9		3.3	1.4	5.3
Sheep and goats	Small number	≤ 5	After conflict	98.3	77.6	100	54.0	80.3	3.4
	Average number	6 – 15	After conflict	1.6	19.4		26.2	15.5	41.1
	Large number	≥ 16	After conflict		3.0		19.6	4.2	43.0
Poultry keeping	Small number	≤ 5	After conflict	88.5	58.2	94.2	70.5	74.6	33.9
	Average number	6 – 15	After conflict	11.5	30.0	2.8	29.5	11.3	37.5
	Large number	≥ 16	After conflict	00	12.0	2.8		14.1	28.6

5.3.4 **Distribution of farmers according to rate of performing eight off- farm income generating activities in Osun and Taraba States.**

Farmers engaged in non-farming activities to keep them busy during off farming season and to generate extra income. Table 14 indicates that a very low proportion (32.8%) of the farmers in Osun state were able to perform their off-farm activities regularly in core conflict area compared to a very high proportion (94.2%) of the farmers in the outside conflict area that were able to perform off-farm activities regularly after the conflict. In Taraba state 64.0% of farmers were unable to generate compared to 21.0% and 7.0% in peripheral and outside conflict areas respectively that were unable to generate extra income from off-farm activities. Hence, the conflict had such untold adverse effects on the rate at which farmers perform off-farm activities in core conflict areas. This implies that 67.2% and 64% of the farmers will not be able to generate additional income from off-farm activities after the conflict in core conflict area of Osun and Taraba states respectively.

Table 14. Percentage distribution of farmers according to rate of performing eight off-farm income generating activities in Osun and Taraba states.

n = 385

Category	Score	Osun State			Taraba State		
		Core N=61	Peripheral N=67	Outside N=69	Core N=61	Peripheral N=71	Outside N=56
Regularly	13-24	32.8	92.0	94.2	36.0	79.0	93.0
Never	1 - 12	67.2	7.5	25.4	64.0	21.0	7.0
		100	100	100	100	100	100

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5.3.5 Farmers' livelihood materials possession classification into categories after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.

State specific data in Table15 reveals that 67.5% and 63.3% of the farmers in Osun and Taraba states belong to the above average category respectively. Conflict impact on farmers' material possession across the conflict zone reveals that 39.3%, 74.5% and 85% of farmers in core, peripheral and outside conflict areas of Osun state respectively belong to above the average material possession category. In Taraba state, 24.5%, 39.4%, 89.3% of farmers in core, peripheral and outside conflict areas respectively belong to above average material possession category. Therefore, its not surprising that there was a decrease in the number of farmers that belong to above average category in material possession in core conflict areas ompared to higher number of farmers in outside conflict areas. Such decrease may undoubtedly be attributed to conflict situation in those areas.

Table 15: Percentage distribution of farmers according to livelihood status, using materials possession items after the conflict in the two states. n=385

Variable	Categories	Scores	Osun State Conflict Location			Taraba State Conflict Location		
			Core Conflict N=61	Peripheral Conflict N=67	Outside Conflict N=69	Core conflict N=61	Peripheral Conflict N=71	Outside conflict N=56
			%	%	%	%	%	%
Possession of materials items after conflict	Low	1-15	59.0	25.4	14.5	75.0	60.6	10.7
	Average	16-30	16.4	53.7	15.9	4.9	23.9	26.8
	High	31-60	22.9	20.9	69.6	19.6	15.5	62.5
	Total		100	100	100	100	100	100

5.3.6 Distribution of farmers by pleasure derived from ceremonies after the conflict Osun and Taraba States.

The most common feasts farmers celebrate in the two states are; marriage, funeral, Sallah festivals, Christmas and other traditional religion related feasts. The reaction to pleasure farmers derive from the ceremonies after the conflict in Table 16 reveals that low pleasure mean scores of 25 was recorded in core conflict area of Osun state compared to higher pleasure mean scores of 81.5 recorded in outside conflict area. In Taraba state, farmers in the core conflict area recorded little mean pleasure mean scores of 28.8 as against greater pleasure mean scores 85.3 recorded in outside conflict area. Little pleasure means score recorded in core conflict area implies that conflict disrupted farmers' social activities as well as destroyed their economic activities. The implication of the finding is that lack of security in core conflict area may be attributed to little pleasure mean scores recorded in the areas. It can be deduced from the finding that the conflict disrupts not only the economic activities but pleasure farmers derived from social activities. Hence, farmers are likely to suffer not only economic and social imbalance but also psychological imbalance

Table 16: Farmers mean score of pleasure derived from ceremonies after the violent conflict in Osun and Taraba states N = 385

Variable	Category	Osun State			Taraba State		
		Core Score	Periphery Score	Outside	Core Score	Periphery Score	Outside
Farmers pleasure derived from ceremonies after conflict	High displeasure	40.6	30.2	10.3	38.4	34.3	4.2
	Somewhat displeasure	34.8	20.4	8.4	32.8	25.6	1.1
	Somewhat pleasure	15.6	40.7	60.3	20.5	22.2	40.3
	High pleasure	9.4	8.7	21.00	8.3	17.4	45.0

5.3.7 Distribution of farmers according to participation in recreational activities after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.

Rural and urban dwellers engage in different types of recreational activities during their leisure. Most farmers in Nigeria spend the early hours of the day on their farms, when the sun becomes hot they return to the village to have their lunch, clean up and relax with available recreational activities in the village (Jibowo, 2002). Recreational activities available in the village may include: wrestling, folktales in the moon light, swimming inside stream, playing ayo games e.g. cards, ayo” etc and drinking of palm wine and smoking. In this study, sampled farmers revealed their participation in recreational activities in Osun state after the violent conflict as indicated in Table 17 fewer farmers (21.3%) participate in recreation activities regularly in the core conflict area compared to 94.2% of the farmers who participate in recreation activities regularly in the outside conflict area. Investigations further revealed that fear of likelihood of enemy attack prevented many people from participating in any recreation activity in the core conflict area.

Also, in Taraba state participation in recreational activities as shown in Table 17, reveals that 75.4% of the farmers in core conflict area were unable to participate in recreational activities after the violent conflict. However, in the outside conflict area only 10.2% of the farmers were unable to participate in their recreation activities. Investigation reveals that due to the fact that farmers’ concentration of their time and energies on conflict prevented them from being able to participate in recreation activities.

Table 17: Farmers' Participation in Recreational activities after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states. n = 385

Variable	Osun State					Taraba State		
	Rating Scale	Score	Core N=61	Periphery N=67	Outside N=69	Core	Periphery	Outside
Participation in recreational activities after conflict	Regularly	10-18	21.3	68.7	94.2	24.6	53.6	89.3
	Never	19	78.7	31.3	5.8	75.4	46.5	10.2
Total			100	100	100	100	100	100

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Section Four

5.4 Estimated Farmers' Livelihood Variables After the Conflict

Actual livelihood variables of farmers in each stratum for crops and livestock production and material possession of farmers were estimated or measured quantitatively. Hence, farmers' livelihood mean variables in core conflict stratum was compared to those farmers in non-conflict stratum.

5.4.1 Farmers crops production in the three conflict strata in Osun and Taraba states.

In order to prevent crops from overwhelming outweigh by the other, the six crops raw weight were first transformed into common units in each stratum before they were added together. Summation of the six crops in each conflict stratum is the farmers' production level. Classification of farmers into production categories provides information on the number of farmers in each production level. The computed six crops standard mean production index in Osun state as shown in Table 18 reveals that farmers in core conflict area have crops mean yield weight of 1276.0kg compared to higher crops mean yield weight of 3547.0kg in peripheral conflict area and 3208.2kg mean yield weight in outside conflict area. The violent conflict accounted for the low crop production in core conflict area, since 76% of the farmers were displaced (Table11). Furthermore, data on Table 22 shows that 72.1% of them lost their productive activities to conflict while 82% of the farmers migrated (Table 21). Paradoxically in Taraba state farmers in core conflict area recorded higher crop yield weight of 2706.3kg as against lower crops mean yields of 1975.2kg recorded in peripheral conflict area and 2613.4kg crops mean yield weight in outside conflict area. Farmers in the core conflict locations have higher mean yield because 77% of the farmers were not displaced by the conflict

(Table11) and, 78.4% did not loose their productive activities to the conflict (Table22). It is noteworthy, that the zone has consistently maintained high food production status over the years, hence conflict not withstanding. Also, harvesting period for arable crops require short duration and permanent tree crops require longer time may have accounted for the variation in conflict impact on crops production index in core conflict area of Osun and Taraba states. Therefore, mediation and transformation mechanisms to be introduced to the people should be accompanied with appropriate livelihood enhancing and poverty alleviation strategies such as introduction of high yielding crop varieties.

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Table 18: Standard crops mean production index of farmers in Osun and Taraba states after the conflict.

