

# The Impact of Globalisation of Violence Conflict Resolution in Africa: A Case Study of Nasarawa State Nigeria

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*Abstract- The study analysed the impacts Globalisation of violent conflicts resolution on the economy of rural communities in Nasarawa State, Nigeria. Primary data were collected from the respondents using a structured interview schedule, while focus group discussions (FGD) sessions were employed to assess effects of conflicts on communities. Data were analysed using simple descriptive statistics, alternative resource cost estimation (ARCE) and content analysis while the Likert scale was used to measure the perception of respondents towards the causes of conflicts. There were six (6) major categories of conflicts identified in the area. These categories were communal conflicts, ethnic conflicts, resource conflicts (most often land conflicts), politically motivated conflicts, conflicts due to traditional chieftaincy, and the conflicts between state forces and militia groups. Expansion of agro-pastoralism (4.6) and Extensive sedentism (4.5) were very serious factors that were perceived to lead to conflicts. A total of ₦2,289,859,549 worth 30.28% of the State's 2018 IGR (Internal Generated Revenue) were lost in these conflicts. It was recommended that laws regarding people with diverse backgrounds and socioeconomic needs and population growth in relation to limited resources should be developed with great care and attention paid to all the parties involved in the process. Participatory approaches to problem need to be established in the communities with regular interactions between and among locals periodically and frequently.*

**Keywords:** *Impact, Globalisation, Impact of Globalisation, Conflict, Conflict Resolution, Conflict Resolution in Africa.*

## I. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Several contexts affect the rural economy in Nigeria and define or influence definitions of livelihood strategies of dwellers thereof. Conflict is a very critical context. This is coupled with population pressure and hence, land scarcity, land conflicts have raised concerns over likely food

insecurity and high poverty incidence in the affected areas [1,2]. Farmers and pastoralists have identified conflict as the most important problem they face in the course of executing their different trades [3,4]. Most households in Nigeria's middle belt have reportedly experienced land-related crisis and several villages have experienced conflicts of different forms and varying proportions [5,6]. Sociologists define conflict as a social fact in which at least two parties are involved and whose origins are different; either in interests or in the social position of the parties [7].

Wehrmann [8] posited that land conflict can be understood as a misuse, restriction or dispute over property rights to land. Viewed as such, land conflicts may be aggravated even further when the conflicting parties have considerable differentials in social status, this is to the disadvantage of the party further lower in the social hierarchy.

Zartman [9] advances that conflicts are ineluctable in human interactions and are essentially concomitant with decisions and choices. This point of view projects the position of conflict theorists who see conflicts as effectively unavoidable in society. Conflict is further defined as a situation in which two or more parties strive to acquire the same scarce resources at the same time [10]. Scholars agree that there has to exist multiple factors acting to have a conflict and that the time as a factor of conflict is important. What does cause concern, however, is the term 'scarce resource'. The focal point of this argument is scarcity, but resources need also be included in the discussion.

Wallensteen [10] pointed out that resources are not only economic in nature, and that the terminology may very well exclude in its scope conflicts involving economic orientation, human security, environment, historical issues, et cetera. Such conflicts are not necessarily about resources, and when they are, these resources are, more importantly, not necessarily scarce. In congruity, Gausset et al. [11] asserted that “the same territory, landscape or resource can be perceived very differently by different people, and what has been interpreted as conflict over scarce resources often appears to be conflict of perspectives, over the definition of resource, and over the resource management rules.” Conflict may be said to exist when two or more groups engage in a struggle over values and claims to status, power and resources in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralize, injure or eliminate the rivals [12]. A conflict is, moreover, in many cases based on perceptions, rather than on attitudes or behaviour as it has generally been defined [10]. Conflict is a demonstration of parallel purposes of distinct or similar political groups which often ends in political violence.

According to Anifowose [13], who contextualized it in a Weberian sense, in his book *Violence and Politics in Nigeria*, conflict is an acceptable weapon to ventilate anger. Conflict also depicts different perceptions, which may not strictly result in hostility. This way, conflict simply means ‘a different perception’ or view to an issue or situation [14]. Here, it may mean a different interpretation of a motive or a different world-view as perceived by different people from their own partial perspectives. These include religion, customs, cosmologies or values. Such differences may never culminate in direct and sharp confrontations. On the other hand, however, different perceptions, values or world-views may transcend just ‘differences’ and result in the extreme connotation of conflict. Inter-faith violence is a critical example of such breakdown. Conflict may also refer to hostility or physical confrontation [12]. When goal incongruence or perception/value differences reach a climax, a manifestation of actual hostility or clashes is possible. Yet conflict is necessary for the perpetuation of society, “the

desire to eradicate conflict, the hope for harmony and universal cooperation, is the wish for a frozen, unchanging world with all relationships fixed in their patterns – with all in balance” [15].

Rummel [15] viewed conflict as a balancing of vectors of powers, of capabilities to produce effects. It is a clash of powers. However, conflict does not amount to a balance, or equilibrium, of powers. It is not a stable resultant. ‘Conflict is the pushing and pulling, the giving and taking, the process of finding the balance between powers.’ Rummel further established that conflict existed in the chronological levels of potentiality, dispositions, and manifestations. As a potentiality conflict can be seen to mean the space available for conflict to occur. Potentiality is the environmental provisions that are likely to trigger conflicts as a result of the divergent realities and perspectives that are ever-present. It may be called a conflict-space. Disposition, and powers, on the hand, refers to the potential for conflict gradually transforming toward specific trends and gaining the strength to be manifest. Examples of conflict structures that may describe dispositions are slave and master, bourgeoisie and proletariat, peasant and landowners. If these two actors in the three categories of examples agree to their position in society then there exists a conflict structure.

However, if modernity and civilization cause the weaker actors, such as the slaves for instance, in any of the categories to realize the need for equality and strive for it and the masters see the need to secure their position and interests then a conflict situation results. That is a manifestation of conflict.

Manifestation is the last level of conflict. In manifestations, the opposing powers are specific and have been fully expressed. It is like slaves finally holding meetings and preparing for a full-scale rebellion with their masters. Manifestations, however, exist in three stages: opposing attempts to produce results (opposing powers), the process of balancing of powers, and a state of the actual balance of the powers. Once powers are balanced the conflict is over. In the sense of language, all wars are conflicts but not all conflict situations

are wars. War is a state of mutually declared aggression between two or more parties prosecuted by conventional (uniformed and armed) soldiers, with the knowledge and observation of a third (neutral) party who sees to it that acts are within the rules of engagement [16]. This conceptualization presents a unique contradiction in a number of conflicts across different global regions and in the world at large. The conflict in Mali is regarded as a state of war. On the other hand, the crisis in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is not 'war' but 'conflict'. This is because the M23 in DRC is not a conventional army, and it lacks any such legitimacy to declare war. It is a rebel group that seeks to topple a legitimate government using illegal and unrecognized means. As far as causality is concerned, except for the Islamist uprising of Boko Haram, the current wave of violence in the north and the Middle Belt region of Nigeria is predominantly designated by clashes between Fulani pastoralists and farmer groups and sporadic inter-ethnic clashes in the major cities [17]. Nigeria's middle belt region is the country's most ethnically diverse. The region is also the country's most productive in terms of agricultural productivity potentials and real productivity statistics. The ethnic diversity of the middle belt has led to a protracted recurrence of violent conflicts that claim innumerable lives of people and cost millions in losses of property, livestock and agricultural products on a yearly basis with violent conflict recurrences rising to double-digit figures in some locations within the region. Across 4 States of the middle-belt region (Benue, Nasarawa, Plateau and Kaduna) a total calculated cost of the recurrent violent crises was put at 1.25 billion naira (or about 7.6 million USD) [18]. On the average, household members from the affected areas were willing to invest up to 15% of this amount in order to ensure that conflicts do not occur – this depicts the degree of desperation crises situations subject people who suffer them to Farmer-pastoralist and other communal conflict typologies thrive upon the already existing cultural and religious tensions prevalent in several communities and escalate quickly along their trail. The violent clashes between pastoralists and farmers date back several thousand years. The trend of these clashes

around Nigeria shows a steady increase in their incidence [19]. Desertification further north of the country and complications arising from climate change have both impacted upon the distinction between a grazing field and a cropland area, and further made the middle-belt a haven for pastoralists in a desperate search for pasture. For the pastoralists the trend of nomad herding has been altered significantly, nowadays pastoralists do not merely come to graze, they come to stay and stay to conquer. Population explosions have forced farmers into dedicating more land areas to cultivation and climate change has made scarce the desired stock of pasture. Therefore, pastoralists have been forced to enter cropped lands in a bid to meet the herd's nutritional requirements (IRIN News, 2011). A major difficulty that arises from internal conflict is that hunger is more often than not used to target both the armed groups and civilians (Messer, 1998). Consequently, hunger persists long after the end of the war. This is because, to gain a needed advantage in conflict, different factions target the sources and resources that ensure the survival of their opponents. These include distribution channels, production resources, manpower and other conditions necessary for food production. That conflict has severe negative economic and social consequences is not under dispute, but analysing the extent of this is problematic given the lack of reliable data at the micro-economic level [20]. Sulaiman and Ja'afar-Furo [21] studying the economic effects of farmer-grazier conflicts in Nigeria with Case Study of Bauchi State employed descriptive statistics, t-test and alternative cost technique concluded that conflicts cost arable farmers ₦80,075,172.00 losses in monetary term while the pastoralists incurred ₦7,047,013.00 in the conflicts. Furthermore, the income of farmers in the conflict area was significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) lower than those in non-conflict areas. The study focused strictly on Fadama conflicts between farmers and pastoralists and not on conflicts across all agricultural areas. This limited the scope of the study and the restriction to just a specific category of farmers (Fadama). McDougal et al. [18] analysing the macroeconomic benefits of farmer-pastoralist peace in Nigeria's Middle Belt States using an input-output analysis approach

concluded that the potential benefit of farmer-pastoralist peace in the Middle Belt States amounted to around 2.8 per cent of the official Nigerian GDP (Gross Domestic Product), or around 0.8 per cent of total Nigerian GDP, inclusive of the informal sector, an amount worth about ₦2,256,883,491. The extrapolation of this study relied principally on IGR of States which did not account for several external incomes and is said to be 3.5% less than actual figures. This fact has threatened underestimation of actual costs by the study. As an improvement, we will focus on possible costs in a counterfactual approach using alternative costs forgone as a result of conflicts. Sulaiman et al. [22] in their study of farmers' socio-economic factors influencing resource use conflicts in a typical Fadama area in Nigeria focusing on Bauchi State used correlation analysis and regression analysis to discover strong relationship existing between the selected socio-economic variable and conflict incidence for both arable farmers and pastoralist in the Fadama areas of Bauchi State. They also found some of the selected socio-economic characteristics of the communities to strongly influence conflict incidences suggesting that improvement in variables such as education and accessibility to grazing reserves would reduce conflict incidences.

Ani et al. [23], analysing effects of communal conflicts on agricultural extension services delivery in Imo State, Nigeria used simple descriptive statistics and observed that conflicts hindered the smooth operation of extension personnel who transfers the knowledge. The agents were observed to have been hindered by conflicts of various magnitudes which made carrying out extension services extremely difficult. Kughur et al. [24] studied the effects of communal crises on selected crops production among farmers in Langtang North Local Government Area of Plateau State, Nigeria employed correlation analysis and posited that 38.8% communal crises were caused by religion, 43.9% of communal crises leads to loss of lives, 87.8% used assorted types of guns during communal crises and there was a significant reduction in quantity and value of money on crops produced before and after communal crises.

Chikaire et al. [25] in the study of communal clashes/conflicts: bane of achieving food production and security among farming households in South-East, Nigeria using simple descriptive statistics presented a result indicating that land dispute, Ezeship tussle (traditional ruler), counterclaims to lands, poverty, unemployment were chief causes of communal conflicts. The effects of conflict on food production and food security included loss of lives, increased hunger, farmland abandonment, labour migration, poor yield, malnutrition, poor savings, and displacement of people, increase in transportation costs and increased prices of produce.

