POVERTY AND CONFLICTS IN KADUNA STATE: A STUDY OF ZANGO KATAF LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA (1987-2011)

BY

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CERTIFICATION

This thesis titled "Poverty and Conflicts in Kaduna State": A Study of Zango Kataf Local Government, by Ibrahim Yusuf meets the requirements of the regulation governing the award of Master of Science Degree in Political Science of the Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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DECLARATION

I, Ibrahim Yusuf, hereby declare that this research work was written by me and has not been submitted or received anywhere, for the purpose of acquiring a degree in Ahmadu Bello University or any other University.

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DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to the all sufficient God, and to my parents Mr. and Mrs. Yusuf Audi whose prayer and support led me to this stage of life. And to the thousands of people whose lives have been sacrificed in the various sectarian conflicts in Kaduna State, your memories are ever fresh in our minds!

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ABSTRACT

Kaduna State generally has been plagued by escalating conflicts which several scholars have attributed their causes to communal, poverty, ethnicity, religion, economic and or political. Issues that do not warrant people engaging in senseless killings and destruction of life and property have emerged with devastating consequences. This study examines whether poverty is the main causes of conflicts witnessed in Zango Kataf Local Government area over time. The quantitative research design, which made use of survey method, was employed to accomplish the purpose of the study. A structured interview and Focus Group Discussion were also used to obtain data for the study from respondents drawn from five electoral wards out of a total of eleven through a stratified and purposive sampling procedure. Result obtained from the study revealed there is pervasive poverty in Zango Kataf Local Government and that poverty causes conflicts. That the political elites manipulate these poor people and escalates most conflicts. The study therefore recommended that poverty must be addressed first as a human security measure in order to prevent, reduce and or solve the problem of elite manipulation of the people. Similarly, that conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government can be reduced drastically through good governance and justice from the part of political leaders to all the people irrespective of tribe, religion or creed. The government at the Local and State level should create employment opportunities for the bulk unemployed youths, human capital development, adequate infrastructural development, and that the people of Zango Kataf Local Government must unite under a single purpose to face their leaders headlong and vote out corrupt political leaders. They should also insist that corrupt political leaders are tried in a competent court of law.

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List of Acronyms

CBN=Central Bank of Nigeria

CHS =Commission on Human Security

CPC=Congress for Progressive Change

FGD=Focus Group Discussion

HDI=Human Development Index

INEC=Independent National Electoral Commission

MDG=Millennium Development Goals

MPI=Multidimensional Poverty Index

OPHI=Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative

PDP=People's Democratic Party

PPP=Purchasing Power parity

RUF=Revolutionary United Front

SAP=Structural adjustment Programme

UNDP=United Nations Development Programme

UNTFHS= United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security

ZKLGA= Zango Kataf Local Government Area

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background to the Study

With the end of the cold war, poverty and conflict have become the biggest Challenge to sustainable development. Even though debatable, poverty is continuously cited as one of the principal factors responsible for instability in many parts of Africa and Nigeria in particular. According to (Draman, 2003:1), West Africa contains eleven of the world's poorest countries and is currently one of the unstable regions of the world. In fact, at a United States Institute of Peace Workshop on "Responding to War and State Collapse in West Africa", participants reached a consensus (contrary to popular belief) that poverty and lack of economic opportunities are more important factors than Charles Taylor and the Revolutionary United Front (RUF) in the continuing instability that afflicts the entire region.

According to the United Nations Human Development Report (2010:55):

> The new century opened up with an unprecedented declaration of solidarity and the determination to rid the world of poverty. In 2000 the UN millennium declaration, adopted at the largest-ever gathering of heads of states the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's). Committed countries-rich and poor-doing all they can to eradicate poverty, promote human dignity and equality and achieve peace, democracy, and environmental sustainability.

Ten years later, poverty and conflicts have been on the increase, in Africa, Nigeria and Zango Kataf Local Government of Kaduna State in particular. According to (Omotola, 2008), about 70 percent of the population of Nigerians now lives in abject poverty. For Kaduna State (UNESCO 2008) puts the figures of those living in poverty at 51.2 percent.