Osun State				Taraba State	
Strata	Crops	Standard Mean Production Index X	Total Standard Mean production Index X	Standard Mean production Index X	Total Standard Mean Production Index X
Core Conflict Area	Cocoa	295	1276.6	297.0	2706.3
	Kolanut	266.5		260.0	
	Maize	250.2		697.0	
	Sorghum	-		575.0	
	Yam	227		423.0	
	Cassava	238.0		423.0	
Peripheral Conflict Area	Cocoa	530.2	3547.0	167.0	1975.3
	Kolanut	458.1		173.4	
	Maize	974.7		440.0	
	Sorghum	262.0		390.0	
	Yam	520.0		367.0	
	Cassava	802		367.0	
Outside Conflict Area	Cocoa	697.0	3208.21	129.6	2613.6
	Kolanut	466.0		00	
	Maize	6830		792.0	
	Sorghum	273.0		742.0	
	Yam	374.2		6290.0	
	Cassava	715.5		321.6	



Plate 5.1: Farmer's huts turn into rubbles



Plate 5.2: A typical Settlement outside conflict area

5.4.2 Livestock production after the conflict across the three conflict strata in Osun and Taraba states

The computed mean number of livestock in Osun state as shown in Table 19 indicates that peripheral conflict area recorded the highest cattle mean value of 51 while in the core conflict area, the mean cattle value of 7 and in the outside conflict area the mean value was 5. Similarly, in the peripheral conflict area a higher proportion had 105 sheep and goat compared to a very low proportion of 15 and 62 recorded in core and outside conflict areas respectively. The mean number for birds of 134 was obtained in peripheral conflict area which is far higher than that of 30 birds mean value obtained in core conflict area and 90 birds mean number in the outside conflict area. The finding reveals that livestock farmers' in peripheral conflict area did not feel the impact of the conflict because they have higher mean number of livestock than core and outside conflict areas. The violent conflict in Osun state was tagged operation locate your enemies' village. Once, the enemy is not located in peripheral conflict village such village may not experience conflict impact. Similarly, the result presented in table 18 indicates that farmers in core conflict area of Taraba state recorded lower mean number of 29 for cattle, lower mean number of 180 for sheep and goat and lower mean number of 547 for birds. However, outside the conflict area, farmers recorded higher mean number of 41 for cattle, higher mean number of 2007 for sheep and goat and 2179 mean number for birds. The observed decline in livestock production in core conflict area of Taraba state is attributed to the violent conflict since, 78.4% of the farmers had earlier on expressed that they have lost their productive activities to the conflict as shown in (Table 22). However, it is observed that farmers did not recover quickly from the impact of the conflict regards their livestock enterprises because livestock maturity requires longer time unlike the arable crops in the same zone. Therefore, this helps to establish the pattern of conflict in Osun state which is different from what obtains in Taraba state .

Table 19: Mean production level of livestock in Osun and Taraba states after conflict n = 385

Livestock	OSUN			TARABA		
	Core	Periphery	Outside	Core	Periphery	Outside
Cattle	6.5	50.7	5.2	29.0	25.4	40.7
Sheep and goat	14.5	104.8	62.2	180.2	1786	2007
Birds	29.5	134.3	90.1	547	1011	2179

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Plate 5.3: Sorrow sight of a Brutally Amputated and facially battered Livestock farmer

5.4.3 Farmers' livelihood materials possession across conflict strata after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.

Material possession connotes farmers' assets ranging from occupational items to essential home convenience and prestigious items. In Osun state, Table 20 indicates that farmers in core conflict area recorded lower material possession mean scores of 28,110.80 compared to higher material possession mean score of 49,367.05 recorded in the outside conflict area. The finding depicts that the violent conflict led to destruction of farmers properties since a lower mean material scores connote higher vandalization of farmers material possession in the conflict ridden area. This finding corroborates Albert (1999) assertion of that "the violent conflict in Osun state led to destruction of lives and injured officially put at eighty-six people and burning of two hundred houses". He further stressed that farmers in core conflict area were brutally attacked and killed on their farms. Hence, the violent conflict accounted for higher loss of farmers' material possession in the core conflict area. The result presented in Table 20 shows that in core conflict area of Taraba state, farmers recorded lower material possession mean scores (23,014.61) compared to higher material possession mean scores (56,468.45) recorded in the outside conflict area. The implication of this finding is that more farmers had their properties vandalized in core conflict areas than in the outside conflict areas where such destruction was minimal. Commenting on the violent conflict, Shedrack (1999) stated that the carnage associated with Taraba state conflict was probably unprecedented in the history of communal conflict in Nigeria. He further stressed that the conflict led to setting ablaze and pulling down of residential houses, business premises and looting of properties and foodstuff by those who took advantage of the conflict.

Table 20: **Livelihood Material Possession Mean Scores in Osun & Taraba states after conflict.**

Strata	Osun State MPLMS X	Taraba State MPLMS X
Core	28110.8	23014.6
Peripheral	39145.1	50145.5
Outside	49367.1	56468.6

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Plate 5.4: Vandalized Buildings in a farm settlement

Section Five

5.5 Consequences or Aftermath of the conflict in Osun an Taraba states

The following variables are consider relevant in this section; migration pattern, proportion of work farmers lost to conflict, farmers income, poverty level of farmers

5.5.1 Distribution of respondents by their migration pattern in Osun and Taraba states.

Seasonal migration is a common sustainable livelihood coping mechanism among farmers. In other words, migration is the movement of the people from one place to another for a sustained or permanent sojourn in the place of destination (Jibowu, 2000). Table 21 reveals that, fewer farmers (18%) in core conflict area did not migrate compared to higher proportion (98.5%) of the farmers that did not migrate in the outside conflict area of Osun state. In Taraba state 39.3% of the farmers in core conflict area did not migrate compared to 75% of those who did not migrate in the outside conflict area. Hence, 92.0% and 60.7% of farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively migrated in core conflict areas. The implication of the findings is that the surrounding peaceful states witness unbearable upsurge of conflict refugees.

Table 21: Percentage distribution of respondents by their migration pattern and reasons for migration in Osun and Taraba states n = 385.

VARIABLE DESCRIPTION	OSUN STATE CONFLICT LOCATION			TARABA STATE CONFLICT LOCATION		
	Core Conflict N=61	Peripheral Conflict N=67	Outside Conflict N=69	Core Conflict N=61	Peripheral Conflict N=71	Outside Conflict N=56
	%	%	%	%	%	%
1. Migration to villages In other states	8.2	1.5	0.0	6.6	0.0	0.0
2. Migration to other state	4.6	1.5	0.0	6.6	2.8	1.8
3. To neighbouring town.	31.2	6.0	0.0	4.9	11.3	3.6
4. To other villages within the states	31.2	27.5	1.5	42.6	22.5	19.6
5. Do not migrate	18.0	80.9	98.5	39.3	63.4	75.0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

* Multiple response

5.5.2 **Distribution of farmers by work hours lost to the violent conflict in Osun and Taraba states.**

Conflict situation in any community often reduces productive activities of the conflicting parties. This often result into diversion of time, energy, material and human resources to fighting in conflict situations (Ugwuegbu, 1999). This assertion is confirmed in Osun state core conflict area as shown in Table 22 where only few farmers (27.9%) did not loose any of their work hours to the conflict compared to majority (98.6%) of farmers that did not loose greater proportion of their productive time to the conflict. Also, in Taraba state majority (78.4%) of farmers in the core conflict area lost a greater proportion of their productive work hours to the conflict compared to fewer (15.8%) of farmers that did lose their productive work hour hours to conflict in outside conflict area. Consequently, the conflict had resulted in adverse effects on the farmers' productive activities and performance of off-farm activities.

Table 22: Percentage distribution of farmers by work hour lost to the violent conflict in Osun and Taraba states.

Variables	Core N = 61	Peripheral N = 67	Outside N = 69	Core N = 61	Peripheral N = 71	Outside N = 56
Work hours lost to conflict	%	%	%	%	%	%
Did not loose any work hours	27.9	28.4	98.6	21.6	73.2	84.2
Lost work hour to conflict	72.1	71.2	1.4	78.4	26.8	15.8

5.5.3 Total annual income of farmers after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States.

Table 23 shows that farmers in core conflict area of Osun state had a mean total income of ₦39, 397.26 compared to higher mean income of ₦63, 378.22 recorded in outside conflict area. Farmers low income in core conflict area could be attributed to the conflict since 76% of the farmers were displaced from their farms and 67.2% of the farmers were not able to generate additional income from off-farm activities (Table 11 and 23). Similarly, total mean income of ₦28, 653.06, was recorded for farmers in the core conflict area of Taraba state which is far lower than the total mean income of ₦97, 595.85 recorded for farmers in the outside conflict locations (Table 23). The decrease in farmers' income is undoubtedly as a result of the conflict, since majority (78.4%) of the farmers lost their productive activities to the conflict and farmers' livestock production was far lower in the core conflict area than in the outside conflict area as shown in Table 13. These findings show how the conflict has devastated the livelihood of farmers in the conflict spots of the two states.

Table 23: Annual Mean Income of farmers from crops and livestock after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states

Strata	Osun	Taraba
	Annual Mean Income X	Annual Mean Income X
Core	N39,397.26	N28,653.06
Periphery	N87,041.90	N48,600.5
Outside	N63,378.22	N97,595.83

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5.5.4 Distributions of respondents by head count poverty level after the conflict in Osun and Taraba States.

Head count poverty ratio, is simply an estimate of the percentage of people below the poverty line (Ekong, 2003). The computed farmers head count poverty index as shown in table 24 indicates that 70.0% of the farmers in core conflict area live below poverty line. That is they are poor. Meanwhile, fewer number (40.0%) of the farmers were in the same category in outside conflict area. The higher proportion (70.0%) of the farmers in core conflict area that are in poor category confirm, the significance of the violent conflict that accounted for greater number (70.0%) of farmers in poor head count category in the core conflict area since the farmers annual income was lower (Table 23), and 59% of the farmers belong to lower material possession category(Table15).