Sambe et al. [26] in their study of communal violence and food security in Africa using secondary data analysed that communal violence has both direct and indirect consequences on food security. They found that conflict limited people's access to food through destruction of infrastructure necessary for food production, cutting off access to food supplies and ultimately leading to famine communal effects. It is a clash of powers. However, conflict does not amount to a balance, or equilibrium, of powers. It is not a stable resultant. 'Conflict is the pushing and pulling, the giving and taking, the process of finding the balance between powers.'

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categories to realize the need for equality and strive for it and the masters see the need to secure their position and interests then a conflict situation results. That is a manifestation of conflict. Manifestation is the last level of conflict. In manifestations, the opposing powers are specific and have been fully expressed. It is like slaves finally holding meetings and preparing for a full-scale rebellion with their masters. Manifestations, however, exist in three stages: opposing attempts to produce results (opposing powers), the process of balancing of powers, and a state of the actual balance of the powers. Once powers are balanced the conflict is over. In the sense of language, all wars are conflicts but not all conflict situations are wars. War is a state of mutually declared aggression between two or more parties prosecuted by conventional (uniformed and armed) soldiers, with the knowledge and observation of a third (neutral) party who sees to it that acts are within the rules of engagement [16]. This conceptualization presents a unique contradiction in a number of conflicts across different global regions and in the world at large. The conflict in Mali is regarded as a state of war. On the other hand, the crisis in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is not 'war' but 'conflict'. This is because the M23 in DRC is not a conventional army, and it lacks any such legitimacy to declare war. It is a rebel group that seeks to topple a legitimate government using illegal and unrecognized means. As far as causality is concerned, except for the Islamist uprising of Boko Haram, the current wave of violence in the north and the Middle Belt region of Nigeria is predominantly designated by clashes between Fulani pastoralists and farmer groups and sporadic inter-ethnic clashes in the major cities [17]. Nigeria's middle belt region is the country's most ethnically diverse. The region is also the country's most productive in terms of agricultural productivity potentials and real productivity statistics.

### 1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Conflict remains one of the major challenges to political stability, social cohesion, and economic development in many African countries. In Nigeria, Nasarawa State has experienced various forms of conflicts, including ethnic clashes, farmer-herder disputes, communal conflicts, and resource-based tensions. These conflicts have resulted in loss of

lives, displacement of people, destruction of property, and disruption of socioeconomic activities.

The increasing globalization of the world has introduced new dimensions to conflict resolution through international organizations, global communication networks, peacebuilding agencies, non-governmental organizations, and the diffusion of global norms relating to peace, democracy, human rights, and mediation. While these global influences are expected to strengthen local conflict resolution mechanisms, their actual impact on resolving conflicts in African societies remains a subject of debate.

In Nasarawa State, despite the involvement of governmental agencies, international organizations, civil society groups, and traditional institutions in conflict management, recurring conflicts continue to occur. This raises concerns about the effectiveness of globalization-driven conflict resolution approaches and the extent to which they complement or undermine indigenous mechanisms of peacebuilding. Although several studies have examined conflicts and peacebuilding efforts in Nigeria, there is limited empirical research focusing specifically on how globalization influences conflict resolution processes in Nasarawa State. Consequently, there is a gap in knowledge regarding the relationship between global conflict resolution frameworks and local realities. This study therefore seeks to investigate the impact of globalization on conflict resolution in Nasarawa State, Nigeria, with a view to determining its effectiveness, challenges, and implications for sustainable peace.

### 1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

To examine the nature and causes of conflict in Nasarawa State.

To identify the economic and social impact of conflicts in the area.

To analyze the influence of globalisation on conflict resolution strategies.

To identify the roles of international organizations, NGOs, and technology in peacebuilding.

To assess the effectiveness of globalised conflict resolution frameworks in Nasarawa State.

### 1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What are the key drivers of conflict in Nasarawa State?
- What are the economic and social impact of conflict in the area?
- How has globalisation affected conflict resolution mechanisms?
- What roles do global actors play in local peace processes?
- Are global approaches to conflict resolution culturally sensitive and effective in Nasarawa?

### 1.6 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

- There is no significant key drivers of conflict in Nasarawa State.
- There is no significant economic and social impact of conflict in the area
- There is no significant effect of globalisation of conflict resolution mechanisms.
- There is no significant roles played by global actors in local peace processes.
- There is no significant Cultural sensitivity and effectiveness of global approaches to conflict resolution in Nasarawa.

### 1.7 SIGNIFICANT OF THE STUDY

The study is important to elucidate the imperative of incorporating conflict into agricultural policy given the significant economic costs of violent conflicts and because conflict is never factored into Nigeria's national agricultural policies despite the fact that they have become recurrent phenomena in rural Nigeria. The study sort to identify the remote and immediate causes of recent crises in the State; ascertain the major types of conflicts that occur in the area; describe the effects of conflicts on households and communities; and, determine the economic and social impacts of conflicts on the rural households and communities.

### 1.8 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study is focused on Nasarawa State, Nigeria, covering major conflict areas such as Doma, Lafia, and Nasarawa-Eggon, and examining data from 2010–2025. It considers international influence

through NGOs, peacekeeping missions, and digital platforms.

### 1.9 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF STUDY

impact: the action of one object coming forcibly into contact with another.

globalisation: the process by which businesses or other organizations develop international influence or start operating on an international scale.

impact of globalisation: Globalisation has both positive and negative effects: Good: Boosts economic growth, improves consumer choices, facilitates technology transfer, and enhances cultural exchanges. Bad: May worsen inequality, harm local industries, and erode traditional cultures.

conflict: Conflict can be defined as the perceived incompatibility of interests, needs, and goals between two or more parties or even defined simply as any place two or more people are stuck. Perceived differences are found in families, workplaces, and communities – all the places humans interact.

conflict resolution: Conflict resolution can be defined as the informal or formal process that two or more parties use to find a peaceful solution to their dispute. conflict resolution in Africa: Conflict is endemic in African states in particular and the international system in general. All conflicts are eventually resolved by Conflict Resolution Mechanisms (CRM). Prominently there are six CRM techniques and these are: Negotiation, Mediation, Facilitation, Arbitration, Adjudication and Conciliation.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

There is a great wealth of literature on globalization and conflicts, with each writer arguing from a particular perspective depending on the economic school of thought to which they belong to, while others are very objective and see facts as they are. Most Third world scholars argue from the structuralist viewpoint whilst those from the advanced world would normally expound the liberalist theory. In order to present an unbiased thesis, both viewpoints are represented.

In his book *Understanding International Conflicts, an Introduction to Theory and History*, Joseph S Nye, JR. a lecturer at Harvard University, identifies various dimensions or forms of globalization noting that these have significant effects on the day to day lives of people around the world in different ways. He noted that climatic change, and other environmental fallouts from economic activities, as some of the negative effects of globalization. He was of the opinion that rising inequality was a major cause of the political reactions that halted an earlier wave of economic globalization early in the twentieth century. The recent period of globalization has also been associated with increasing inequality among and within some countries. The ratio of incomes of the twenty percent of people in the world living in the richest countries have increased from 30:1 in 1960 to 74:1 in 1997. By comparison, it increased between 1870 and 1913 from 7:1 to 11:1 (Nye 2003, 188). The result is a “lot of angry young people, to whom new information technologies have given the means to threaten the stability of the societies (188). As increasing flows of information make people more aware of inequality, it is not surprising that some choose to fight as this in the case of the Niger Delta situation portrays. Nye’s book has been an excellent source of literature for this research, and it is his definition of globalization that I have adapted for my work. Though he did not address Africa specifically, he noted that an increasingly liberalized world is a source of friction and conflict, and that some countries particularly those in the Third World are losing out in the short term.

Dr. David J. Francis, a lecturer at the Department of Peace Studies at University of Bradford, writing on *Conflict Diamonds and the Analysis of African conflicts*, surmised that the international focus on diamonds as the root cause of the civil wars in Sierra Leone and Angola is an inadequate understanding of the fundamental problems underlying African conflicts. His view is that the role of outside forces in these wars, the currency of which is diamond is like new wine in an old bottle, noting that this has led to “inappropriate international responses and ill-defined solutions in managing and resolving these civil wars” (Francis 2001, 3). While it is true that diamond is not the root cause of these conflicts, what is missing from Dr. David’s analysis is whether the

wars would have continued for the number of years without the mineral in question, especially if there had been no market for it. This is a typical Western view that has enhanced balanced research and afforded me the opportunity to critically re-examine the hypothesis for the research and to develop counter arguments to prove it.

Professor Ali Mazrui, the director of the Institute of Global Cultural Studies at the State University of New York, in an article entitled *The Global Hostage Crisis: The South Between Underdevelopment and Counter-Terrorism*, asserted that developing countries continue to be held hostage by wider international forces over which they have no control, and that the process of globalization has its winners and losers with African countries among the losers. The article offers interesting insights into the possibility of political extremists finding solace in the economic plight of Africans to achieve their goals through conflicts. The article has been a useful source of information for this thesis. Most of the statistics on Africa’s economy came from this document.

An article written by Robert D Kaplan in the *Atlantic Monthly* headlined *The Coming Anarchy* has also been analyzed critically for this project. Kaplan portrays a very bleak future for West Africa. He said, “West Africa is becoming the symbol of worldwide demographic, environmental, and societal stress, in which criminal anarchy emerges as the real ‘strategic’ danger. Diseases, overpopulation, unprovoked crime, scarcity of resources, refugee migrations, the increasing erosion of nation-state and international borders, and the empowerment of private armies, security firms, and international drug cartels are now most tellingly demonstrated through a West African prism” (Kaplan 1994, 5). He mentioned the fact that most of West Africa’s rain forest is being lost at an alarming rate due to timber logging by international firms. In his premonition for the future, Kaplan said “Africa will be as relevant to the future character of world politics as the Balkans were a hundred years ago, prior to the two Balkan wars and the First World War. Then the threat was the collapse of empires and the birth of nations based on tribe.

Now the threat is more elemental: nature unchecked. The coming upheaval, in which foreign embassies are

shut down, states collapse, and contact with the outside world takes place through dangerous, disease-ridden coastal trading posts, will loom large in the century we are entering”(10). Though most of Kaplan’s assertions are exaggerated and barely recognized or stressed the role of outside economic actors on Africa’s “coming anarchy”, his point on the future of the African nation-state has provided springboards from which I garnered ideas to help answer some of my secondary questions.

Writing on globalization in *Strategic Paradigms 2025: US Strategic Planning for a New Era*, Jacquelyn Davis and Michael Sweeney explained globalization to mean the increasing level of global interdependence and interaction in economic affairs (Davis and Sweeney 1999, 14). They noted that the phenomenon came to the fore at the end of the cold war in both government statements and journal articles. Arguing that globalization has a general effect on global and regional stability, the writers said the central tenet of globalization theory is that broader interstate engagements are a stabilizing factor in international relations. Peace and security will be the byproducts of the globalization process, which on the threshold of the new century, centers on the revolution that has taken place in communications technology. “Internet access, cellular telephones, and instantaneous media broadcasts of unfolding events have changed forever the way in which people interact and relate to each other around the world”(15). By weaving the world’s economies closer together to form a single global market place, the prospects for conflicts will be diminished since all states, or more and more states are presumed to have a stake in enabling investments and global capital flows. This in turn will have a positive effect on the way in which societies organize themselves, implicitly implying the growth of more democratic structures. Of immediate interest however is the trade off between the economic benefits associated with a state buying in to the global economy and the loss of sovereignty or control, which such steps may entail. Davis and Sweeney acknowledged also that for some countries there is a downside to globalization, arising in part from a new sense of vulnerability that ensues from the permeability of national borders. They also noted, “in the extreme cases globalization can open the door to conflict over resources, boundaries, trade,

or even ethnic-religious fault-lines” (16). This exposition on globalization though not related to any of the country case studies that I have conducted, brought to the fore the fact that the phenomenon has short term disadvantages, and that African countries are losing sovereignty as the case studies of Nigeria, Sierra Leone and the Democratic Republic of Congo have shown in chapter three.