The rise in poverty and conflict in Nigeria and particularly the North, (a place where Zango Kataf falls into) is assuming a worrisome dimension as empirical studies have shown. Nigeria, a

Sub- Saharan African country has at least half of its populations living in abject poverty (Ojo, 2008). Similarly, the publication from the Federal Office of Statistics (1996) reveals that poverty has been massive, pervasive and has engulfed a large proportion of the Nigerian society. It is said to be mainly responsible for most of the conflicts in the country, be they ethnic, religious or political. Abiola and Olaopa (2008) states that the scourge of poverty in Nigeria is an incontrovertible fact, which results in hunger, ignorance, malnutrition, disease, unemployment, poor access to credit facilities, and low life expectancy. This general level of human hopelessness leads to conflicts. Though not only a Nigerian problem, poverty and conflict are perhaps, the major problem confronting Third World Countries today and seem to be on the increase daily in spite of government's efforts at reducing and alleviating/eradicating it, (Joseph, 2006:89). The increasing rate of poverty has sparked off different forms of conflicts, including youth restiveness, inter-ethnic and intra-ethnic conflicts, religious conflicts, communal, political and social conflicts (Ekpenyong, Ukommi and Agha, 2010).

Nwaobi (2003) asserts that Nigeria presents a paradox; the country is rich, but the people are poor. As noted by (Omotola, 2008), Nigeria is richly endowed and the country's wealth potentials manifest in the form of natural, geographical, and human potentials. With this endowment, Nigeria should rank among the richest countries of the world but the reverse seems to be the case, with poverty at the extreme. Okpe and Abu (2009), remark perspicuously that Nigeria has witnessed monumental increase in the level of poverty and conflict. According to them, the poverty level stood at 74.2 per cent in the year 2000. And according to the United Nation Human Development Index (2010), Nigeria was ranked the 142nd poorest country in the world with 64.4% of the population living below the poverty line.

In view of this, the gap between the rich and the poor has increased significantly in recent times. The rich are getting richer while the poor are falling even further below the poverty line. The Nigerian society is increasingly becoming divided into two groups: the rich/privileged and the poor/marginalized. A significant majority of the population lives below the poverty line and cannot meet the basic needs of food, shelter and decent living standard in spite of the large chunk of the oil wealth generated (IPG, 2003, Ukwu; 2002).

Looking at the national records from the Federal Office of Statistics, (Garba, 2006) reveals that about 15 per cent of the population Nigerian was poor in 1960. The figure rose to 28 percent in 1980 and, by 1996, poverty rate in Nigeria rose to 66 per cent or 76.6 million people. Garba (2006), equally remarks that the UN Human Poverty Index, in (1999), placed Nigeria among the 25 poorest nations in the world. According to the UNDP (2010), the population in poverty was given as 68.7 million as of 2004. This is a very tragic situation when one considers the fact that Nigeria have generated over $300 Billion in oil and gas revenue since independence, (Awa, 1983); (Akanni, 2007). Awa (1983) further states that up to 95 per cent of this great wealth is controlled by about 0.1 per cent of the population.

The monumental waste of human resources resulting from poverty must be addressed if Nigeria must achieve the targets of the Millennium Development Goals by 2015, the vision 20:20:20 and most importantly, realize the full benefits of democracy.

The quality of life in Nigeria, Kaduna State and Zango Kataf Local Government in particular, has been greatly compounded by poverty, illiteracy, violent conflicts and lately HIV/AIDS. In addition to these, unemployment has become a serious threat to peace and stability in the State. This is as result of the total collapse of most of the industries, particularly the textiles industries, which used to be the major employer of labour in the State.

Unaddressed poverty and crushing economic hardship experienced by citizens will provoke reactions that can threaten social equilibrium, and even disrupt the democratic experimentation in the country at large.

It is sad to note that various poverty alleviation strategies have been adopted by successive governments in Nigeria, but their level of social impact leaves much to be desired (Oshewolo, 2010). Observers have unanimously agreed that these programmes have failed to achieve the objectives for which they were established (Ovwasa, 2000); Adesopo,(2008); Omotola, (2008).

The Kaduna State until recently, has from the 1980s occupied a volatile position in the history of sectarian tensions and conflicts in Northern Nigeria. From the early 1980s, tensions and sectarian conflicts intensified in Kaduna State. In the broader Nigerian context, several groups have evoked the mobilization of ethno-religious, and all sorts of identities as vital in the struggle for survival. According to Kazah-Toure (2003: 76), the Babangida years in power, 1985-1993, witnessed the growth of sectarian conflicts. Sectarian conflicts were heightened by the economic crisis that started in 1982, and worsened with the introduction of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) as from 1986. This brought about the dwindling of people's fortunes, (explosion of poverty which is said by observers to have resulted in the incessant conflicts being witness in Kaduna State), as the poor tend to perceived their enemies as those who belong to the other ethno- religious group rather than the rich who oppress them. Structural Adjustment Programme brought about retrenchment of civil servants from their means of livelihood, inflation, and increase in the cost of living, unemployment and general economic downturn. The poor people during this period were further enmeshed in poverty making the possibility of coming out of poverty very difficult. The resultant effect was increase in conflicts one of which is the 1987 conflict that started in Kafanchan which later spread to other parts of the state.