Also, in Taraba state 34% of the farmers in core conflict area were in non poor poverty head count as against 69.0% of the farmers in outside conflict area that were in non poor head count. The finding reveals that there are more farmers (66.0%) in the poor poverty head count classification in core conflict area. The violent conflict accounted for the location of a majority of farmers in the poor poverty head count category where it is evidently clear that 78.4% of the farmers lost higher proportion of their productive activities to the conflict (Table22). In addition, due to the conflict, 64.0% of the farmers were not able to generate income from off-farm activities in core conflict areas (Table14). Also, farmers in the core conflict area lost higher materials mean scores to the conflict and they were reduced to very low-income level (Tables15and23). This finding confirms the observation of Daudelin (2003), that the strongest predictor of conflict impact among rural dwellers is poverty, since poverty and over dependence on subsistence agriculture is closely related. Farmers in the conflict spots of this study cannot be excluded from such outcomes.

Table 24:Percentage distribution of respondents by head counts poverty level after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.n=385

Variable Description	OSUN STATE			TARABA STATE		
	Core conflict	Periphery conflict	Outside conflict	Core conflict	Periphery conflict	Outside
	N = 61	N = 67	N = 69	N = 61	N = 71	N = 56
Core poor	50.0	30.0	18.0	26.0	9.0	10.0
Moderately poor	20.0	20.0	22.0	40.0	35.0	21.0
Non poor	30.0	50.0	60.0	34.0	56.0	69.0

Section Six**5.6. Farmers perceived conflict rehabilitation strategies in Osun and Taraba states.**

In Table 25 indicate that all the sampled farmers (100%) suggested provision of credit facilities and bringing the price of building materials low in the two states core conflict areas. Also, 86.8% and 91.8% in Osun and Taraba states respectively suggested supply of farm inputs at subsidized prices, while 96.7% in Osun state and 68.8% in Taraba state opined that acquisition of land for farming should be free and 50.8% and 65.4% in Osun and Taraba states respectively suggested provision of improved early maturing seeds and seedling of tree crops, grains and tubers as the most relevant rehabilitation strategies in the two states. Thus, establishment of rehabilitation centres to improve provision of credit facilities, supply of improved seeds and seedlings as well as reduction in the price of farm inputs will be the viable strategies to improve farmers production level and living standard of farmers as well as facilitate rebuilding of burnt houses and reestablishment of burnt farms in the two states.

Table 25: Percentage distribution of respondents by suggested rehabilitation strategies in Osun and Taraba States. n=122.

*Rehabilitation Strategies	OSUN STATE	TARABA STATE
	CORE N=61	CORE N=61
	%	%
1. Supply of farm inputs at subsidized price.	86.8	91.8
2. Provision of improved, early maturing cocoa seedlings	86.8	-
3. Acquisition of land for farming should be free of charge	96.7	68.8
4. Provision of improved, early maturing seeds and seedlings of both grain and tubers crops	50.8	65.4
5. Provision of credit facilities to farmers	100.0	100.0
6. Building materials price should be reduced	100.0	100.0
7. Let there be respect for traditional rulers and tenant farmers must be loyal to them.	49.1	57.4

5.6.1. Farmers' perceived solutions to the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.

Entries in Table 26 show that in core conflict areas majority of the farmers 52.2% and 100.0% in Osun and Taraba states respectively opined that farmers should compensate landowners for using their land while 52.5% of farmers in Osun and 49.2% in Taraba state opined that farms should be allocated free to farmers. From other perspectives, the two states reflected disparity in perceived solutions to the conflict. Majority (88.5%) of farmers in Osun core conflict area suggested that farmers should compensate landowners for using their land and 70.5% call for total elimination of the probability of killing of farmers on their farmland. In Taraba state, 96.7% of farmers suggested that military or police security should be enhanced in order to maintain peace. In another dimension 90.6% of the farmers called for clear demarcation between graze lands and farmlands. According to the farmers all these suggested solutions could be effectively implemented when the parties of the conflict play the right role in facilitating the peace process in the affected communities. To accomplish this, they have a responsibility to promote "common feeling" or denounce the existence of multiple loyalties and by and large consolidate existing expectations of mutual benefit as a consequence of cooperation. Also, they must be ready to reconcile the past and the future and dismantle the existing walls to pave way for reconciliation of the values that will guide future and commitment to cooperate (Reychter, 2001).

Table 26: Percentage distribution of farmers according to suggested solutions to the communal conflicts in Osun and Taraba State n = 122

*Suggested solutions	OSUN STATE	TARABA STATE
	CORE N=61	CORE N=61
	%	%
1. Political offices should be shared among people regardless of whether tenants or landlords	45.9	63.9
2. Military or police security to be beefed up in order to maintain peace.	67.2	96.7
3. Clear demarcation between grazed land and farmland.	88.5	90.6
4. Farmers should compensate landowners for using their land.	52.2	100.0
5. Farm land should be allocated free to farmers	66.6	49.2
6. Use of derogatory language against each other should be discouraged or stopped	70.5	52.5
7. Killing of farmers on their farm land should be stopped	57.4	47.5
8. An illegal appointment of village head by tenants should be discouraged	54.0	47.5
9. Payment of tax regularly to the local government individual belong.	54.0	42.6
10. Conflict between individual and groups in the community should be resolved amicably instead of degenerating into destruction of life and properties.	54.0	34.4

Section 7

Inferential statistics and testing of hypotheses

5.7 Hypothesis 1

There is no significant relationship between farmers' personal and social characteristics (age, sex, religion, educational level and exposure) and level of involvement in the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.

Entries in Table 27 show that there were no significant association between farmers level of involvement in the violent conflict and their religion ($\chi^2 = 4.65; p > 0.05$) and education ($\chi^2 = 9.10; p > 0.05$) in Osun state. However, religion ($\chi^2 = 16.97; p < 0.05$) and education ($\chi^2 = 29.4; p < 0.05$) had significant association with farmers level of involvement in the violent conflict in Taraba state. Meanwhile, there are areas of commonalties in both states, significant relationship exists between occupations ($\chi^2 = 43.03; p < 0.05$) in Osun, and Taraba ($\chi^2 = 29.4; p < 0.05$) states. Also significant relationship exists between cosmopolitaness and farmers level of involvement in the conflict in Osun ($\chi^2 = 52.58; p < 0.05$) and Taraba states ($\chi^2 = 44.6; p < 0.05$). This finding suggest that the conflict situation in Osun and Taraba states cut across level of exposure and occupation. Therefore, attempts at conflict mediation and transformation should consider the inputs of stakeholders, where attention should be paid to conflict variables such as sex, occupation, cosmopolitaness and education. However, the contingency coefficient of 0.43 for occupation in Osun state indicates that it has more influence on farmers' level of involvement in the violent conflict than their sex. The contingency coefficient of 0.34, 0.36 and 0.43 in Taraba state shows that farmers' level of exposure

has more influence on farmers level of involvement in the conflict than the remaining two personal characteristics of farmers'. Since sex is significant in Osun states, this finding suggest that the degree of aggression among men in the society is high as it was observed by Strains and Gelles (1990). Therefore, purposeful application of conflict transformation mechanism to precisely deal with professional groups, and men alike is quite pertinent in Osun state to avert future occurrence of such conflict. Also, the conflict situation in Taraba state shows that farmers of different age grades, occupation and educational background as well as exposure beyond their village play vital roles in the conflict. At the center of Taraba state crises are the elites' competing for power and relevance. They capitalize on ethnicity to perpetuate their hidden agenda. Therefore, conflict mediation and transformation efforts must entrench conflict-associated variables into conflict management fora e.g workshop and seminars to be organised for the people in order to avert future occurrence of conflict. This postulation is further supported by the communiqué issued at the end of the National Colloquium on Conflict Resolution held in Abuja between conflict management experts and community leaders from core conflict areas where it was agreed that most of the conflicts in Nigeria are triggered by the elites and policy makers struggling for scarce national resources (Albert, 2001).

Table 27: Chi-square Analysis of Farmers' Level of Involvement in Communal Conflict and their Personal Characteristics in Osun and Taraba States

Variables description	Osun State					Taraba State			
	N	Df	X2 value	P	Contingency co-efficient	N	X2 Value	P	Contingency Co-efficient
Age	197	10	7.18	0.70NS	0.19	188	24.99	0.005	0.34
Sex	197	2	6.68	0.03*	0.18	188	4.99	0.82NS	0.16
Religion	197	6	4.65	0.58NS	0.15	188	16.97	0.00*	0.29
Marital status	197	6	12.54	0.05NS	0.20	188	5.33	0.51NS	0.46
Occupation	197	20	45.03	0.001*	0.43	188	27	0.001*	0.36
Education	197	8	9.10	0.33NS	0.21	188	29.4	0.00*	0.36
Cosmopolitn ess	197	16	52.58	0.001*	0.46	188	44.6	0.00*	0.43

Significant P < 0.05

5.7.2. *Hypothesis 2*

There is no significant difference between farmers' production level in core conflict areas and outside conflict areas after the conflict in Osun and Taraba states.