A United Nations Security Council study entitled *The Report Of The Panel Of Experts On The Illegal Exploitation Of Natural Resource And Other Forms Of Wealth In The Democratic Republic of Congo*, noted that the natural resources of the country were exploited and sold on international markets. The main mineral in question is called Coltan which is a combination of Columbium and Tantalum. The report listed nine international corporations that had imported Coltan from the DRC via Rwanda for use in Europe, Asia and the United States (UN Report 2001, 8). It also mentioned specific African countries that have been adversaries in the war as active participants in the looting of DRC’s wealth. The sale of Coltan lacks a certification process that would flag its place of origin, as is currently being internationally implemented for conflicts diamonds. The document has been a major source of reference for the case study on the DRC, as its facts are authentic and cannot be disputed.

Another United Nations Report Pursuant to UN Security Council Resolution 1306(2000) in relation to Sierra Leone is another source of reference for this research. The report details how various countries and companies were complicit in fuelling the conflict by their activities. The panel found conclusive evidence of supply lines to the main rebel group, the Revolutionary United Front (RUF) through neighboring countries by air. Weapons were procured directly from producing factories, or from surplus stocks of the armed forces in different countries mainly from the former Soviet bloc. Russian made Mi-8 transport helicopters were used to convey the arms to landing strips in RUF held areas. There was an extensive detail of how weapons originated from Ukraine and eventually got into the hands of the rebels through a network of companies in Gibraltar, Britain and Burkina Faso (UN Report 2000, 24). The

document has helped me with ideas for my analysis on the conflicts in Sierra Leone.

An article by Charles Lerche titled *The Conflicts of Globalization*, points to the economic deterioration in the third world and suggested that the “movements of reaction whether ethnic, fundamentalist or Marxist have in common a wish to cut all bridges with the ‘other’ since there is little chance that the excluded can ever become true partners in a system that is so extraordinarily inclusive of economies and exclusive of societies” (Lerche 1998, 5). He is of the opinion that the average person in the world increasingly feels they have suffered from economic globalization, and is increasingly doubtful about the wisdom and motivation behind many international trade deals, and it is therefore hardly surprising that the promotion of free trade has become a divisive political issue.

He argues that the world is united but not integrated since on the one hand problems and topical concerns are expressed in global terms while on the other, approaches to their solution tend to be piecemeal, and generally inhibited by diverging conceptions of identity and interest. All of which suggest that a world society becoming more and more interconnected physically, but lacking a consensus on fundamental values and priorities may well be torn by conflicts probably more intractable than Clausewitzian type conflicts between nations (8). The significance of this article to my study is that Lerche acknowledges the fact that conflicts of globalization will not be between states but within states, a true reflection of African conflicts in an increasingly liberalized world. The article helped in shaping my thoughts on some of my secondary questions.

One conceptual theory that provides an insight into the Nigerian case study is the human needs theory as formulated by John Burton to the study of social conflict. Burton explains that in analyzing conflicts one must distinguish among interests, values and needs. In trying to resolve conflicts it should be understood that only interests are negotiable in the short term; while values can only change over the long run in an atmosphere of security and non-discrimination, and needs cannot be negotiated away under any circumstances (Burton 1990, 36). The implications of this formulation are far reaching.

For example it suggests that there are limits to the extent to which the human person, acting separately or within a wider ethnic or national community, can be marginalized or manipulated, and that there are human development needs that must be satisfied and catered for by institutions, if these institutions are to be stable, and if societies are to be significantly free of conflicts. Among other requirements to satisfy some of their needs, he said humans require some control over their environments. If these are not met, the institutions lose support and legitimacy, and confront increasing opposition. Authorities tend to react with oppression and coercion. This analysis fitted well into the discussion on Nigeria in chapter.

Globalization has transformed our world, connecting economies, politics, and cultures like never before. It's driven by tech advances, trade policies, and the rise of multinational companies, creating a complex web of global interactions.

This interconnectedness brings both opportunities and challenges. While it boosts economic growth and cultural exchange, it also raises concerns about job losses, cultural homogenization, and the erosion of national sovereignty.

## 2.2 Globalization: A Multifaceted Concept Definition and Characteristics

Globalization refers to the increasing interconnectedness and integration of economies, societies, and cultures across the world

Globalization is a multidimensional process that encompasses economic, political, cultural, and technological aspects

The main drivers of globalization include advancements in transportation (air travel, containerization), communication technologies (internet, mobile phones), and the liberalization of trade and investment policies

Globalization has both positive consequences, such as increased economic growth and cultural exchange, and negative consequences, such as potential job losses in certain sectors and cultural homogenization

## 2.3 Drivers and Consequences

Technological advancements in transportation and communication have facilitated the rapid exchange of goods, services, information, and ideas across borders. The liberalization of trade and investment policies, such as the reduction of tariffs and the removal of capital controls, has encouraged the free flow of goods, services, and capital across national boundaries.

Globalization has led to increased economic growth and efficiency through the specialization of production and the exploitation of comparative advantages.

However, globalization has also contributed to job losses in certain sectors, particularly in manufacturing, as companies relocate production to countries with lower labor costs.

Cultural exchange facilitated by globalization has led to the spread of ideas, values, and practices, but has also raised concerns about the loss of cultural diversity and the homogenization of cultures.

#### 2.4 Economic Dimensions of Globalization

**International Trade and Investment** Economic globalization involves the increasing integration of national economies through trade, investment, and financial flows. International trade has expanded rapidly due to the reduction of trade barriers, such as tariffs and quotas, and the formation of regional trade agreements (European Union, NAFTA).

Foreign direct investment (FDI) has grown as companies seek to establish operations in other countries to access new markets, resources (raw materials, labor), and lower production costs. The growth of multinational corporations (MNCs) has played a significant role in driving economic globalization, as they operate in multiple countries and facilitate the transfer of goods, services, and technology (Apple, Toyota, Nestlé).

**Financial Globalization and Emerging Economies.** Financial globalization has led to the integration of financial markets, allowing for the free flow of capital across borders and the emergence of global financial institutions (World Bank, International Monetary Fund).

The deregulation of financial markets and the removal of capital controls have facilitated the movement of capital across borders, enabling investors to seek higher returns and diversify their portfolios.

Economic globalization has contributed to the rise of emerging economies, such as China and India, which have become major players in the global economy through their rapid economic growth and increasing integration into global markets.

Emerging economies have benefited from the inflow of foreign investment, the transfer of technology and knowledge, and the expansion of export markets, leading to significant reductions in poverty and improvements in living standards.

#### Political Dimensions of Globalization

##### Spread of Democracy and Global Governance

Political globalization refers to the increasing interconnectedness of political systems and the spread of political ideas and values across borders.

The end of the Cold War and the collapse of the Soviet Union accelerated the spread of democracy and market-oriented economic policies worldwide, as many countries transitioned from authoritarian rule to democratic governance.

International organizations, such as the United Nations and the European Union, have played a role in promoting democracy, human rights, and international cooperation through the establishment of international norms and the provision of technical assistance.

Political globalization has also led to the emergence of global governance challenges, such as addressing climate change, terrorism, and pandemics, which require international cooperation and the coordination of national policies.

##### Global Civil Society and National Sovereignty

The rise of global civil society, including non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and social movements (Amnesty International, Greenpeace), has contributed to the spread of political ideas and the promotion of human rights.

Global civil society organizations have played a role in advocating for political and social change, monitoring government actions, and providing services to marginalized communities

However, critics argue that political globalization has led to the erosion of national sovereignty, as international organizations and global governance mechanisms increasingly influence domestic policies and limit the autonomy of nation-states

The concentration of power in the hands of global elites, such as multinational corporations and international financial institutions, has also raised concerns about the accountability and legitimacy of global governance structures

#### Cultural Dimensions of Globalization

##### Cultural Exchange and Hybridization

Cultural globalization refers to the increasing exchange of ideas, values, and practices across borders, facilitated by media, migration, and tourism

The spread of popular culture, such as music (K-pop, reggae), movies (Hollywood, Bollywood), and fashion (Western clothing styles), has contributed to the emergence of a global culture and the hybridization of local cultures

The internet and social media have played a significant role in facilitating cultural exchange and the formation of global communities based on shared interests and values (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram)

Migration has led to the formation of multicultural societies and the exchange of cultural practices and values between host and origin countries, resulting in the emergence of hybrid cultural forms and identities

##### Cultural Conflicts and Homogenization

Tourism has exposed people to different cultures and ways of life, contributing to cultural understanding and exchange, but has also led to the commodification of cultural practices and artifacts

Critics argue that cultural globalization has led to the homogenization of cultures, as dominant cultural forms (Western culture) spread and displace local cultures and traditions

The loss of cultural diversity and the erosion of traditional values and practices have raised concerns

about the sustainability and resilience of local communities

Cultural globalization has also led to the emergence of cultural conflicts and tensions, as different value systems and ways of life come into contact with each other, leading to the polarization of societies and the rise of cultural nationalism and fundamentalism

#### 2.5 Theoretical Framework

Different scholars (Dickens 1992; Scholte 1997; Adedokun 2006; Ake 1995; Giddens 1990; Nnoli 2001; Toyo 2007) have viewed the concept of globalisation from diverse perspectives. For Scholte (1997), it is a basis of, or contributing factor to conflict, and that many instances of the destabilizing effect of economic and cultural powers, radiating from the West, on the national politics of most 3rd world nations exist (Ebaye and Allah, 2016).

Scholars have conceptualized globalization into two main classifications, namely the benign and the malevolent versions. While the benign thesis of globalization as scholars opined that with the rising complexity and interdependence of the world economy, there are increasing centres of consumption and productions that are no longer bounded by nation states (Friedman, 1999; Ohmae, 1990). Such centres include the rampant middle range information technology production centres that have emerged in almost all parts of the world and the humans, monetary, and intellectual capital flow freely across nation states (Ebaye, 2018). States have virtually lost control over the movement of capital, consequently losing the capability of regulating their economies. Therefore, globalization is a natural and inevitable process with an unintended, but positive result. The malevolent thesis on its part views technological change and free movement of capital as producing to a large extent a number of negative consequences (Castells, 1993). Scholars here cite cases where multinational corporations exploit local conditions by moving production facilities based on changing local conditions irrespective of the impact of these changes on local populations. "Globalization continues the story in world history of West European mercantilism and expansionism... it is important to be aware that mercantilism with the expansionism connected with it is not a simple matter of trade, it is trade motivated

by greed for great wealth, exploitation, excessive grabbing, coercion as a ready resort, and the quest for power and more power over the known world. It entails the design to dominate via trade, the design made by private circles seeking abundant wealth and power, with states acting in their backing” (Toyo, 2007).

The theoretical postulation upon which this work is premised is the human needs theory. According to John Burton, a proper study of conflict must first make a distinction between needs, values and interest. In conflict resolution, one should note that only the interests are negotiable in the short run while the values can be only altered over the long run in an environment of security and non-discrimination. The needs cannot be negotiated away under any circumstances (Burton, 1990). This submits that “There are borders to the extent to which the human person, acting specifically or within a broader national or ethnic community can be socialized or influenced...” and “... that there are human development needs that must be fulfilled and catered for only by institutions, if these institutions are to be firm, and if societies are to be significantly free from conflict” (1990:23). Even though there appears to be some agreement here, Burton presents a plausible list of needs. These include a sense of security and of identity, a consistent response from the environment to complement our generic drive to learn, a recognition and valued relationship, and control over their environment in order to ensure that their needs are fulfilled (1990: 47 and 95). This approach has vital consequences for social institutions. If the needs are being met, the institution receives support and is consolidated and perpetuated, but if the needs are not met, the institution loses support and legitimacy and faces serious opposition. The authorities may react with repression and coercion, which is likely to lead to more conflict. Burton argued that human needs are seriously frustrated in the modern societies, and that the more the enforcement of law and order to control these frustrations, the more the frustration. The legitimacy of even the most seemingly legitimized authorities is shaky as members of revolutionary groups in different societies, and the terrorists who spring from relatively privileged classes, are demonstrating that there are features of societies, of different political forms, unacceptable to many

members of such societies. This might lead to one extreme form of reaction or another (1990). The theoretical conceptualization here clarify many areas of globalization and social conflicts as the three rudimentary attributes of conflicts specifically, Needs, Values and Interest are involved.

In any given conflict, the general deprivation of basic needs such as recognition, valued relationships, and control would have to be properly managed if further disruptions are to be avoided. If the means to the satisfaction of basic needs are seen to be battered by the process of globalization, then conflict and social unrest must be anticipated. ... the point is that as a result of material deprivations and the consequent desperation of the people under the regime of globalisation, the struggle for access to material resources has become deeper... while total poverty may lead to apathy and dormancy, comparisons with those in the same society who do better may motivate radical actions and even violence” (Hegre et al., 2002).