Usman (1987) maintained that there was a massive retirement in the military, which has been a major employer since the late 1960s. The return of former soldiers back into the peasantry contributed to their being restive in the communities and the growing ethno-religious and other sectarian conflicts. He further argued that local battles were now fought in typical military style. Incessant inter-ethno-religious and communal conflicts accompanied the hard times brought about by SAP. Some analysts argue that the military was to some extent, responsible for triggering sectarian conflicts and insecurity so as to perpetuate itself in power (Usman 1987).

The impact of the harsh economic reality as expressed in poverty leading to conflict and violent conflicts began to rear its ugly head. According to (Abdu, 2005) the 1980s and 1990s have witnessed increasing concentration of poverty and sectarian conflicts in urban areas. The reason for this is the high influx of people to the urban areas in search of employment opportunities. Due to high rural-urban migration, the overall population growth rate for Nigerian urban centres was 4.5 per annum compare to rural growth of 1.70% and a national rate of 2.8 % (UNDP 2010).With the introduction of SAP by the Babangida regime which brought about devastating effect on the people; the cumulative effect of this is increasing unemployment, collapse of real wages, inflation, and collapse of public facilities has resulted in conflicts of various types.

The first in the recent series of conflict started in March 1987. The crisis arose from a disagreement between Muslim and Christian students in the College of Education Kafanchan. It later spread to Kafanchan town and subsequent reprisal killings occurred in Kaduna, Zaria, Katsina, Funtua, and Daura (then in Kaduna State). Though one may argued that this conflict was religious in nature and therefore, should not be linked with poverty, but it seems so. The root cause could be traced to the harsh socio-economic condition between and among the Hausa and Fulani, and the Southern Kaduna people. This can be explain in terms of political, economic,

social opportunities between the Hausa and Fulani in one hand and the Southern Kaduna people on the other hand. The harsh economic reality of the time as earlier explained above resulted in frustration and the expression of aggression by the people in a religious manner. Thus, economic factors could be explained as the major cause of this conflict.

In January 1992, another crisis erupted between the so-called indigenous Atyap community and the migrant Hausa and Fulani Community in Zango Kataf Local Government over the location and control of a market (Kazah-Taure, 2003; Abdu 2005). This resulted in killings and destruction of lives and property of both Hausa-Fulani and Atyap people and consequent reprisal attack in other parts of the State. In 1999, violence erupted over appointment of Hausa and Fulani Emir, of Jama'a in Kafanchan, and in 2000, there was a large-scale violent conflict over the planned introduction of Shari'ah in the State. This led to the destruction of lives and property worth billions of Naira. Generally, there is deep-seated socio-political differences and distrust among these groups, and the major factor behind all these sectarian conflicts as claimed by some analysts lies in 'poverty'.

As if that was over, violent conflicts erupted again in 2002. One of such battles is the Kasuwan Magani violent conflict between the 'Adara' ethnic group that holds to the claim of being indigenes and the Hausa-Fulani. It was a repetition of an earlier conflict that took place in 1998. The conflict centred on the Land question and the control of markets as well as the issue of control of power in local matters. Another conflict area was Lere, where the Kahugu had been challenging the perceived Hausa continuous dominance at the levels of politics and the economy. Similarly, there was a crisis between the Gure and the Kahugu over land and economics, a situation which led to the establishment of government Day Secondary Schools at Kahugu and Gure respectively by the state government in order to pacified the two groups.

Another conflict erupted between the Bajju ethnic group and the Ikulu in March, 2001 over the ownership of land. The conflict became so violent such that small Arms and Light weapons were employed with serious loss of lives and property (Kazah-Toure, 2003).There was the Miss World Beauty Pageant crisis in November 2002.The crisis erupted over a media publication written by Miss Isioma Daniel and published by Daily Times Newspaper concerning the event in relation to the Prophet Muhammad. Moslems in Northern Nigeria went wild and the incident led to the destruction of thousands of lives and property worth million of naira. Though in my opinion, the publication by Isioma Daniel was inciting because of the disrespectful remarks made on Prophet Mohammed.

On April 18, 2011, one of the worst conflict erupted after the presidential election results were announced by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) declaring the incumbent Goodluck Jonathan of the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) winner over his rival from the Congress for Progressive Change (CPC), Muhamadu Buhari. Supporters of Buhari went on rampage demonstrating against the pronouncement of the election results by the electoral commission (INEC). The protest was turned to full blown carnage in most northern States like Kano, Zamfara, Katsina, Jigawa, Yobe, Gombe, Bauchi and Kaduna. But the crisis became more serious and devastating in Kaduna State than any other state of the north. There was large scale destructions in Zonkwa, Kafanchan, Birnin Gwari, Zaria, Soba and other small communities and towns across the state and the impact of this conflict are still being felt till date. Thus, these conflicts have further justified the reasons for this research.