Table 28 reveals differences in farmers' crops yield level between farmers in core and outside conflict area and between the farmers in the peripheral conflict areas and outside conflict areas in Osun and Taraba states. Farmers standardized six crops mean index as shown in table 28 indicates that there is a significant difference between the farm output yield of farmers in core conflict area and outside conflict areas after the violent conflict. The difference is statistically significant in Osun state ($Z_{cal} = 8.87$; $p < 0.05$). The higher mean index of 3,208kg recorded in the outside conflict zone confirms the impact of the violent conflict on crop production in core conflict zone where lower crops mean yield index of 1,276 kg was recorded while it is assumed that other factors remain constant. Data from Taraba state indicate that there was no significant difference between farmers' standardized six crops mean yield index in core conflict area and outside conflict areas after the conflict ($Z_{cal} = 0.27$, $< Z = 1.96$). This is further corroborated by mean yield of farmers, where core conflict area recorded higher (2,706.3kg) yield index than mean yield index in outside conflict area (2,613.4kg). The higher production level 2,706.3kg recorded in core conflict area was attributed to the fact that majority of the farmers (77.2%) were not displaced and short duration of crops on the field. Osun state core conflict area felt the impact of the conflict because majority of the farmers (75.5%) were displaced and lost greater proportion of their work to conflict. Farmers who specialized on planting tree crops, which would normally require longer duration on the field to mature were affected more than their counterparts from Taraba state who specialized in short duration crops.

Table 28: Z-test Analysis of farmers output or (yield) of crops after the violent conflict in core and outside conflict zones of Osun and Taraba States

State	Strata	No. of Cases	Means	Standard Error of Different	Mean Different	Z-cal	P
Taraba State	Core	61	2706.3	338.15	92.9	0.27	1.96
	Outside	56	2613.4				
	Peripheral	71	1975	191	-638.2	3.34*	1.96
	Outside	56	2613				
Osun State	Core	61	1276	215.4	1932.2	8.97*	0.00
	Outside	69	3208				
	Peripheral	67	3547	303.4	388.8	1.28	0.08
	Outside	69	3208.2				

*Significant ($P \leq 0.05$)

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5.7.3 *Hypothesis 3*

There is no significant difference in livestock production mean number between core and outside conflict areas in Osun and Taraba states

Pertaining to livestock production level in the two states as shown in Table 29, there is a significant difference between average number of sheep and goat as well as bird, kept by farmers in core and outside conflict areas. The Z test result indicates that the difference is statistically significant for sheep and goat in Osun ($Z = 12.32$; $p < 0.05$) and Taraba states ($Z_{cal} = 10.98$, $p < 0.05$). Also, average number of birds is significantly different in Taraba ($Z = 10.91$; $p < 0.05$) and Osun states with ($Z = 12.62$; $p < 0.05$) as shown in Table 29. Furthermore, in Osun state the average number of sheep and goats kept in the outside conflict area (62) is higher than sheep and goats kept in core conflict area (14). Similarly, the average number of birds kept in the outside conflict area (90) is higher than the average number of birds kept in core conflicts area (29). Also in Taraba state, in the core conflict area there were lower number of sheep (180) and birds (547) compared to higher number of sheep and goats (2,007) and birds (2,179) kept in outside conflict area.

These findings reveal that in core conflict area the violent conflict wiped out livestock holdings of farmers, which is a major source of animal protein to rural farm families. Consequently, many farmers are likely to suffer from malnutrition and other ailments. Meanwhile, one of the major effects of the violent conflict is the decline in the income farmers realize from the sale of extra livestock. Hence, food security in the village as a result of keeping small livestock has been distorted as well as reduction in the source of protein. This calls for the intervention of related agencies particularly the

International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI) Ibadan, Nigeria. Such interventions should be in the area of economic empowerment and research that will bring about improvement in the livestock production level in the core conflict areas in particular and Nigeria in general.

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Table 29: **Z-test analysis of farmers' livestock production after the violent conflict in core and outside conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states.**

State	Variable	Strata	No. of Cases	Means	Standard Error of Difference	Mean Difference	Z-cal	P
Osun State	Cattle	Core	61	29	16.2	11.7	1.88	1.96
		Outside	56	40.7				
	Sheep and goat	Core	61	180.2	166.27	1826.8	10.98*	1.96
		Outside	56	2007.0				
	Birds	Core	61	547.0	149.50	1632	10.91*	1.96
		Outside	56	2179.0				
	Cattle	Peri outside	71	25.4	5.59	15.3	2.78*	1.96
			56	40.7				
	Sheep	Peri Outside	71	1786	276	221	0.80	1.96
			56	2007				
Birds	Peri Outside	71	1011	50.80	1168	22.9*	1.96	
		56	2179					
Taraba State	Cattle	Core	61	6.5	0.71	1.3	1.83	1.96
		Outside	69	5.2				
	Sheep	Core Outside	61	14.5	3.87	47.7	12.32*	1.96
			69	62.2				
	Birds	Core Outside	61	29.5	4.8	60.6	12.62*	1.96
			69	90.1				
	Cattle	Peri outside	67	50.7	2.47	45.5	18.4*	1.96
			69	5.2				
	Sheep	Peri outside	67	104.8	11.5	42	3.7*	1.96
			69	62.2				
	Birds	Peri outside	67	134.3	13.2	44.2	3.34*	1.96
			69	90.1				

*Significant ($P < 0.05$)

5.7.4 *Hypothesis 4*

There is no significant difference between material possession mean score levels of farmers in the core and outside conflict areas in Osun and Taraba states.

Table 30 indicates that there was a significant difference between material possession mean scores of farmers in the core and outside conflict areas of Osun state ($z = 23.4$; $P < 0.05$) and Taraba state ($z = 3.4$; $P < 0.05$).

The Material possession mean score presented further illuminations to the impact of the conflict in core conflict area where farmers in Osun state recorded lower material possession scores of 28,110.80 than farmers in the outside conflict area with mean scores of 49,367. Also, in Taraba state, the impact of the violent conflict on farmers recorded lower material possession mean scores of 23,014.60 compared to higher material possession mean scores of 56,468.45 in the outside conflict area.

Table 30: Z-test Analysis of farmers' material possession after the violent conflict in core and outside conflicts zones of Osun and Taraba states.

State	Variable	Strata	No. of Cases	Means	Standard Error of Difference	Mean Difference	Z-cal	P
Taraba State	Material Possession	Core Conflict	61	23014.6	9839.36	33453.84	3.4*	1.96
		Outside Conflict	56	56468.6				
	Material Possession	Peripheral Conflict	61	50145.5	3417.82	6322.97	1.85	1.96
		Outside Conflict	56	56468.5				
Osun State	Material Possession	Core Conflict	61	28220.8	908	21256.3	23.4*	1.96
		Outside conflict	69	49367.1				
	Material Possession	Peripheral Conflict	67	39145.1	2020.15	10221.9	5.6*	1.96
		Outside Conflict	69	49367.1				

*Significant ($P \leq 0.05$)

5.22.3 *Hypothesis 5*

There is no significant difference in farmers' crop production level across the 3 locations (core, peripheral and outside conflict areas) in Osun state.

Table 31a shows that there is a significant difference in farmers production level of the selected crops across Osun State's core, peripheral and outside conflict areas. For instance, the calculated F ratio is statistically significant for cocoa ($F = 12.37$; $P < 0.05$) and maize ($F = 75.45$; $P < 0.05$). This implies that the cocoa and maize production mean scores in core, peripheral and outside conflict areas were not equal after the violent conflict and this is the same for other crops. The Duncan New Multiple Range Test (DNMRT) in Table 31b further shows that cocoa production mean scores in core and peripheral conflict areas have about the same means, which is lower than what obtains outside the conflict area mean scores. The maize production mean scores follow the same trend. Therefore, cocoa rehabilitation programme would be necessary in the burnt farms and establishment of new or fresh farms and availability of high yielding varieties of arable crops in the area becomes imperative.

Table 31a: Analysis of variance of farmers' crops production level across the 3 conflict strata of Osun state

Variables	Source	Df	Sum of square	Mean square	F- value	P	R ²
Cocoa	Between group	2	1085247067.7	54262353	12.37*	0.01	0.49
	Within group	193	4412607317.47	22863250			
	Total	195	549787854.73				
Kolanut	Between group	2	14139774.60	706988.74	16.23*	0.01	0.14
	Within group	193	84056105.20	43552.30			
	Total	195	98195880				
Maize	Between groups	2	3784048.701	1892024350	75.45*	0.002	0.44
	Within groups	193	48460533.40	25077997			
	Total	195	134721554				
Sorghum	Between group	2	53792567	26896284	10.13*	0.02	0.095
	Within group	193	512268656.70	2654241.7			
	Total	195	566061224.56				
Yam	Between group	2	956797796	478398898	30.6*	0.01	0.24
	Within group	193	3017181796	15633066			
	Total	195	3973974592				
Cassava	Between group	2	2985968896	1492984448	61.57*	0.02	0.389
	Within group	193	4679724982	24247280			
	Total	195	7665693878				

Significant at $P < 0.05$

F value – 2

D.f. = degree of freedom

Table 31b: Duncan's multiple range tests for farmers' crops production level in Osun State

Variables	Duncan group	Mean yield	N	Location
Cocoa	A*	6284.5	69	Outside
	B	5627.2	67	Periphery
	C	1050.10	61	Core
Kolanut	A	300.20	69	Outside
	B	204.51	67	Peri
	C	93.75	61	Core
Maize	A	6000.80	69	Outside
	B	5014.90	67	Periphery
	C	885.20	61	Core
Sorghum	A	1104.50	67	Periphery
	B	900.70	69	Outside
	C	550.9	61	Core
Yam	A	5500.10	69	Outside
	B	5014.90	67	Periphery
	C	885.20	61	Core
Cassava	A	9500.06	69	Outside
	B	8910.40	67	Periphery
	C	1721.30	61	Core

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

5.7.6 Hypothesis 6

There is no significant difference in farmers production levels of six selected crops in the three conflict locations in Taraba State.