However, Huntington has proposed the inter-civilisational conflict as the new changer to the major powers in international affairs, arguing that “the efforts of the west to promote its values of democracy and liberalism as general value, to maintain its military predominance and to spread its economic interests engender opposing responses from other civilizations” and therefore settled that “the next world war, if there is one, will be a war between civilization” (Huntington, 1993). Chaos, turmoil, and violence in different nations have serious effects that will certainly affect other parts of the globe. Wars, radical ideologies, embargoes, terrorism, weapons of mass destruction, refugees, and sanctions, all emanated from the crucible of the failing state order. The West cannot quarantine the 3rd World Nations and their challenges indefinitely, any more than states can forever quarantine the dispossessed, within their own societies (Fuller, 1995). Fuller further traced the dynamics of cultural conflicts, explaining how non-western peoples are confronted with convincing evidence that their societies are being reshaped by someone else’s values:

... systems of international business and communications create freeways for the massive import of foreign cultural materials  
... music, films, food, drugs, clothing, books, television programs, even values  
... with the parallel loss of control over societies symbols and myths. Such cultural concerns are welcome fuel to more thorough political groups that demand for cultural authenticity, preservation of traditional and religious values, and refusal of the alien cultural antigens... (1995: 152).

## 2.6 EMPIRICAL REVIEWED

Nigeria has the largest population of any African country, with over 200 million people. Of this, 49% are female; some 80.2 million girls and women. So any discussion about Nigeria's future must necessarily entail consideration of girls and women, the role they play and the barriers they face in making the future (Okonjo-Iweala and Sanusi, 2012). The implications of these developments as reiterated are still being pebble stages of policies initiations while the actions required seems to mountainous in nature. In this regards Fapohunda (2012) observed that the continuing poverty and deprivation in the country, declining terms of trade and the burden of external debt create an unfavorable environment for development. Of the limited resources available, little is directly allocated to women. This is as Mamman (1996) in Awugonun (2009) argued that "this discrimination exacerbates poverty in Nigeria by preventing the majority of women from obtaining the credit, education, training, health services, child care and legal status needed to improve their prospects. The term woman has several meaning and interpretations. A sample definition of the term women reveals it to imply human being, feminine qualities of feeling, domestic employee, wife or girlfriend (Encarta, 2007).

The term woman and women for plural is a most common everyday parlance which fairly usage as represents in places and culture the sex which is associated with the feminine side, with the major features as compassionate, weak, caring, loving, reproductive and mostly in need of care. No doubt some of these explanations of women reflects long history of social, cultural and economic realities overtime, but times and social changes specifically

education, urbanization, industrialization, have for long challenges those assertions and sometimes cultural believes. This is in congruence with the observations of Dionco-Adetayo, Makinde, and Adetayo, (2008) that "in Africa, women constitute about 50 percent of the population and account for about 60 to 80 percent of the agricultural production". While Oguonu (2007) cited (Huizer, 1983:104) to argued that Women "form half of the world's population and one third of the official labour force, fulfill almost two thirds of all hours worked, and they receive one tenth of the world's income". According to Eweama (2009) the 2006 Population disparity of men and women is 51% and 49% respectively with the growth rates 4.07% and 3.57% accordingly. Whereas these demographic situations seem normal considering expected the sex ratio 105,103:100 male/female, it will speaks volume if socio-economic and political sceneries in developing nations like Nigeria and the northern states are juxtaposed. Recently the implications were aptly described thus:

It is not out of place to say that the physical and psychological wound inflicted on the north as a result of the recurrent religious, ethnic and political conflicts that ravages, including socio-economic depression in the recent years that run deep and inflicted untold hardship to many, have not only traumatised the inhabitant, but have slowed down developmental efforts. Yet, to adders these cries, there is a tendency on the part of many people to go for easy answers (Sambo, 2011).

The above position is the clear situations of the Northern states, though it scratches the surface of the realities as usual in those types of situations (Peace and Unity for Development Conference, Organized by Arewa Consultative Forum Kaduna, 2011). The central thrust and focus in such gathering are masculine centered. Because at the receiving end of most socio-economic and political impasses in most societies are women, as the widower, orphans custodians, care providers and nurturers, rehabilitators and general sustainers of the all types of end products of the fallouts. Therefore, poor power supply, transportation system, health delivery, assess to financing and entrenchment of good governance, anchored on transparency, equity, accountability and

the rule of law identified by Sambo (2011), as the endemic factors militating against the economic growth specifically of the north, are more an adversary to women than men in Nigeria.

Such intricacies of socio-political and economic realities of men's and women's life, over the years, and the actions and reactions they produced and popularized the concept of Gender and Patriarchy. According to Greg, Kimmel and Lang (2000) patriarchy refers to the institutionalization of men's power over women within the economy, polity, household and heterosexual relations. As they maintained that, in patriarchal relations men gains dividend in terms of honor, prestige and the right to command. They also gain material dividends. This view expressed most of the sceneries women in most societies found themselves as they 'wail and toil' in enhancing their communities without adequate recognition. In a similar vein Okafor, Akinwale and Doyin-Hassan (2007) argued that patriarchy is a way of life in which men are believed to be superior to women. The belief has adverse effects on women.

Gender also implies the process by which individuals who are born into biological categories of male or female become the social categories of men and women through the acquisition of locally-defined attributes of masculinity and femininity" (Kabeer 1991:11) cited in (Oguonu, 2007). These views on gender adequately captures it essence, but there are more to it as it impact on women and development. This is the stance of World Health Organization (2001) in Esplin and Jolly (2006) as it asserts that "Gender refers to the economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being male or female at a particular point in time". This assertion really mirrored the state of women in our societies, as Folurunsho (2010) argued that either as a "westernized" or an African Woman with all the traditional circumscription, women since the inception of humanity has been contributing immensely to the political as well as socio- economic growth of their families, communities, groups and nations. Even though most of these contributions, due to various overt and covert reasons, were often not acknowledged nor rewarded, they were however valued.

In the context of the roles and efforts of Nigerian women, Folurunsho (2010) had provided an illustration which is worthy of recapitulation:

Evidence from studies show that more women in the Eastern part of the country are involved in agriculture while the western states has more women participating in the informal sector and as for women in the Northern States their contributions are somehow hidden due to the widely practiced purdah system in that region which does not make them feasible like their male counterparts. Nevertheless, they are mostly engaged in the informal sector with their products hawked by their children and dependants.

It was equally noted that In Nigeria, women actively played a meaningful role in the industrialization process of the country. The role of women in social and economic development specifically in the small and micro enterprises was found to be primal in the economic development of their communities, Dionco-Adetayo, et al.(2008).Despite these positions, it is seen that women faired less incomparable ways on major indicators due to intricacies of Patriarchy and Gender. For example a recent reported on several implications of Gender for women relative to poverty in Nigeria by Eweama (2009) reveals as follows: Access to Bank Loans 21.9% for women and 78.1% male, in Education female literacy is 56.8%, compared to male's 74.66%. In Health, HIV prevalence is put at 54.37% for women and as male clock 45.63%. As employment, at Federal Civil Service level depicts men to have 68% as female obtained 31%, representation.

Despite the stake reality of these figure it implications is at the national level, where for example the mechanism for control, documentations, enforcement gender parity as so much sought by the government often evidently manifest themselves. The tendency for the percentages to fluctuate is higher in state and Local government area of Nigeria, where the realities of women either in rural urban locations, in households as wives and mothers, farms, market, business or in offices. According to Boserup (2007) the vivid declined contributions of women in the national scene where base on the reasons that could be due to women's high levels of pre- crises poverty,

secondary status in the labour force, extensive informal- economic work, reduced access to productive assets and to information, as well as extensive domestic responsibilities which all clearly make them economically vulnerable long before crises occur. Moreover the difference feminist are particularly emphasizes the experience of women of different age, class backgrounds and ethnic groups. Equally important to the research is their view that oppression of women exists, but the women do not see it as affecting all women to the same extent and in the same way, (Haralambos and Holborn, 2008).

According to Lawal and Oluwatoyin (2011) development is critical and essential to the sustenance and growth of any nation. Nigeria in the last fifty years has been battling with the problems of development in spite of huge human, material and natural resources in her possession. The irony of Nigerian state as a rich entity with majority of its people mirrored the predicament of defining development According to United Nations Organization (UNO) development means “ an economic phenomenon in which rapids gains in overall (and per capita GNP) growth either ‘trickles down’ to the masses in the form of jobs and other economic opportunities, or creates the necessary conditions for the wider distribution of the economic and social benefits of growth” cited in Galadanchi (2009) where the this highlighted some basic features of development, gains of economy ,distribution especially to the masses ,it is salient on two crucial fronts to development the actors in the development drives and their biological, socio-political and economic characteristics within the interplay of power, the individual status and recognition attached. An alternative view by Seers (1979) posits that “the purpose of development is to reduce poverty, inequality, and unemployment” (Quoted in Nafziger, 2005) and as Sen (1999) argued “development involves reducing deprivation or broadening choice. Deprivation represents a multidimensional view of poverty that includes hunger, illiteracy, illness and poor health, powerlessness, noiselessness, insecurity, humiliation, and a lack of access to basic infrastructure”. In this spotlight to the perspective of development no doubt most developing nations Nigeria inclusive are starters and grappling though there are serious abundance human and material

resources due to international and external intricacies especially unfavorable international economic ties and issues of corruption and mismanagements. Therefore we subscribed to Bellu’s (2005) postulation that “development may occur due to some deliberate action carried out by single agents or by some authority pre-ordered to achieve improvement, to favourable circumstances in both”. As such the concession that “development” is a multi-dimensional concept in its nature of improvement in the complex systems such as in socio-economic systems different parts or ways, at different speeds and driven by different forces is perceived most appropriate in this regards.

In this light it can be stressed the eminence of National Developments which according to Longman dictionary of contemporary English, refers to a phenomenon that embraces a whole nation, which Lawal and Oluwatoyin (2011) described as “the overall development or a collective socio-economic, political as well as religious advancement of a country or nation”. As Julius Nyerere in Ekong (2008) asserted “a person does not walk very far or fast on one leg”, reiterated the socio-economic and political implications that the roles of women in the advancement of this country had depended on contributions of women and men at all level and at all time, the questions has always remains how adequate each group fared in the context of cultural and structural constrains and how such are conversely reflected in national socio-economic parlance. Accordingly, Anugwom (2009) the barrier placed against women’s self-actualization especially in traditional Nigerian society was without recourse to the roles the women played.

Different scholars (Dickens 1992; Scholte 1997; Adedokun 2006; Ake 1995; Giddens 1990; Nnoli 2001; Toyo 2007) have viewed the concept of globalisation from diverse perspectives. For Scholte (1997), it is a basis of, or contributing factor to conflict, and that many instances of the destabilizing effect of economic and cultural powers, radiating from the West, on the national politics of most 3rd world nations exist (Ebaye and Ellah, 2016).

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However, Huntington has proposed the inter-civilisational conflict as the new changer to the major powers in international affairs, arguing that “the efforts of the west to promote its values of democracy and liberalism as general value, to maintain its military predominance and to spread its economic interests engender opposing responses from other civilizations” and therefore settled that “the next world war, if there is one, will be a war between civilization” (Huntington, 1993). Chaos, turmoil, and violence in different nations have serious effects that will certainly affect other parts of the globe. Wars, radical ideologies, embargoes, terrorism, weapons of mass destruction, refugees, and sanctions, all emanated from the crucible of the failing state order. The West cannot quarantine the 3rd World Nations and their challenges indefinitely, any more than states can forever quarantine the dispossessed, within their own societies (Fuller, 1995). Fuller further traced the dynamics of cultural conflicts, explaining how non-western peoples are confronted with convincing evidence that their societies are being reshaped by someone else’s values:

... systems of international business and communications create freeways for the massive import of foreign cultural materials... music, films, food, drugs, clothing, books, television programs, even values... with the parallel loss of control over societies symbols and myths. Such cultural concerns are welcome fuel to more thorough political groups that demand for cultural authenticity, preservation of traditional and religious values, and refusal of the alien cultural antigens... (1995: 152).

**2.7 Major Types of Conflict that Occur in the Area**  
The major types of conflicts in the area are presented in Table 3. From the table, it was identified that communal conflicts, ethnic conflicts, resource conflicts, politically motivated conflicts, chieftaincy tussles and state forces versus militia groups were the major kinds of conflicts that occur in the area. In the period under review, about 28 major conflicts were identified. Ethnic conflicts occur between different ethnicities in the area and was identified to be the most recurrent form of conflict and it takes the form of conflicts between farmers and herdsmen. However, in most cases ethnic conflicts

are often intertwined with resource conflicts. About 32% of the conflicts identified were ethnic conflicts but even though they had ethnic orientation, the struggle for resource ownership was at root of the conflicts. Nevertheless, 14% of the conflicts identified were purely resource conflicts, meaning that these conflicts were not manifested as any other appearance other than as resource conflicts. Politically motivated conflicts occur occasionally especially during elections where factions compete to gain power by the use of force and usually violence. Politically motivated conflicts accounted for 18% of all conflicts in the period under review. Communal conflicts often occur among people who have shared communal identity and go about their daily activities in shared places. About 18% of all the conflicts identified were communal conflicts. It is very easy for communal conflicts to degenerate into ethnic conflicts usually because there already exist mutual distrust and unresolved tensions between ethnicities in the State. Chieftaincy tussles result among people of the same ethnicity but in peculiar circumstances the occur between ethnicities as each ethnic group is struggling to gain prominence and thereby gain political importance and have more access to national resources. About 11% of the conflicts were chieftaincy-related conflicts. Chieftaincy conflicts were hard to identify because they usually manifest as different forms of conflicts, usually as ethnic conflicts but they are mutually distinctive from each other. Militia groups have begun to emerged all over Nigeria and particularly the middle belt region, clashes with government agencies have been recorded. About 7% of the conflicts were between the emerging militia groups and the forces of the State. Militia groups often emerge when ethnic groups begin to perceive that State forces have not properly attended to their problems or when a feeling of marginalization affects a certain people.

#### 2.8 Effects of Each Conflict Type

The major types of conflicts that occur in the area and the effects of these conflicts are presented in Table 4. From the result of the analysis of qualitative data derived from the FGD, there were six (6) major categories of conflicts identified in the area. These categories are communal conflicts,

ethnic conflicts, resource conflicts (most often land conflicts), politically motivated conflicts, conflicts due to traditional chieftaincy, and the conflicts resulting from the clash between state forces and militia groups. Brosché and Elfverson [55] defined communal conflict as violent conflict between non-state groups that are organised along a shared communal identity. It was identified that communal conflicts led to sporadic killings, destruction of property, disruption of social and commercial activities in the area, breakdown of law and order, incidences of IDPs and fatalities of neutral parties caught in the conflicts. Ethnic conflicts were identified in the study area. According to Horowitz [56] “an ethnic conflict is one particular form of conflict, in which the goals of at least one party are defined in (exclusively) ethnic terms, and the primary fault line of confrontation is one of ethnic distinctions.”

The results revealed that ethnic cleansing, ethnic discrimination, breakdown of inter-ethnic associations and affiliations and intense mutual suspicion were all results of ethnic conflicts and these occurred at different degrees. As a result of ethnic conflicts, either expressed violently or expressed subtly, the interactions between these conflicting groups are usually on the brink of violence due to intense suspicion, these conflicts are usually culminated by killings and other acts of violence across ethnic lines.

Table 2. Causes of conflicts Cause Not Serious (1) Slightly Serious (2) Moderate (3) Serious (4) Very Serious (5) Weighted Total (WT) Mean Score (MS)

Ethnicity	10	422	366	40	155	993	2.9M
Breakdown of traditional relationships and formal agreement	13	328	378	80	305	1104	2.9M
Competition over land resources	5	112	204	184	1045	1550	4.0S
Population growth	15	96	228	388	740	1467	3.8M
Stereotyping based on tribe	22	56	138	480	840	1536	4.0S
Expansion of agro-pastoralism	6	22	75	216	1440	1759	4.6VS
Weak state laws (government presence)	20	296	459	144	135	1054	2.7M
Unprovoked attacks	20	198	624	160	85	1087	2.8M
Expansion of cultivated areas	16	46	144	252	1170	1628	4.2M
Discriminatory patronage systems	18	114	525	372	205	1234	3.2M
Insufficient control over state land	18	258					

498	140	180	1094	2.8M			
Invasion of farmlands by cattle	16	48	222	312	960	1558	4.1S
Cattle theft	17	96	105	144	1240	1602	4.2S
Extensive sedentism (sedentarization)	13	30	60	200	1430	1733	4.5VS

Source: Field Survey, 2018 VS – Very serious; S – Serious; M – Moderate

Table 3. Major types of conflicts in the area Types of conflicts Frequency Percentage

Communal Conflicts	5	18
Ethnic conflicts	9	32
Resource conflicts (Land, water, passage routes)	4	14
Politically-motivated conflicts	5	18
Chieftaincy tussles	3	11
State forces versus militia groups	2	7
Total	28	100

Source: Group Discussion, 2018 Resource conflicts are conflicts that have been conducted to obtain access to scarce resources such as land, water or minerals. The farmer-herder conflict is a new wave of violent confrontations over the claim for land and fresh water as well as stock routes which have been converted into farmlands as a result of soil fertility decline and rise in human population in Nigeria.

Nasarawa State has specifically been affected by this form of conflict. Intense hatred among conflicting factions, violent killings, mutual distrust, molestations and intimidations, competitions over which faction claims a larger share of the resource, invasions are commonplace, persistent and recurrent attacks, destruction of livestock and crops, occupation of land by the stronger faction often characterize such conflicts. Due to intense competition the result of which often determines the survivability of each faction, the employment of small arms and light weapons is common as recent conflicts have become even more violent and deadly. These types of conflicts are multigenerational. Even children who have no idea of the root causes of the conflicts inherit and continue it.

The farmer-herder conflict is now Nigeria’s deadliest form of conflict and has claimed more lives than the Boko Haram insurgency [57]. Politically motivated conflicts are conflicts that have their roots planted in politics and the struggle to claim political power. These forms of conflicts often lead to discriminatory patronage as the winner chooses to bestow favours only the groups

that have supported him/her, violent clashes between supporters of different factions ensue as violence is a tool used to gain power, use of political power against opposing factions, thuggery and killings are rife in this type of conflicts.

Chieftaincy tussles are another form of violent conflicts. Due to advantages gained from political alignment in Nigeria, chieftaincy takes an important position in resource and power allocation in the country for this reason alignment and acquisition of chieftaincy position are keenly contested with violent conflicts resulting sometimes. The effects of these chieftaincy tussles include long-term and recurrent crises, the more traditionally powerful faction attempts to repress the lesser one, IDP situations and emigrations. State versus militia groups is a form of conflict that was identified in the study area. In 2013, more than 100 security personnel were killed by the Ombatse militia group in Nasarawa State.

According to Olukotun [58] ethnic militias are paramilitary forces that perform police functions within their locality while the government considers militia group as insurgent groups that engage in subversive activities against the state. Militias are often comprised of young men who come from rural, impoverished areas. Ethnic militias are not new in the middle belt of Nigeria, most ethnicities have one but hide under the pretext of taking up arms to defend themselves [57]. Confrontations of such illegal groups with government forces is a known fact in Nigeria. The effects of such confrontations include stereotyping of the ethnic group involved, severe breakdown of law and order, feeling of insecurity among inhabitants of the area, mutual suspicion and living in suspended terror, loss of confidence in the state security operatives.

## 2.9 Economic Impacts of Conflicts on Rural Communities

**Loss of Lives:** The economic impacts of conflicts in Nasarawa State measured as a proxy of the cost per annum due to conflict are presented in Table 5. The results on the Table revealed that the cost of lost lives (708) at an average income of ₦885,563 per annum was ₦626,978,604. This

figure was extrapolated to be worth 8.3% of the total internally generated income of Nasarawa State in 2018. This is to mean that, hypothetically, the State loses 8.3% of its annual IGR with the loss of 708 lives due to the conflicts.

**Losses due to injury:** Conflicts also resulted in 1,193 injuries of varying degrees in 2018 alone. The injury costs were averaged at ₦122,117.6. The total cost of the injury was extrapolated to be almost one hundred and forty-six million naira (₦145,686,296.8). This cost was worth 1.93% of the State's 2018 IGR. The breakdown showed that the cost of treatment on average was ₦33,450.6 per individual, while the cost of lost income during the period that the injury lasted was an average of ₦88,667.0. **Loss due to loss of shelter:** Analysing costs of lost shelter as a result of the conflicts, the study arrived at ₦188,250,951 and this was about 2.5% of the total IGR generated from the State in 2018. Complete losses amounted to about 1,500 houses while partial losses were 509 houses. The total cost of complete loss of houses was ₦150,000,000 at an average of ₦100,000 per shelter. The cost of alternative accommodation was about ₦22,980,951. This brought the total cost of lost shelter to ₦188,250,951.

**Loss of Farm/Farm produce:** Furthermore, the extrapolation of crop and livestock losses attributable to conflicts in the year under review revealed that ₦51,001,999 worth of farm produce (crop) were lost as a result of conflicts in 2018 while ₦61,404,000 worth of livestock and livestock resources were lost as a result of conflicts in the same period in the 34 clusters sampled for the study. The total losses as a result of crop and livestock losses was ₦112,405,999.2. This figure is worth about 1.5% of the State's 2018 IGR. **Loss of Farm assets:** Conflicts also resulted in the losses of farm assets/property across the 34 clusters used for the focus group discussions (FGD). From the results, it was observed that ₦14,280,000 was lost as a result of loss of irrigation facilities in the area. More so, ₦17,828,988 was lost as a result of destruction of tractor-mounted implements and accessories. Loss of hand-held tools constituted ₦8,500,000 while loss of farm structures including barns was worth ₦10,200,000. The total loss as a result of loss of farm assets/property was ₦50,808,988 worth about 0.64% of the State's total

IGR in 2018. Loss due to transportation: As a result of conflicts people are compelled to leave their location to other places, often before the next wave of conflicts reaches their location. In moving, the fleeing persons incur costs of moving themselves and their property to safety. From the result, it can be seen that ₦9,975,600 was spent in moving people from the face of conflicts to safety while ₦10,823,369.6 was lost in moving goods and property to safety. The total cost incurred for transporting people and property/goods to safety was ₦20,798,901.6 and this was worth 0.27% of the State's 2018 IGR. The grand total of the economic losses attributable to conflicts over the period under review was ₦2,289,859,549 and it was 30.28% of the State's 2018 IGR. This means that in a noconflict scenario it is possible to save ₦2,289,859,549 as well as to avoid the loss of a development phase as a result of conflicts. This finding draws parallels with the finding of the State's Judicial Commission of Inquiry (2014) that placed the losses from the 2013 violent conflicts in Nasarawa State at ₦2.3 billion and lives lost at 667 people. The advantage that this research finding has over the previous one is the fact that the scientific research method was relied upon to arrive at the total cost and a step-by-step approach was relied upon to clearly analyse the losses accruable to conflicts in the area from all possible sub-sectors.

Social impacts of conflicts in the area The direct effects of conflict on communities that experience sustained frequency of conflict events are presented in Table 6. From the result on the Table, hike in food prices ranked 1st as 98.7% of the respondents identified that the most important social impact of conflicts was its effect on hiking prices of food. Closely following in 2nd place and selected by 95.6% of the respondents is scarcity of food. Violent conflicts are most often accompanied by indiscriminate destruction of agricultural resources such as crops and livestock. At the end of conflicts, most recovering communities face scarcity of food. Scarcity of food also occurs as a result of the fact that conflicting parties each use food scarcity as a means to win the conflict and end up destroying the channels and sources of food coming into the area, therefore, food scarcity persists even after conflicts have ended (Messer, 1998). Migration of labour is ranked 3rd on the social impacts of conflicts with

89.8% of the respondents identifying it. The migration of labour occurs as able-bodied men and women are forced to leave the conflict communities to peaceful ones in order to earn a living from agricultural activities. This causes a shortage of labour in the conflict communities. Majority (88.3%) of the respondents aligned with loss of farmlands as a social impact of conflicts and this ranked 4th. As a result of conflicts, farmlands are lost to either factions, the mere fear of what may result if people visit their own farmlands can keep them from cultivating certain farmlands within the radius of the conflict. Furthermore, 87.5% of the respondents perceived increased insecurity as a social impact of conflicts and it was ranked 5th. Insecurity is a direct result of conflicts, even after conflicts have ended, the availability and use of small arms and light weapons (SAWL) can lead to opportunistic crimes such as banditry, kidnapping, homicides, cultism and terrorism. In the event of farmer-herder conflicts, an instant spike in prices of cattle was observed by 75.3% of the respondents. This was ranked 6th. The cattle rearing factions are often forced out of the community and in the event that they stay, the relationship between them and the host communities are often constrained resulting to an artificial scarcity and then a hike in the price of cattle.