Table 32a shows that there is a significant difference in farmers' production level of the six selected crops among the 3 conflict locations in Taraba State. For example, the calculated F ratio is statistically significant for sorghum ($F = 3.6; P < 0.05$) and yam ($F = 10.5; P < 0.05$). This implies that the sorghum and yam production mean scores in core peripheral and outside conflict areas are not equal after the violent conflict, this is the same for other crops in the two states.

Furthermore, the results of the Duncan new multiple range Test in Table 32b show that sorghum production mean scores in core and peripheral conflict areas have about the same means, which is lower than outside conflict area mean score. The yam production mean scores follow the same trend.

Table32a: **Analysis of variance of farmers' crops production level across the 3 zones of Taraba state**

Variables	Source	d.f	Sum of square	Mean square	F- value	P	R ²
Cocoa	Between group	2	64429362	32214681	3.5*	0.01	0.36
	Within group	185	1711659836	9252215			
	Total	187	1776089198				
Kolanut	Between group	2	69815658	34907.82	2.9*	0.05	0.31
	Within group	185	2157365.4	11661.44			
	Total	187	2227182059				
Maize	Between group	2	307722932	153561466	36.9*	0.02	
	Within group	185	7705153664	416494.29			
	Total	187	8012276596				
Sorghum	Between group	2	232093604	116046802	3.6*	0.01	
	Within group	185	5830608524	31516803			
	Total	187	60662702128				
Yam	Between group	2	150171482	7585741	10.5*	0.00	
	Within group	185	800123227	43249907			
	Total	187	8151404255				
Cassava	Between group	2	381908629	190954314	8.9*	0.001	0.58
	Within group	185	3945979669	21329620			
	Total	187	4327888298				

Significant at $P < 0.05$

$F = 2.62$

Table 32b: Duncan's new multiple range tests for farmers' crops production level in Taraba State

Variables	Duncan group	Mean yield	N	Location
Cocoa	A*	859.30	56	Outside
	B	267.80	71	Periphery
	C	100.00	61	Core
Kolanut	A	48.49	61	Core
	B	30.41	71	Periphery
	C	25.41	56	Outside
Maize	A	5839.60	56	Outside
	B	4839.50	71	Periphery
	C	2000.00	61	Core
Sorghum	A	6082	56	Outside
	B	4911	71	Periphery
	C	3437	61	Core
Yam	A	5902	56	Outside
	B	4225	71	Periphery
	C	2786	61	Core
Cassava	A	4885.2	56	Outside
	B	1971.8	71	Periphery
	C	1450.4	61	Core

Means with the same letter are not significantly different

5.7.7 Hypothesis 7

There is no significant difference in farmers possession of livelihood material scores across the three conflict locations after the violent conflict in Osun and Taraba States.

Osun State ANOVA Analysis

Analysis of variance data in Table 33a reveals that there is a significant difference in material possession mean scores lost to the conflict among the conflict locations ($F = 9.02$; $P < 0.05$). The implication of this finding is that livelihood material mean scores lost to the conflict in core, peripheral and outside conflict areas are not equal after the violent conflict. The Duncan new multiple range test in Table 33b provides further insights which indicates that livelihood material mean scores in the outside conflict area is greater than that of core and peripheral conflict area. This further confirms the negative impact of the violent on farmers' livelihood materials possession in core and peripheral conflict areas. Hence, the effect of the conflict is not pronounced in the outside conflict area. Consequently, the conflict resulted in lost of live hood materials in among farmers in core and peripheral conflict areas as well as potential to acquire new livelihood materials. Field survey interview observation (2002) revealed that some of their livelihood materials such as cars, trucks, motorcycles, buildings, knapsack sprayer, chemicals for spraying cocoa (CuSo_4 bags), electricity generators, funitures and colour television were either confiscated, stolen or burnt during the violent conflict.

Table 33a Analysis of variance of farmers' livelihood possession materials' scores after the conflict across the 3 locations in Osun State.

Variables	Sources	D.F	Sum of Square	Mean Square	F-Value	R ²
Farmers' Livelihood possession Materials	Between group	2	13057.09	6528.54	9.02	0.111
	Within group	143	103551.6	724.13		
	Total	145	116608.55			

Significant at 0.05 F-value 2.26 D.F. = degree of freedom

Table 31b: Duncan's new multiple range tests farmers livelihood material possession across the 3 location's in Osun State

Variables	Duncan Groups	Mean	N	Location
Farmers Livelihood possession Materials	A	49367.05	69	Outside
	B	39145.06	67	Periphery
	B	28110.08	61	Core

5.7.7.2 Taraba State ANOVA Analysis

The result of the analysis of variance in table 34a reveals that there is a significant difference in farmers' livelihood material scores lost to the conflict across the 3 conflict locations after the violent conflict. There was evident of significant difference in farmers' livelihood material scores ($F = 19.39$; $P < 0.05$). Thus, farmer' livelihood mean scores for the three conflict locations are not the same. The result of Duncan new multiple range test in Table 34b further confirm that the livelihood material mean scores obtained in both the outside and peripheral conflict areas are more or less the same, and higher than that of the core conflict area. The implication of this finding is that the conflict impact is more pronounced on farmers' materials possession in the core conflict area than farmers in peripheral and outside conflict areas. The negative impact of the violent conflict is well pronounced in core conflict area than in peripheral and outside conflict areas.

Additional insight from farmers interviewed revealed that they lost almost all their livelihood materials and lost hope of acquiring new ones in the nearest future. According to the farmers, some of the livelihood materials lost during and after the conflict include among others: tractors and various implements, motorcycles, donkeys, cars, trucks, rugs, knapsack sprayers, electricity generators and colour television.

Table 32a Analysis of variance of farmers' livelihood possession materials' scores after conflict in Taraba state.

Variables	Source	D.F.	S.S.	M.S.	F-cal	R ²
Farmers' Livelihood Materials	Between Group	2	69989949	34774.2	19.39	0.75
	Within Group	166	276187.94	1805.15		
	Total	188	346176.99			

Significant at $P < 0.05$, Tabulated F value 2.62.

Table32b Duncan's New Multiple range tests for Farmers livelihood possession materials' scores.

Variables	Ducan Group	Mean	M	Location
Farmers' Livelihood Sustenance Materials	A	56468.45	56	Outside
	B	50145.48	71	Periphery
	B	23014.61	61	Core

CHAPTER SIX

6.0. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides summary of the entire study, highlights the objectives and major findings of the study, conclusion, recommendations as well as suggested areas of further research.

6.1 Introduction

The study examined farmers' livelihood in conflict and non-conflict areas of Osun and Taraba States farmers' livelihoods in the two states were contingent upon their production levels from various agricultural enterprises. In coping with livelihood sustainability, farmers compete for scarce resources that exist in limited quantities. Competitions create a situation where people struggle for possession of these scarce resources, which often generate conflict. Conflict situation threaten livelihood outcomes and termination of farmers sustainable livelihood income. The 1986 edict that led to the ban on importation of food crops resulted in farmers' interest in massive production of cash crops with clear prospects for export and higher income generation. The embargo also led to increase in the prices of various agricultural commodities such as cocoa, kolanut and grains (maize and sorghum) in Osun and Taraba states respectively. Hence, the profit margin obtained by farmers over the years was expended on purchase of livelihood essential materials. Others invested on small-scale agro-based industries and embarked on self-help rural developments projects. It is evidently clear that farmers that were in the least advantage groups prior to the embargo suddenly moved up to obtain higher socio-economic status.

Despite the huge investment and farmers' achievement level within the study area, it is evident from diverse consulted sources that incessant communal conflicts constitute the rampant social disease in the two states. The conflicts became more problematic as it gradually spread from urban areas to predominantly farming communities. Attempts made by the Federal Government of Nigeria to mediate in the conflicts through concerted administrative and judicial panels of enquiries failed on several occasions. Consequently, it became clear that there is need to investigate the actual causes of the conflict, assess the farmers' losses after the violent conflicts qualitatively and quantitatively. In addition, the data on farmers perceived rehabilitation strategies and mechanisms to prevent future occurrence of conflicts were generated through bottom up scientific research approach or methodology.

It is against this background that the study attempted to assess farmers' production level and possession of livelihood materials, satisfaction derived from ceremonies and participation in recreation in conflict and non-conflict areas. It also investigated the actual causes of the conflicts and generated farmers' perception of conflict rehabilitation and mediation strategies.

State was stratified into 3-conflict strata core, peripheral, and outside conflict strata, based on conflict severity and proximity of the stratum to core conflict stratum. In core conflict stratum villages were purposively sampled, those villages where anecdotal account of conflict is evident were selected for the research. In peripheral conflict stratum, villages were selected based on their proximity to core conflict stratum while simple random sampling technique were used to select villages in outside conflict stratum. Sampling frame work for the study is the list of farmers or register compiled by

the Agricultural Development Programme. From the register of farmers 10.0% of farmers were randomly selected in each stratum. A structure questionnaire was used for data collection and 385 farmers consisting 197 farmers from Osun and 188 farmers from Taraba State participated in the research.