### III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

##### Description of the study area

Description of the Study Area Nasarawa State is bordered to the North by Kaduna State, to the West by the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja to the South by Kogi and Benue States and to the East by Taraba and Plateau States. The State is bordered with Kaduna state in the north, Abuja, the Federal Capital Territory to the west, Kogi and Benue states in the south and Taraba and Plateau states in the east [31]. The climate in Nasarawa is referred to as a local steppe climate. In Nasarawa, there is little rainfall throughout the year.

According to the Köppen and Geiger climate classification, this climate is classified as BSh (Peel et al., 2007). This is explained thus; BS – Steppe (semi-arid) while h – Hot Arid ( $T_{ann} \geq +18^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). The average annual temperature is  $28.4^{\circ}\text{C}$

in Nasarawa. About 839 mm of precipitation falls annually. The State has a total land area of 27,117 km<sup>2</sup>. Nasarawa State is located at latitude 8.5705°N and longitude 8.3088°E [32]. Agriculture as the mainstay of its economy with the production varieties of food and cash crops run throughout the year [31]. It also contains various minerals such as salt, baryte, and bauxite, which are mostly mined by artisanal miners. A network of roads exists within the state, linking many rural areas and major towns. Nasarawa State is home to the Farin Ruwa Falls in Wamba Local Government Area of the State. Farin Ruwa falls is reputed to be one of the highest falls in Africa.

There is also the Salt Village in Keana Local Government Area of the State. It produces naturally iodized salt from the lake located near it. Some of the ethnic groups in Nasarawa State are; the Agatu, Alago, Basa, Ebira, Eggon, Gbagyi, Gwandara, Mada, Migili and Tiv. There are over 20 languages spoken in the state, including Agatu, Alago, Basa, Eggon, Gbagyi, Gade, Goemai, Gwandara, Ham, Kofyar, Migili, Mada and many others [33]. The dominant religions in Nasarawa State are Christianity and Islam. The State is also home to a number of traditional religion practitioners ([www.facts.ng/nigerian-states/nasarawa](http://www.facts.ng/nigerian-states/nasarawa)). As at the 2006 census, Nasarawa state had a population of 2,040,097 [34].

The population in 2018 is projected to be 3,013,183 persons at 3% annual growth rate. Located in the North Central Geo-political zone of Nigeria, Nasarawa State is blessed with abundant mineral resources and for this reason, it is tagged the “Home of Solid Minerals”. The State is endowed with abundant solid mineral resources with also the possibility of petroleum occurrence in parts of her sedimentary basin [35]. Prominent among the mineral deposits of the State are coal, barytes, salt, limestone, clays, glass sands, tantalite, columbite, cassiterite, marble, iron ore and gold.

The three rock types that constitute the components of Nigeria geology, namely the rocks of the Basement Complex, the Younger Granites and Sedimentary rocks are all exposed in Nasarawa State [32]. Nasarawa State has thirteen (13) Local

Government Areas; each of them has a chairman as its administrative head. The State is divided into three (3) divisions based on the Senatorial district. There are three agricultural zones in Nasarawa State as adopted by the State ADP. The Southern zone comprises Lafia, Doma, Obi, Keana and Awe. The Western zone consists of Karu, Keffi, Nasarawa and Toto while the Central zone includes Nasarawa-Eggon, Akwanga, Kokona and Wamba.

The State is characterized by a tropical sub-humid climate with two distinct seasons – the wet season and dry season. The wet season starts from May and ends in October while the dry season is experienced between November and April. The Sahelian region is usually characterized by climatic variations and irregular rainfall patterns which ranges between 200–600 mm with a coefficient of variation ranging between 15–30% [36,37]. Agidi et al. [38] reported rainfall cessation after studying daily rainfall record from 1998 – 2015, the averages of onset dates, cessation dates and length of rainy season dates across the State were not uniform. The study advanced evidences that rainfall decline had occurred in the period investigated.

### 3.2 Research Design

The research is designed to accomplish both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis. It is a questionnaire type of research which employs generation of primary and secondary data on the subject under investigation.

### 3.3 The Study Population

Due to the bottle neck situation of this study, the population which would have been the entire conflict prone State was specifically on the activities of Nasarawa State with few emphasis on the neighbourhood State.

### 3.4 Sampling Technique and Sampling Size

The study population encompassed returnees affected by the conflict and people who did not move at all from the rural areas in the 7 Local Government Areas, LGAs (Keana, Obi, Nasarawa Eggon, Toto, Lafia, Doma and Awe) of Nasarawa State where significant violent conflicts have

occurred in recurrent trend. Cochran's formula for calculating sample size when the population is infinite (that is, if the population is greater than 50,000) was employed to determine an accurate sample population. Cochran [39] developed a formula to calculate a representative sample for proportions given as

$$n_0 = \frac{z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

Where:

$n_0$  = is the sample size

$z$  = is the selected critical value of desired confidence level,

$p$  = is the estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population,

$q = 1 - p$ , and;  $e$  = is the desired level of precision

Because the population of Nasarawa State is large and has a great degree of variability, we assume variability of 50% ( $p = 0.5$ ), the confidence level of 95% ( $z = 1.96$ ), precision level of 0.05.

Therefore,

Calculate,

### 3.5 SOURCES OF DATA

The researcher uses the primary and secondary sources of data collection:

#### a. Primary data collection

Questionnaire were designed and distributed to the selected sample population in order to obtain the relevant and necessary information. The researcher also conducted an interview to administer direct and detailed response from some of the respondents.

#### b. Secondary data collection

The researcher obtained this information from various textbook, on related topics, research projects, journals, magazines, newspaper and online. Relevant information which is current and fluid discussion on radios and television and other social Media were used.

### 3.6 Research Instruments

The research instruments and techniques used to elicit the responses were the questionnaire, personal interview and Discussions.

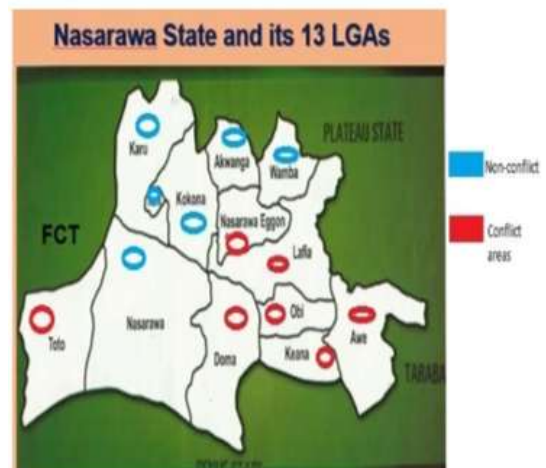
### 3.7 Method of Data Collection

The researcher collected data for analysis from respondents by the use of administration of questionnaire. The question were grouped according to numerical perspectives and semantic questions. Questions were also asked bio-statistically to elicit the ability of each respondents to give responses that could effectively rely upon in analysing the topic under investigation. A total number of 150 questionnaires were produced and distributed to different elements of the sample population and 100 copies were completed and returned.

### 3.8 Instrument

The questionnaire was divided into two section. A and B.

A contained questions relating to bio-statistically such as age, sex, marital status, educational qualification and profession of the respondents while section B, contains questions with information on the subject matter.



map of Nigeria  
 map of Nasarawa State

A multi-stage sampling technique was used for the selection of respondents for the study. In the first stage, purposive sampling of 7 Local Government Areas (LGAs) of the State, which have been prone to conflict in recent years was done. In the second stage, a cluster sampling of these crisis-hit communities within the LGAs was done to capture interest groups involved in the conflicts. In the last stage a proportional selection was employed to select respondents according to the size of the respective population of the LGA to give a total of 384 respondents for the study (Table 1).

Sample size by LGA =  $\frac{\text{population of each local govt. area}}{\text{Total population of the 7 local govt. area}} \times 384$

Total population of the 7 local govt. area

## 2.2 Data Collection

Primary data were collected from the respondents using a structured interview schedule, while 34 structured focus group discussions (FGD) sessions were conducted in the clusters to assess the effects of conflicts on communities. The FGD were composed of the elderly and the young and cut across gender and ethnicity; about 15 – 25 people. A check list was used to guide the Focus Group Discussions while the key data were carefully recorded.

## 2.4 Analytical Technique

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in analysing the data collected. Data were analysed using simple descriptive statistics including frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviation, content analysis of the qualitative data derived from the FGD and resource cost estimation strategy i.e. real resources spent or production possibilities foregone because of conflict and generalized cost model by summing up all recorded losses (crop, livestock, shelter, property and lives) and the alternatives forgone as a result of the conflict including social costs; alternative resource cost estimation, ARCE. Cause of the conflict was measured using mean score incorporated into Likert-type five-point continuum scale.

## 2.5 Model Specification

### 2.5.1 Alternative resource cost estimation

This approach to analysis of losses incurred in conflicts is similar to that employed by Yonguan et al. (2001) when analysing the environmental cost of water pollution in Chongqing, China as similarly replicated by Sulaiman and Ja'afar-Furo [21]. It was specifically utilized to estimate the damage to human health and life due to industrial end products. Using the strategy of estimating the resource cost of the water pollution which actually consisted of two items, namely: (1) resource spent to mitigate the impact, e.g., the cost of treatment of ill health, (2) the loss of potential GDP – the loss through leave of absence from work by the victim. For the dead, they employed the loss of production (the production possibility forewent) – expected production and or its value by the victim. The approach is embedded in the opportunity cost concept expressed by Lipsey and Chrystal [40] as choice measuring the cost of anything that is chosen in term of the best alternative that could have been chosen instead. The sacrificed alternative measures the cost of obtaining what is chosen. The model estimates what would have been gained in a no-conflict scenario given the same level of resources and personnel. It measures the microeconomic costs of conflicts. However, in the conflict situation, circumstance determines the choice and the alternative, but in principle of opportunity cost, the alternative was used to measure the choice as in the case of cost of water pollution in Chongqing. This establishes the alternative cost principles, the alternative resource cost estimation (ARCE).

Table 1. Selection of sample size of the study.