Data obtained were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages. Percentages were used to describe the frequency counts, in relation to the frequencies that indicate the pattern of respondents' reactions to items in the questionnaire. Chi-square was used to test for the degree of relationship between farmers' personal characteristics and their level of involvement in the conflict.

In another dimension, Z-test statistics was used to test for differences in farmers' livelihood variables, such as production level and possession of livelihood materials after the conflict. ANOVA and Duncan new multiple range analyses were used to determine the differences in farmers livelihood variables in the three zones after the conflict. All hypotheses in the study were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

6.2 Summary of major findings

6.2.1 Personal characteristics of farmers in Osun and Taraba States.

Findings revealed that majority (80.0%) of the farmers across 3 conflict strata were young and in their active years with average age range of 40-42years old. Hence, they are young farmers who still have the energy to cope with the rigours of farming. The sample comprised higher proportion of male farmers (83.6% and 86.8%) of male farmers in core conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states respectively. While 16.4% and 13.2% were female farmers in Osun and Taraba respectively. More than

50.0% of farmers were of medium house hold size of 5-8 across the conflict strata in Osun and Taraba states.

6.2.2 Social economic characteristics of farmers

This result indicates that in core conflict areas, 72.5% and 71.4% of the farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively attended school and this trend caught across the 3 conflicts strata. In the core conflict areas most of the farmers in Osun state (67.2%) and Taraba state (80.5%) belonged to one or more social groups

Findings further reveal that cosmopolitaness of sampled farmers is very high. In the two states, greater proportion (100%) had reasons to travel out of their villages to other towns and in some cases to other states. However, in the core conflict areas, 57.0% of the farmers in Osun state and 62.9% in Taraba state had traveled out of their villages more than eleven times. That is, they have had the opportunity to interact with other people outside their villages. A detailed analysis of agricultural engagement variables reveal the farming situation and variables that boost farmers' production level in Osun and Taraba States. Land ownership result indicates that 70.5% and 49.2% of the farmers are tenant farmers in Osun and Taraba states core conflict areas respectively. Also, 9.8% and 39.3% of the farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively have large farm holdings of 21-25ha. In the core conflict areas, 9.8% and 50.9% of farmers use mechanical sources of farm labour in Osun and Taraba states respectively.

6.2.3. Farmers level of involvement in the conflict

Results also indicate that 60% and 70% of the sampled farmers in core conflict areas participated actively in the violent conflict in Osun and Taraba states respectively. Hence, they are likely to bear the consequences of participating in the conflict or feel the impact of the conflict more than farmers located in the peripheral and outside conflict zones.

The result of chi square analysis reveals that sex ($X^2 = 6.68$; $P < 0.05$); marital status ($X^2 = 12.5$; $P < 0.05$); occupation ($X^2 = 45.03$; $P < 0.05$) cosmopolitanness ($X^2 = 52.58$; $P < 0.05$) were significantly related to farmers level of involvement in the violent conflict in Osun state. However, religion ($X^2 = 4.65$; $P > 0.05$); education ($X^2 = 9.10$; $P > 0.05$) are not significantly related. In Taraba state, farmers' age ($X^2 = 24.27$; $P < 0.05$); religion ($X^2 = 16.97$; $P < 0.05$); occupation ($X^2 = 27$; $P < 0.05$); education ($X^2 = 29.4$; $P < 0.05$) and cosmopolitanness ($X^2 = 44.6$; $P < 0.05$) were significantly related to farmers level of involvement in the violent conflicts on one hand and on the other hand sex ($X^2 = 4.99$; $P > 0.05$) and marital status ($X^2 = 5.33$; $P > 0.05$) are not significantly related to level of involvement

6.2.4. Farmers perception of the cause of the violent conflicts in Osun and Taraba states.

It is evident from the farmers' viewpoints that the actual cause of the conflicts across the two states has to do with agitation for autonomy to control land and its resources. Other plausible reasons identified by the farmers includes: population growth leading to expansion of the use of farm land and of the farmers attributed the cause of the conflict to personal disagreement on controversial issues such as dispute over farm boundary and destruction of crops and killing of livestock. Other reasons have to do with

agitation for creation of local government as well as territorial disputes. These are the main reasons or plausible explanation for the conflict in the two states.

6.2.5. Land Availability and Utilization for Agricultural Purposes in Osun and Taraba States

The section assessed the number of farmers that remained on their farmlands in post conflict period and tenant farmers accessibility to their abandoned farm during the conflict. Finding revealed that in core conflict area, 75.4% and 23.8% of the farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively were displaced from their farms. They have been denied resumption on their farms, which is a clear deprivation and access to means of livelihood. Z – test analysis shows that there is a significant difference in farmers crop production index in core and outside conflict areas in Osun ($Z = 8.97$; $p < 0.05$) but not significant in Taraba State ($Z = 0.27$, $P > 0.05$ (1.96). Production is a dynamic variable, hence, there was significant difference in production level of crops across the location after the conflict. However, the crops and livestock production index in core conflict area is lower than what is obtainable in outside conflict areas of the two states.

Findings show that cocoa production level differed across the three conflict zones in Osun State ($F = 2.9$; $P < 0.05$). The variation in cocoa production level across the conflict zones in Osun State shows that lower proportion yields were obtained in core conflict zone ($X = 1050.1$ kg) while significantly higher yields were obtained in peripheral ($X = 5,627.2$) compared to highest yields of $X = 6,284.5$ kg obtained in the outside conflict zones. Similar result was obtained for maize, which differ among the conflict zones after the conflict ($F = 75.49$; $P < 0.05$). The maize mean yield variation among the conflict zones is lower ($X = 885.20$ kg) in core conflict area than in peripheral

conflict stratum ($X = 5,014.9\text{kg}$) and higher in outside conflict area ($X = 6,000.8\text{kg}$) after the conflict.

Similarly, in Taraba State, yam yield level differs among the conflict strata ($F = 17.5$; $P < 0.05$). The yam yield level among the conflict strata indicates that core conflict recorded lower yield index ($X = 2,786.0\text{kg}$) compared to peripheral conflict zone that recorded higher yield index ($X = 4,225.\text{kg}$). The yield is obviously different in the outside conflict area where the highest yield index of $5,902.0\text{kg}$ was recorded. Meanwhile, Sorghum production yield index differ among the conflict locations ($F = 3.6$; $P < 0.05$) after the conflict. The variation in Sorghum yield index among the conflict zones indicate that in the outside conflict area, the highest yield index data was obtained ($X = 1104.50\text{kg}$), this is followed by peripheral conflict area ($X = 900.7\text{kg}$) while core conflict area yield data is the lowest ($X = 550.8\text{kg}$). The yield data for crops further confirm that farmers in core conflict areas of the two states felt the impact of the conflict more than the other two zones.

6.2.6. Farmers' level of crops production in post conflict period in Osun and Taraba States.

In Osun state farmers produce tree crops such as cocoa, kolanut, and oranges, while in Taraba state farmers specialize in the production of food crops such as maize, sorghum, rice, millet, and beans. Findings reveals that farmers' six crops standardized mean yield weight of $3,547\text{kg}$ obtained in the outside conflict area of Osun State was significantly higher than $1,276\text{kg}$ mean yield weight of six crops obtained in the core conflict area. However, in Taraba State, the discrepancy between six crops standardized mean weight of $2,706.3\text{kg}$ recorded in core conflict area and crops mean yield weight of

2,613.4kg in the outside conflict area was narrow because majority (76.2%) of the farmers were not displaced and farmers often plant short duration maturing crops.

6.2.7. Livestock farmers' production level in post conflict periods in Osun and Taraba states

Farmers in Osun State kept local breeds of fowls and ducks as well as sheep and goats. Taraba state farmers kept local breed of fowls, turkeys guineafowl, sheep, ram, and goat. Mean variation analysis shows that in post conflict period; farmers' in core conflict area of Osun State kept lower number of fowl 30, sheep and goat (15) compared to higher number of fowls(134) and sheep and goats kept (105) in peripheral conflict area. In Taraba State, the core conflict area recorded lower production of birds(180), sheep and goats (547) compared to higher number recorded for production of sheep and goats (2,007), birds (2,179) in the outside conflict area.

A comparative analysis of crops and livestock holdings reveals that crop farmers felt the impact of the communal conflict than their livestock counterparts in Osun state, whereas in Taraba state reverse was the case. This is evident in the wide disparity between crop yield and livestock number kept after the conflict, where such declines were more in the crops sector.

6.2.8. Farmers possession of livelihood materials in post conflict periods in Osun and Taraba states.

In an attempt to assess farmers' possession of 26 selected livelihood materials such as cement plastered houses, radio, ox-plough, tractor, television, private car, hoe, truck/lorry and donkey. It was apparent from the results that in Osun state core conflict area, farmers possession of livelihood material scores of 28,110.80 is lower than 49,367.10 obtained in the outside conflict area in post conflict period. Similar decline

was observed in Taraba state where core conflict area recorded lower material possession mean score of 23,014.6 compared to higher material possession mean scores of 56,418.5 in the outside conflict area. Results of the analysis of Z- test for differences between level of farmers possession of livelihood materials mean scores in core and outside conflict areas after the conflict shows that differences exist between what obtains in Osun state ($Z= 23.4$; $P< 0.05$) and Taraba state ($Z =3.4$ ' $P< 0.05$). Osun state farmers' possession of livelihood material scores varied across core, peripheral and outside conflict areas ($F=19.4$; $P< 0.05$). Mean scores in the 3 locations reveal farms that are in the outside conflict zone recorded higher material possession mean scores of $X =49,367.05$ while that of the peripheral conflict area was lower ($X =29,145.06$) and core conflict area was the lowest ($X =28,110.08$).