LGA	Project 2025 population	Sample size
Lafia	488,455	118
Keana	205,287	49
Obi	167,021	40
Nasarawa Eggon	120,818	29
Awe	120,836	42
Toto	219,191	53
Doma	220,036	53
Total	1596,645	384

In applying the principle for the analysis of economic loss from conflicts, the elements were

categorized into the following component and processes of analysis:

### 2.5.2 Loss Due to Loss of Life (LDLL)

$$LDLL = EPRI + ESEC + EOTH$$

Where:

EPRI = Expected earnings from primary occupation/annum (Peak periods + mid periods + low periods divide by 3) (₹)

ESEC = Expected earnings from secondary occupation/annum (non-farm activities, other secondary sources) (₹)

EOTH = Expected earnings from other sources/annum (remittances, one-off contracts, gifts, intermittent incomes) (₹)

### 2.5.3 If no loss of life, Loss Due to Injury (LI)

$$LI = Ct + Edtt$$

Where:

Ct = Cost of treatment of injury (₹)

Edtt = Expected earnings from primary, secondary and other sources lost during a period of treatment by the victim (₹)

### 2.5.4 Loss of facilities

The facilities/assets/equipment included: farmhouses, farm machinery and other farm equipment such as farming implements and tools. Partial loss (damaged) of the facility (Lpf)

$$Lpf = Cr + Eeft$$

Where:

Cr = Cost of repair (₹)

Eeft = Expected total earnings from the facility during the repair period (₹) Complete loss of facility/Asset (Lcf)

$$Lcf = PVf$$

Where:

Pvf = current value of the facility/asset (₹)

### 2.5.5 Loss of shelter.

$$\text{Loss due to damaged shelter (Lds)} \quad Lds = Cr + Cfdt$$

Where:

Cr = Cost of repair of shelter (₹) Cfdt = Cost of renting apartment + cost of transporting family to a different during repairs (₹)

### Loss due to total loss of shelter (LTLS)

$$Lls = PVs + Cfdt + Hlp$$

Where:

PVs = Present value of shelter (₹)

Cfdt = Cost of family displacement (₹)

Hlp = Value of household property loss (₹)

### 2.5.6 Cost Due to Loss of Farm/Farm Produce (for both crops and livestock) = Llc $Llc = Y \times P - C$

Where:

Y = Total quantity produced/expected to be produced (Kg)

P = Unit price of the produce (₹)

C = Cost of production (TC = TVC+TFC) (₹)

Therefore, the total loss (in monetary terms) due to conflicts:

$$TLDC = (LDLL + LI + Lpf /Lcf + Lds/LTLS + Llc) \text{ (₹)}$$

2.5.7 Likert scale To achieve objective v, Likert-type five-point continuum scale was employed to measure the degree or intensity of agreement by the respondents to a statement (used to determine respondents' felt causes of conflict). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent of their perception about statements presented to them using a

L5-point Likert scale of Very serious (VS), serious (S), Moderate (M), Slightly serious (SS) AND Not slightly (NS)

Weight of 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 were assigned. For each indicator a weighted mean obtained as follows:

$$WM = \frac{(fvs * 5) + (FSE * 4) + (fm * 3) + (fast * 2) + (FNA * 1)}{N}$$

Where:

WM = Weighted mean; f = Frequency; Values 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 = Attached weights; VS, SE, M, SS and NS = degrees of perception of Very serious, serious, Moderate, Slightly serious and Not Serious N = Sample size Following the formula of Bagheri [41] and Bagheri et al. [42] on perception analysis, the mean(s) for all indicators were measured thus; The mean(s): 1.00 – 1.49 = Not Serious (NS), 1.50 – 2.49 = Slightly Serious (SS), 2.50 – 3.49 = Moderate (M), 3.50 – 4.49 = Serious (SE); and 4.50 – 5.00 = Very Serious (VS) 2.6 Remote and Immediate Causes of Conflicts The degree of perception of respondents as to the causes of conflicts is presented in Table 2.

#### IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

##### 4.1 Introduction:

The aim of this chapter is to present, analyze and interpret data on the view and opinion of the respondents on the research questions raised. Data collected are analysed and measured in percentage in order to facilitate interpretation. Responses to each research questions were analysed and references are made on the analysis.

Questionnaire administration was a major source of Data Collection for the research study, a total number of 150 questionnaire were distributed to the study population which are mainly the state of the subject matter and some neighbouring states like Benue, Plateau, Kaduna etc. A total of 100 questionnaire were returned meticulously.

##### 4.2 Data presentation and interpretation:

The study required presentation in a tabular form for the analysis of the data. In this regards respondents were asked various questions concerning the impacts of globalisation on conflict resolution in Africa with particular attention to Nasarawa State. The ratio rate of the questionnaire were analysed on satisfactory frequency table with sample percentage ratio. From the above the rate of return is 67% which is valid and reliable.

#### 4.3 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of respondents is as follows:

Table 4.3(1) Age Distribution of respondents

Category	Frequency	Percentage
19-30	10	10%
35-50	10	10
55-60	50	50%
65 and above	30	30%
Total	100	100%

The above table shows that the age class of the respondents 19-30 is 10%, 35-50 has 10%, 55-60 has 50%, while age class of 65 and above is 30%. This indicates that the age of the respondents of class 55-60 are more most frequent than others.

##### Age Analysis of respondents

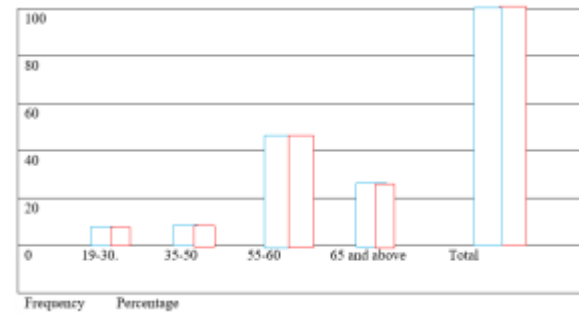


Table 4.3(2) Gender Distribution of respondents

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Male	70	70%
Female	30	30%
Total	100	100%

The above table shows that 70% of the respondents were male while 30% were female, indicating that the male were more informed in the area of conflict than female.

##### Gender Analysis of respondents

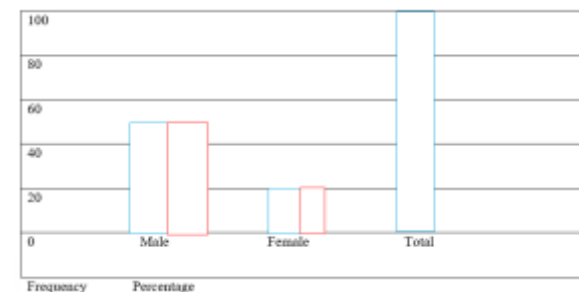


Table 4.3(3) Marital Status of respondents

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Married	50	50%
Single	20	20%
Divorced	5	5%
Widow	25	25%
Total	100	100%

The table 3 above shows that 50% of the respondents were married, 20% were single, 5% were divorced, while 25% were Widows.

Analysis of marital status of respondents

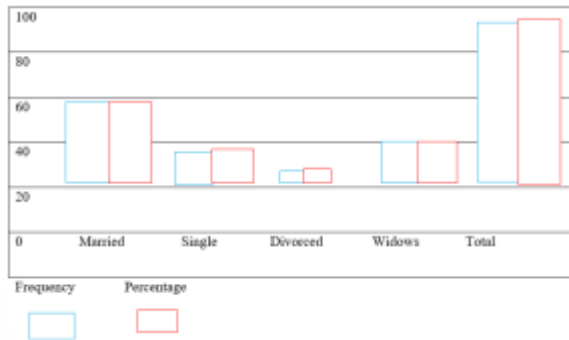
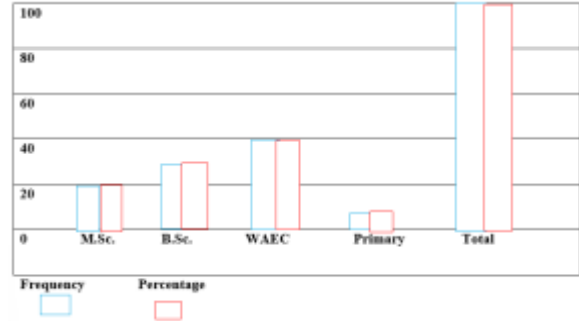


Table 4.3(4) Educational Qualification of respondents

Category	Frequency	Percentage
M.Sc.	20	20%
B.Sc.	30	30%
WAEC	40	40%
Primary	10	10%
Total	100	100%

Table 4 above shows that 20% of the respondents were Masters Degree holders, 30% were B.Sc. holders, 40 were having WAEC, While 10% were having Primary School Certificate. The analysis above shows that most of the respondents were Educated.

Analysis of Educational Qualification of respondents.



4.4 Analysis of structure of questions

Table 4.4(5) What are the key drivers of conflict in Nasarawa State?

Category	No t ser iou s (1)	Sli ghtl y Ser iou s (2)	Mod erat e (3)	Ser iou s (4)	Ve ry Ser iou s (5)	Wei ghte d Tota l (WT )	Mea n Sc or e ( MS)
Ethnicity	10	422	366	40	15 5	993	2. 9 m
Breakdown of traditional relationship and formal agreement	13	328	378	80	30 5	110 4	2. 9 m
Competitio n over land resources	5	112	204	18 4	10 45	155 0	4. 0s
Population growth	15	96	228	38 8	74 0	146 7	3. 8 m
Stereotypes base on tribe	22	56	138	48 0	84 0	153 6	4. 0s
Expansion of agro pastoralism	6	22	75	21 6	14 40	175 9	4. 6v s
Weak state law(govt. Presence)	20	296	459	14 4	13 5	105 4	2. 7 m
Unprovoke d attacks	20	198	624	16 0	85	108 7	2. 8 m
Expansion of cultivated area	16	47	144	25 2	11 70	162 8	4. 2 m

Discriminatory patronage system	18	114	252	37 2	20 5	123 4	3. 2 m
Insufficient control over State land	18	258	498	14 0	18 0	109 4	2. 8 m
Invasion of farm land by cattle	16	48	222	31 2	96 0	155 8	4. 1s
Cattle theft	17	96	105	14 4	12 40	160 2	4. 2s
Extensive sedimentation)	13	30	60	20 0	14 30	173 3	4. 5 Vs

VS= Very serious, S = Serious, M = Moderate

Table 4.4(6). The major types of conflicts in the area

Types of conflicts	Frequency	Percentage
Communal conflict	5	18
Ethnic conflict	9	32
Resource conflict (land, water, passage routes)	4	14
Political motivated conflict	5	18
Chieftaincy tussles	3	11
State forces versus militia groups	2	7
Total	28	100

Resource conflicts are conflicts that have been conducted to obtain access to scarce resources such as land, water or minerals. The farmer-herder conflict is a new wave of violent confrontations over the claim for land and fresh water as well as stock routes which have been converted into farmlands as a result of soil fertility decline and rise in human population in Nigeria. Nasarawa State has specifically been affected by this form of conflict. Intense hatred among conflicting factions, violent killings, mutual distrust, molestations and intimidations, competitions over which faction claims a larger share of the resource, invasions are commonplace, persistent and recurrent attacks, destruction of livestock and crops, occupation of land by the stronger faction often characterize such conflicts. Due to intense competition the result of which often determines the survivability of each faction, the employment of small arms and light weapons is common as

recent conflicts have become even more violent and deadly. These types of conflicts are multigenerational. Even children who have no idea of the root causes of the conflicts inherit and continue it. The farmer-herder conflict is now Nigeria's deadliest form of conflict and has claimed more lives than the Boko Haram insurgency [57]. Politically motivated conflicts are conflicts that have their roots planted in politics and the struggle to claim political power. These forms of conflicts often lead to discriminatory patronage as the winner chooses to bestow favours only the groups that have supported him/her, violent clashes between supporters of different factions ensue as violence is a tool used to gain power, use of political power against opposing factions, thuggery and killings are rife in this type of conflicts. Chieftaincy tussles are another form of violent conflicts. Due to advantages gained from political alignment in Nigeria, chieftaincy takes an important position in resource and power allocation in the country for this reason alignment and acquisition of chieftaincy position are keenly contested with violent conflicts resulting sometimes. The effects of these chieftaincy tussles include long-term and recurrent crises, the more traditionally powerful faction attempts to repress the State versus militia groups is a form of conflict that was identified in the study area. In 2013, more than 100 security personnel were killed by the Ombatse militia group in Nasarawa State. According to Olukotun [58] ethnic militias are paramilitary forces that perform police functions within their locality while the government considers militia group as insurgent groups that engage in subversive activities against the state. Militias are often comprised of young men who come from rural, impoverished areas. Ethnic militias are not new in the middle belt of Nigeria, most ethnicities have one but hide under the pretext of taking up arms to defend themselves [57]. Confrontations of such illegal groups with government forces is a known fact in Nigeria. The effects of such confrontations include stereotyping of the ethnic group involved, severe breakdown of law and order, feeling of insecurity among inhabitants of the area, mutual suspicion and living in suspended terror, loss of confidence in the state security operatives.