In Taraba State, farmers' material possession varied among the strata ($F = 9.0$, $P <0.05$). Hence, livelihood material mean scores variation for outside conflict zone ($X = 56, 468.5$); peripheral conflict zone ($X = 50, 145.48$) and core conflict stratum ($X = 23, 014.61$) indicates that the impact of the conflict in core conflict zone is higher than other zones (peripheral and outside conflict strata).

6.2.9. Farmers migration pattern in Osun and Taraba States

The pattern of movement of the farmers during and after the violent conflict was examined. The result indicates that over 55.7% of the farmers in the two states migrated from their original farmland to other areas. However, state specific data shows that in core conflict areas of Osun and Taraba states, 82.0% and 60.7% of the farmers respectively migrated after the conflict. This pattern of movement is known as emigration, which implies movement of the people from place of origin to another place.

This finding substantiates the assertion of Ekong (2003) which postulates that social upheavals, violence of diverse origins; religion, ethnic and political instability, suspected or real persecution may lead to migration that force people to move out of their original locations to escape devastations associated with conflicts.

6.2.11 Suggested Rehabilitation Strategies in the Violent Conflict Zones in Osun and Taraba states.

In order to cope with economic hardship precipitated by the conflict in the two states, farmers suggested various rehabilitation strategies. Prominent strategies advanced by farmers particularly focused on provision of improved early maturing seeds of maize, beans, rice and tubers of yam, cassava stem as well as cocoa and kolanut seedling. Top in the list also, are the provision of credit facilities to farmers , reduction in the price of building material and supply of farm inputs at subsidized prices . Finally, farmers opined that tenant farmers must be loyal and respect the traditional rulers in their places of tenancy or abode.

6.2.12. Suggested Conflict Mediation Strategies in Osun and Taraba states.

In Osun state, farmers recommended a number of conflict mediation strategies would included, discouraging killing of farmers and regular payment of tax to local governments where their farms are located. A higher proportion of the farmers call for stoppage of the illegal appointment of village heads by tenants. However, in Taraba state, majority of the farmers want a clear demarcation between grazing reserves and farmlands. Similar positions were held by another higher proportion of farmers who want political offices to be shared among the people in the community regardless of their tenancy status (whether tenants or land owners).

6.3 Conclusion

In the light of the results of the study, the following major conclusions were drawn. Majority of the sampled farmers (80.0%) were still in their active years (<50years old) in the two states. That is they are in their acquisition and consolidation stages of life where participation in social group activities are concentrated on economic activities. In core conflict areas greater proportion (72% and 71.4%) of the farmer in Osun and Taraba states respectively has one form of education or the other. The implication of this finding is that farmers who are educated are likely to have more access to conflict handling information via news print, media and other sources. In terms of ownership of farmland a higher proportion of farmers in Osun State (70.5%) and lower proportion of farmers in Taraba state (44.2%) are tenants in core conflict areas. Also, a significant size of sampled farmers 75% and 63% in Osun and Taraba States respectively were actively involved in the communal conflicts.

Findings further revealed that: agitation for autonomy to use land and its natural resources, scrambling for position of authority which may be kingship title, chieftancy title and elected political position and insecurity of lives and properties are the actual causes of conflicts in Osun and Taraba States. Farmers depend solely on products from more than one agricultural product for their livelihood. The conflict had severe impact on crops and livestock production that constitute farmers' means of livelihood, as well as possession of livelihood materials in the two states. Also, farmers in core conflict areas recorded lower material possession scores of 28,110.8 and 23,014.6 in Osun and Taraba states respectively in post conflict period. The result of the vandalized properties in Osun

and Taraba states indicates that conflict is highly severe on farmers' material possession in Taraba state than Osun state.

The conflict also affected farmers' income negatively in core conflict areas, since their income was lower than their counterparts in outside and peripheral conflict areas. It also disrupted pleasure farmers derive from social activities in the core conflict areas since the satisfaction mean scores are lower than peripheral and outside conflict areas. Consequently, 70.0% and 69.0% of the farmers in Osun and Taraba states respectively live below poverty line. Furthermore poverty and income levels of farmers in the core conflict area reveal that farmers may be suffering from malnutrition, starvation and infectious diseases that are clear signs of poverty. The conflict has crippled economic and social activities in Osun and Taraba states especially in the conflict zones of the two states. Over 50% of the conflict victims in the two states suggested that the best way to improve their living standard is provision of improved crops and livestock species. In addition, others recommended reduction in the price of building materials, subsidizing agricultural inputs. Other mediation measures suggested by the respondents relate to provision of tight security for farmers and their properties as well as farmers obtaining free access to use land and its natural resources. Also, some call for recognition of existing informal political institutions in the study areas of Osun and Taraba states.

6.4 Recommendations

Based on findings from the study, recommendations are made with specific reference to conflict management in Osun and Taraba states, and other states in Nigeria the recommendations are : -

- (i) formation of farmers conflict mediation consultative committee should be encouraged in the two states. Such a committee will be in a vantage position to feel the pulse of the people and prevent emergence of conflict situations in the area before it escalates further to any damaging level.
- (ii) tenant farmers that must have lived among the host communities for upward of 50years should be allowed to buy land and obtain absolute ownership of such lands without hindrance. This is particularly significant, given that most of the crises witnessed are associated with “settler” syndrome in some parts of Nigeria.
- (iii) legal recognition of tenets in customary tenancy agreements through its inclusion in the proposed revision of land use act becomes pertinent. Its inclusion will encourage and serve as additional security to the present and future customary tenants.
- (iv) Nigeria Agricultural Cooperative and Rural Development Bank and Commercial Banks should be encouraged to give agricultural loans at low interest rates to genuine farmers in Osun and Taraba states in order to improve farming and farmers' livelihoods.
- (v) farmers request for provision of credit facilities to improve the situation of their destroyed farms and farm buildings. Also, federal and state agencies with mandate for housing provision should help to procure building materials to be sold at subsidized rates to farmers affected by the conflict in the two states
- (vi) capacity building for farmers should be encouraged through formation of rural cooperative societies or related associations to facilitate farmers access to loan facilities with less burden for collateral security requirements.

- (vii) Agricultural Inputs Supply Company(A.I.S.C) in the two states should endeavour to focus on supply of farm inputs to farmers at subsidized rates and prevent farmers from purchasing adulterated and very expensive farm inputs from the private input supply agencies in their areas.
- (viii) conflict management strategies should be incorporated into agricultural extension education curriculum, through organized formidable sensitization programmes as part of the training of stakeholders, including political leaders, community and religious leaders. This will provide opportunity for stakeholders to provide leadership role on how to manage conflicts in their communities.

6.5 Areas for Further Research

As a follow up to the study the following areas are suggested for further research:

- i. Efforts should be made to carry out similar research work in other parts of the country to provide for general assertion on the impact of communal conflicts on farmers' livelihood in other areas infested with conflict. For instance Plateau, Delta and Ondo states are the most visible and deserve empirical analysis of the situation. This bottom up research strategy in conflict mediation or intervention becomes imperative because the fire brigade approach characterized by mockery sort of panels of enquiry and court injunctions of the past had failed to bring lasting solutions to series of conflicts across the country.
- ii. New insight into the impact of communal conflicts on marketing activities of rural women in conflict ridden areas. The fact that more women are

involved in food processing and product distribution than farming makes the topic relevant to plan an appropriate economic empowerment programme for women in the area.

- iii. Further assesement of the impact of communal conflict on agricultural extension agents activities in conflict ridden areas justify the need for stronger research extension and farmers linkage to boost agricultural production.
- iv. There is also a need for conflict management strategies and resources improvement among sedentary farmers and pastoralists. The research becomes necessary, in order to prevent incessant conflict over the use of land and its natural resources by sedentary farmers and pastoralists in Nigeria.
- v. Appropriate reparation for farmers in On-shore and Off-shore oil region of Nigeria to prevent resource conflict in some states. The research on appropriate reparation for farmers in on-shore and off-shore oil region of Nigeria should be conducted in order to prevent incessant vandilization of oil pipe lines and killing of oil workers in Niger Delta areas using this reserach approach (bottom up research approach). Moreover, the incessant conflicts by the aggrieved youth and adult of which farmers are likely to form majority of these are not satisfactorily compensated.