**Economic Impacts of Conflicts on Rural Communities**  
**Loss of lives:** The economic impacts of conflicts in Nasarawa State measured as a proxy of the cost per annum due to conflict are presented in Table 5. The results on the Table revealed that the cost of lost lives (708) at an average income of ₦885,563 per annum was ₦626,978,604. This figure was extrapolated to be worth 8.3% of the total internally generated income of Nasarawa State in 2018. This is to mean that, hypothetically, the State loses 8.3% of its annual IGR with the loss of 708 lives due to conflict events. The 2018 IGR of Nasarawa State was seven billion five hundred and twenty-two million, nine hundred and twenty thousand six hundred and fifty-six thousand naira and ninety-one kobo – ₦7,566,920,656.91 (NBS, 2019).  
**Losses due to injury:** Conflicts also resulted in 1,193 injuries of varying degrees in 2018 alone. The injury costs were averaged at ₦122,117.6. The total cost of the injury was extrapolated to be almost one hundred and forty-six million naira (₦145,686,296.8). This cost was worth 1.93% of the State's 2018 IGR. The breakdown showed that the cost of treatment on average was ₦33,450.6 per individual, while the cost of lost income during the period that the injury lasted was an average of ₦88,667.0.  
**Loss due to loss of shelter:** Analysing costs of lost shelter as a result of the conflicts, the study arrived at ₦188,250,951 and this was about 2.5% of the total IGR generated from the State in 2018. Complete losses amounted to about 1,500 houses while partial losses were 509 houses. The total cost of complete loss of houses was ₦150,000,000 at an average of ₦100,000 per shelter. The cost of alternative accommodation was about ₦22,980,951. This brought the total cost of lost shelter to ₦188,250,951.

**Loss of Farm/Farm produce:** Furthermore, the extrapolation of crop and livestock losses attributable to conflicts in the year under review revealed that ₦51,001,999 worth of farm produce (crop) were lost as a result of conflicts in 2018 while ₦61,404,000 worth of livestock and livestock resources were lost as a result of conflicts in the same period in the 34 clusters sampled for the study. The total losses as a result of crop and livestock losses was ₦112,405,999.2. This figure is worth about 1.5% of

the State's 2018 IGR.  
**Loss of Farm assets:** Conflicts also resulted in the losses of farm assets/property across the 34 clusters used for the focus group discussions (FGD). From the results, it was observed that ₦14,280,000 was lost as a result of loss of irrigation facilities in the area. More so, ₦17,828,988 was lost as a result of destruction of tractor-mounted implements and accessories. Loss of hand-held tools constituted ₦8,500,000 while loss of farm structures including barns was worth ₦10,200,000. The total loss as a result of loss of farm assets/property was ₦50,808,988 worth about 0.64% of the State's total IGR in 2018.  
**Loss due to transportation:** As a result of conflicts people are compelled to leave their location to other places, often before the next wave of conflicts reaches their location. In moving, the fleeing persons incur costs of moving themselves and their property to safety. From the result, it can be seen that ₦9,975,600 was spent in moving people from the face of conflicts to safety while ₦10,823,369.6 was lost in moving goods and property to safety. The total cost incurred for transporting people and property/goods to safety was ₦20,798,901.6 and this was worth 0.27% of the State's 2018 IGR.

The grand total of the economic losses attributable to conflicts over the period under review was ₦2,289,859,549 and it was 30.28% of the State's 2018 IGR. This means that in a noconflict scenario it is possible to save ₦2,289,859,549 as well as to avoid the loss of a development phase as a result of conflicts. This finding draws parallels with the finding of the State's Judicial Commission of Inquiry (2014) that placed the losses from the 2013 violent conflicts in Nasarawa State at ₦2.3 billion and lives lost at 667 people. The advantage that this research finding has over the previous one is the fact that the scientific research method was relied upon to arrive at the total cost and a step-by-step approach was relied upon to clearly analyse the losses accruable to conflicts in the area from all possible sub-sectors.

Table 5 - How has globalisation affected conflict resolution mechanisms?

Economic Impacts of conflicts on rural communities

Items	Qunt./n umber	Form of issues	Mean losses (N)	Total losses (N)	Total losses as % of 20 25 IG R
Human lives	708	Primary inc.	459,000	318,6000	4.2
	708	Second. Inc.	225,000	159,3000	2.1
	708	Other income sour	210,563	149,078,604	2.0
Sub- total		Human live	885,563	626,978,604	8.3
Injure d perso ns	1.193	Cost of trea	33,450.6	39,906,565.8	0.5
	1.193	Lost of income Duetto injury	88,667.0	105,779,731	1.4
Sub- total		Loss due to injury	122,117.6	145,686,296.80	1.9
Shelte r (hous e)	1.500	Compt.lo ss	100,000	150,000,000	2.0
	509 2.009	Partial loss Cost of alternativ e accomm odation	30,000 11,439	15,270,000 22,980,951	0.2 0.3
Sub- total		Shelter cost	141,439	188,250,951	2.5
Farm/ farm produ ce	34	Farm produce	1,500,058.8	51,001,999	0.7
	34	Live stocks	1,806,000	61,404,000	0.8
Sub- total		Crop/live stock	3,306,058.8	112,405,999.2	1.5
Farm Asset	34	Imigrat.	420,000	14,280,988	0.2
	34	Facilit.	0	0	0.2
	34	Tractor implem.	524,382.0	17,828,988	0.1
	34	Hand held tools	250,000 300,000	8,500,000 10,200,000	0.1 0.1

		Barn structure	0	00	
Sub- total		Farm Asset	1,494,382	50,808,988	0.6
Trans port	34	Cost of people	293,400	9,975,600	0.1
	34	Cost of property	318,334.4	10,823,369.6	0.1
Sub- total		Transpor t	611,732.4	20,798,901.6	0.2
Grand total			6,561,293	2,289,859,549	30.28

Social impacts of conflicts in the areaThe direct effects of conflict on communities that experience sustained frequency of conflict events are presented in Table 6. From the result on the Table, hike is food prices ranked 1st as 98.7% of the respondents identified that the most important social impact of conflicts was its effect on hiking prices of food. Closely following in 2nd place and selected by 95.6% of the respondents is scarcity of food. Violent conflicts are most often accompanied by indiscriminate destruction of agricultural resources such as crops and livestock. At the end of conflicts, most recovering communities face scarcity of food. Scarcity of food also occurs as a result of the fact that conflicting parties each use food scarcity as a means to win the conflict and end up destroying the channels and sources of food coming into the area, therefore, food scarcity persists even after conflicts have ended (Messer, 1998).Migration of labour is ranked 3rd on the social impacts of conflicts with 89.8% of the respondents identifying it. The migration of labour occurs as able-bodied men and women are forced to leave the conflict communities to peaceful ones in order to earn a living from agricultural activities. This causes a shortage of labour in the conflict communities. Majority (88.3%) of the respondents aligned with loss of farmlands as a social impact of conflicts and this ranked 4th. As a result of conflicts, farmlands are lost to either factions, the mere fear of what may result if people visit their own farmlands can keep them from cultivating certain farmlands within the radius of the conflict. Furthermore, 87.5% of the respondents perceived increased insecurity as a social impact of conflicts and it was ranked 5th. Insecurity is a direct result of conflicts, even after conflicts have ended, the availability and use of small arms and light weapons (SAWL) can lead to opportunistic crimes

such as banditry, kidnapping, homicides, cultism and terrorism. In the event of farmer-herder conflicts, an instant spike in prices of cattle was observed by 75.3% of the respondents. This was ranked 6th. The cattle rearing factions are often forced out of the community and in the event that they stay, the relationship between them and the host communities are often constrained resulting to an artificial scarcity and then a hike in the price of cattle.

Table 6: Social impacts of conflicts

Phenomenon	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Hike in price of goods	379	98.7	1st
Scarcity of food items	367	95.6	2nd.
Migration of labour	345	89.8	3rd
Lost of farm land	339	88.3	4th
Increased insecurity	336	87.5	5th
Hike in price of cattle	289	75.3	6th

#### Discussion and Finding

These findings are congruent with those of Ingawa, Ega, and Erhabor [43] who advanced that individual land tenure system newly operated by arable farmers is particularly severe on the traditional trek routes, which become favourite cropping sites because of their better soil fertility resulting from the concentration of animal manure from the trekking herds in these areas. They further highlighted that the inadequacy of grazing resources due to increasing crop cultivation (and increasing commercialization of the crop-residues) and poor management of the existing grazing reserves. Concluding that decline in internal discipline and social cohesion, as the adherence to the traditional rules regarding grazing periods, and the authority of the traditional rulers are breaking down. De Haan [6] observed the existence of antagonistic perceptions and beliefs among farmers and herdsmen which could compound conflict situation, especially due to failing institutions and fierce competition for resources. This, as well as the increasing rate of cattle theft, can exacerbate farmer-pastoralist conflicts. Inequitable access to land, diminishing land resources, antagonistic values among user groups, policy contradictions, and non-recognition of rights of indigenous people have been identified by Adisa [44]. Further

evidential to the realities of competition over land resources, Hoffmann et al. [45] opined that the relationship between farmers and nomadic Fulanis started degenerating when the Hausa farmers began to raise animals, including cattle. The farmers would take crop residues to their animals, and as a consequence, forage became scarce for herders in the dry season. Probably, out of frustration, the settled herders invited the nomadic ones to carry-out group herding on farmers field even while the crop was yet to be harvested. Adebayo and Olaniyi [46] advanced that the most predominant causes of conflict between the crop farmers and pastoralist are damaging crops and blockage of water points. They also demonstrated that age, gender, marital status, religion, education and place of residence were attributes that could significantly influence causes of conflict between the crop and pastoral farmers. Nevertheless, scholars including Folami, [47]; Ofuoku and Isife, [48], Adisa and Adekunle, [44]; Blench, [49], Odoh and Chigozie, [50], Solagberu, [51], Audu, [52], Bello, [53], McGregor, [54] have identified root and immediate causes to range from climate change, southerly migration trend, the growth of agro-pastoralism, the expansion of farming on pastures, the invasion of farmlands by Castle assault on non-Fulani women by herders, blockage of stock routes and water points, freshwater scarcity, burning of rangelands, cattle theft, inadequate animal health care and disease control, overgrazing on fallow lands, defecation on streams and roads by cattle, extensive sedentism, ineffective coping strategies, ethnic stereotyping, to the breakdown of conflict intervention mechanisms.

## V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

### 5.1 Conclusion

Based on the findings from the study, it is concluded that the immediate causes of conflicts in the area were extensive sedentism, expansion of agro-pastoralism and cattle theft. The major types of conflicts in the area were communal, ethnic, resource, political, chieftaincy and state versus militia conflicts. The violent conflicts resulted in the loss of lives and property worth ₦2,289,859,549 in 2018. This amount was worth 30.28% the State's 2018 IGR. The result indicates that violent conflicts have

huge economic and social impacts on the economies of rural communities in the state.

## 5.2 Recommendations

1. From the causes of conflicts identified in the study, it is clear that the most salient reasons conflicts occur are the conflicting and often parallel definitions of land use that different actors apply. There is not a more propitious time than now for the revolutionizing of land laws in Nigeria to factor in the elemental realities of population growth, land requirement for construction, expansion of cultivated areas and the new realities of expansion of agro-pastoralism as well as the deliberate southerly movement of nomads. 2. Laws regarding people with diverse backgrounds and socio-economic needs and population growth in relation to limited resources, resource-based conflicts and resource management must be regarded as extremely important and delicate laws that should be developed with great care and attention paid to all the parties involved in the process. 3. Economic losses accounted for in the study are evidence of the need to view that conflicts as not merely struggle for resources but as economically significant events that affect the core structure of society as well as its economic well-being, therefore future design of agricultural development plans must take into account the disaster conflicts leave in their wake and understand that peace on its own is an economic variable. 4. Findings from the study have brought us to re-echoing the recommendations of the International Crisis Group in 2017. Long term approaches to mitigating farmer-herder conflicts in the rurality should see the Nigerian government intensify the implementation of the Great Green Wall Initiative for the Sahara and the Sahel. The project initially called for planting a 15km wide belt of trees, running 7,775km across nine African countries from Senegal to Djibouti. It was later broadened to include building water-retention ponds and other basic infrastructure, establishing agricultural production systems, and promoting other income-generating activities. It was later broadened to include building water-retention ponds and other basic infrastructure, establishing agricultural production systems, and promoting other income-generating activities. 5. Participatory approaches to problem identification, conflict management and resolutions need to be established in the communities with regular

interactions between and among locals periodically and frequently.

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