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APPENDICES

- (d) Post Primary school []
 (e) Tertiary education []

Highest Qualification (indicate):

- (a) GCE/SSCE [] (b) Grade II [] (c) OND []
 (d) NCE [] (e) HND/B.Sc. [] (f) M.Sc. and
 above []
 (g) Others
-

8. Indicate number of time you have traveled and distance covered outside your village
-

9. Are you an indigene of this village? (indicate) Yes [] No []

10. If No, where are you from?
-

SECTION B:

CONFLICT ISSUES

1. Has any communal conflict ever occurred in your village? Yes [] No []

2. If yes, what type of conflict was it?
-

3. How many times has it
-

4. Indicate which of the following conflict sign often preceded the occurrence of the conflict.

- (a) Petition [] (b) Riot [] (c) Strike []
 (d) Demonstration [] (e) Public Rally [] (f) Riot []

(g) Others

specify

5. In your own opinion which of the following provocative situations could be attributed to the conflict.

(a) Violation of tenancy agreement []

(b) Envy []

(c) Jealousy []

(d) Disagreement []

(e) Others

specify

6. Indicate the world opposite each statement that best express your opinion about causes of the conflict in your environ. That is your agreement and is agreement with each of the statement.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Cultural values					
Desire for autonomy					
Territorial dispute					
Creation of Local Government					
Scarcity of Resources					
Population growth					
Others specify					

7. Were you involved in the conflict? Yes [] No []

8. Check the word opposite each statement that best express your role in the conflict.

	Statements	Active	Seldom	Never
a.	Donation of money			
b.	Supply of food			
c.	Purchase of Ammunition			
d.	Use of ammunition			
e.	Remove of bullets from war victim's body locally			
f.	Preparation of concussions			
g.	Transportation of warriors			
h.	Co-ordination of activities			
i.	Report of war situation			
j.	Attendance of reconciliation meeting			
k.	Others specify			

SECTION C

IMPACT OF THE CONFLICT ON FARM SIZE AND LABOUR AVAILABILITY FOR ECONOMIC LIVELIHOOD ACTIVITIES.

1. Do you own a land of your own? (a) Yes [] (b) No []
2. If yes, indicate mode of acquiring:
 - (a) Inheritance [] (b) Leased [] (c) Purchase []
 - (d) Gift [] (e) Others specify _____
3. Indicate the number of acres cultivated?

Farm size in acres (a) <5 (b) 6-10 (c) 11-15 (d) 16-20
4. Do you employ manual labour for your farm operation? Yes [] No []
5. Source of farm labour:
 1. _____ 4. _____
 2. _____ 5. _____
 3. _____ 6. _____
6. Describe how often farm labour is available for farm operation.
 - (a) Surplus (b) Adequate (c) Inadequate (d) Scarce
 - (e) Not Available

SECTION D**IMPACT OF COMMUNAL CONFLICT ON FARMERS PRODUCTION LEVEL**

1. For how long have you been in farming business?

2. Indicate proportion of farm acres to tree cops:

(a) < -5 [] (b) 6 – 10 acres [] (c) 11-15 acres []

(d) 16-20 acres (e) 21-25 acres

3. Which of the tree crops do you plant?

4. Indicate proportion of farm acres to food crops.

(a) < -5 [] (b) 6 -10 [] (c) 11-15 acres []

(d) 16 – 20 [] (e) 21-25 []

5. Which of the food crops do you plant?

6. State actual yield level for each crop.

Cocoa _____

Kolanut _____

Maize _____

Sorgum _____

Yam _____

Cassava _____

7. State the number of animal kept:

Cow

Sheep

&

Goat

Bird

Fish

SECTION E

IMPACT OF COMMUNAL CONFLICT ON FARMERS' MATERIAL POSSESSION

Check material items possessed.

S/No	Items	
1	Houses	
2	Huts	
3	Kerosene stove	
4	Mattresses	
5	Metal buckets	
6	Floor mats	
7	Radio	
8	Generators	
9	Televisions	
10	Cassette Players	
11	Horses	
12	Cow	
13	Ox Plough	
14	Spade/Shovels	
15	Tractor	
16	Trunk/Lorry	
17	Knap sack sprayer	
18	Cutlass	
19	Hoes	
20	Private car	
21	Motor cycle	
22	Personal well	
23	Silo	
24	Number of wives	
25	Number of children	
26	Children in higher institution	

SECTION F**MIGRATION PATTERN OF FARMERS AFTER THE CONFLICT**

1. Have you moved out of the village after the conflict? Yes [] No []
2. Indicate your movement pattern
 - (a) Migration to villages in other states []
 - (b) Migration to other state []
 - (c) Migration to neighbouring town []
 - (d) Migration to other villages within the states []
 - (e) Do not migrate at all
3. If you do not migrate, why?

a. _____	c. _____
b. _____	d. _____
4. If you migrate, Why?

a. _____	c. _____
b. _____	d. _____
5. Is Migration affecting your livelihood? Yes [] No []
6. Have you been able to repair your properties in opponents' land?
Yes [] No []
10. Why have you not been able?
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____

SECTION H**NON FARMING ACTIVITIES**

1. Do you engage in non-farming activities? Yes [] No []
2. If yes, why do you engaged in non-farming activities?
- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
3. Indicate the word that best describes your regularity in performing the following listed non-farming activities.

Non-farming activities	Regularly	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
Hunting				
Weaving basket				
Cloth weaving				
Dying				
Mat making				
Smiting				
Pottery				

SECTION 1**SOCIAL ACTIVITIES**

1. What are the prevailing ceremonies in your area?

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

2. Kindly rate your satisfaction level derived from these listed ceremonies

Ceremonies	High satisfaction	Low satisfaction	No satisfaction
Naming ceremony			
Marriage ceremony			
Funeral ceremony			
Ileya ceremony			
Christmas festival			
Other festivals			

RECREATION

How often do you perform these recreational activities?

Recreational Activities	Regularly	Occasionally	Never
Beer parlour			
Film house			
Wrestling			
Folk tales in Moonlight			
Swimming inside stream			
Playing Ayo game under tree			
Others			

Membership of Development Unions

1. Do you belong to any development union? Yes [] No []
2. Which of the development unions?

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

3. How often to you attend the following selected development unions in the society?

Development Union	Regularly	Occasionally	Never
Age Grade			
Town Union			
Village Society			
Social Club			
Other society			

SECTION J

REHABILITATION STRATEGIES

- 1. Have you received relief package since the conflict ended? Yes [] No []
- 2. From which organization?
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____
- 3. In your own opinion, to what extent have these solved your problems.
 - (a) Recovering of my farm land [] (b) Establishment of my business []
 - (c) Rebuilding of my house [] (d) Upsetting of my debt []
 - (e) Others

specify _____

- 4. In you own opinion in this an appropriate rehabilitation strategies? Yes [] No []

5. If no suggest appropriate rehabilitation strategies to the conflict

- a. _____
 b. _____
 c. _____
 d. _____

SECTION K

CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES

1. Do you think conflict can be resolved? Yes [] No []

2. Name organization that have made attempt to solve the conflict.

- a. _____
 b. _____
 c. _____
 d. _____

3. Any solution achieved? Yes [] No []

4. Why intervention failed to provide solution?

- a. _____
 b. _____
 c. _____
 d. _____

5. Suggest appropriate ways of resolving the conflict.

- a. _____
 b. _____
 c. _____
 d. _____

Appendix 3

Grouping of farmers according to production level

Crop	Category	Unit
Cocoa	Moderately poor	≥ 500kg
	Average	≥ 1000kg
	High	≥ 2000kg
Kolanut	Moderately poor	≥ 500kg
	Average	≥ 1000kg

Maize	High	≥200kg
	Moderatly poor	≥ 500kg
	Average	≥1000kg
Sorghum	High	≥200kg
	Moderatly poor	≥ 500kg
	Average	≥1000kg
Yam	High	≥200kg
	Moderatly poor	≥ 500kg
	Average	≥1000kg
Cassava	High	≥200kg
	Moderatly poor	≥ 500kg
	Average	≥1000kg
	High	≥200kg

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Appendix 4**Grouping of farmers into poverty categories using poverty scale index**

Computed Data from table

Mean household convenience items scores MPHHCIS = $\frac{\text{Total scores of HHCTS}}{\text{No of house hold}}$

States	Catalogue	HHCT scores	HHC Mean	1/3 of HHCT Scores	2/3 of HHCT scores
Osun	Core	249813	4095.30	1351.04	2743.85
	Periph	428921	6401.80	2112.06	4289.2
	Out side conflict	568941	8245.5	2721.0	5524.3
Taraba					
State	Core conflict	358912	5883.80	1941.7	3942.2
	Periphery	437931	6168.0	2035.5	4132.6
	Out side	618421	11043.2	3644.19	7398.1

APPENDIX 5**Average Crops Local Prices (₦/k) from Rural Markets (2002)**

STATE	LOCAL CROPS					
	Maize	Sorghum	Yam	Cassava	Kolanut	Cocoa
Osun State	45.8	40.8	35.34	11.3	1,311	700
Taraba State	35.58	38.2	63.66	33.97	1,367	1000

Source: Rural Market Survey 2002.

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APPENDIX 6**AVERAGE LIVESTOCK LOCAL PRICES (₦/K) FROM RURAL MARKETS****2002**

STATES	CATTLE	SHEEP	GOAT
Osun State	11,650	2,420	775
Taraba State	8,292	1570	520

Source: Rural Market Survey 2002

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APPENDIX 7**LIVELIHOOD ITEMS AND WEIGHT**

SERIAL NUMBER	LIVELIHOOD ITEMS	WEIGHT
1	Houses	3
2	Huts	2
3	Kerosine stove	3
4	Mattresses	4
5.	Metal buckets	2
6	Floor mats	1
7	Radio	3
8	Generators	5
9	Televisions	5
10	Cassette Players	3
11	Horses	5
12	Cow	4
13	Ox plough	3
14	Spade/shovels	2
15	Tractor	5
16	Trunk/Lorry	5
17	Knap sack sprayer	2
18	Cutlass	1
19	Hoes	1
20	Private car	4
21	Motor cycle	3
22	Personal well	4
23	Silo	4
24	Number of wives	2
25	Number of children	2
26	Children in higher institution	3

Source: Village Item Rural Survey 2002