Central and complex issues involved in these battles include land question, control of political power in public governance; control, access, and distribution of resources, ethnicity, religion, perception of justice and democratic question (Kazah-Toure, 1995). Looking at the

conflicts between the Atyap and the Hausa, Bajju and Ikulu, the problem is centred on land ownership and control. Dunmoye (2003:17) stated that:

> A major factor of communal conflicts in the North and the Middle Belt Zone is Land or boundary disputes. This shows that land is becoming a very scare factor of production either due to population pressure, Land alienation or concentration of land in a few hands.

Abubakar, (2008) argued that there is a close link between conflict, the economy and poverty. He maintained that conflicts affect economic growth and thereby increase the poverty level. Abubakar cited Jos, the Plateau State capital which has being experiencing violent conflicts since September 7th 2001, a situation which has brought economic activities in the State to near a collapse. Expatiating further on conflict, (Dunmoye, 2003:29) agrees when he states:

> Conflicts in Nigeria have been exacerbated by the economic crisis and pauperization of the citizen in recent times. Factors that account for these conflicts are numerous. These include ethnicism, Religious differences and their manipulation, land, hunger and bourgeoning population, chieftaincy disputes and the native/settlers syndrome."

A strategic conflict assessment of Nigeria (IPCR, 2003), with particular reference to North-Central Zone, a place where Kaduna State falls into, (by virtue of Geography) concluded that conflict in the zone focus largely around ethnic plurality, access to political and traditional positions of authority, Land ownership and the clash of herder/ cultivator interest. The report stressed that:

> Underpinning these sources of antagonism and triggers and deeper systemic issues at the centre of which is the relationship between political power and access to economic resources and opportunities. Poverty, unemployment and limited Alternative routes to economic gain; governance that is not open to responsive to the needs of the people and inadequate provision of security and to basic services also contributes to this central relationship……. In the north central region, this has brought about large numbers of casualties and displacement (Abubakar, 2008:7).

A careful observation of the issues raised above show that the causal factors of conflicts are numerous but central to this is bad governance which is responsible for the endemic poverty.

This is inview of the fact that the ruling elites have failed to give to the people a dignified life through good governance. Unfortunately, the elites in most cases have been accused of fuelling these conflicts to their advantage thereby further creating deep division among the people.

It is on this premise that this research work examined the relationship between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government of Kaduna State. It became very imperative to investigate the relationship between poverty and conflicts because there might be some links between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government Area as poor people are susceptible to manipulation by the elites.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

The rate at which conflicts escalate in Zango Kataf Local Government of Kaduna State is quite disturbing and more worrisome as the Local Government has occupied a volatile position in the history of sectarian tensions and conflicts in Kaduna State. The Local government has continued to witness vicious cycle of violent conflicts some of which has attracted national and international attention. Issues that do not warrant people engaging in killings and destructions of life and property have surfaced with devastating consequences. One keep wondering what could be the possible causes of these conflicts in Kaduna State as a whole and Zango Kataf Local government in particular? Some scholars have linked most sectarian conflicts of various dimensions ranging from communal, ethno-religious, socio-cultural, political and economic conflicts in the state to poverty. Although UNESC0 (2008) puts the poverty headcount for Kaduna State at 51.2 %, while National Bureau of Statistics (NBS,2010) reports shows that relative poverty rate of the state is 73.0%.This study is poised to answer the question of whether there could be any link between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government? It is against this backdrop that this study examined the relationship between poverty and conflicts in

Kaduna State with particular focus on Zango Kataf Local Government council, 1987-2011. To achieve this successfully, the study attempt to provide answers to the following research questions:

1.3 Research Questions

1 What are the factors responsible for the escalation of conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government Area?

2 What is the relationship between poverty and conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government?

3 To what extent has poverty heightened conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government Area?

4 What are the practical indicators of poverty in Zango Kataf Local government?

5 How can conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government be reduced or mitigated?

1.4 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of this research is to establish a link between poverty and conflict in Kaduna State using Zango Kataf Local Government as a case in point. The specific objectives the study attempted to achieve are:

1. To establish the relationship between poverty and conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government Area.

2. To identify the factors responsible for conflict escalation in Zango Kataf Local Government Area

3. To examine the extent to which poverty has heightened conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government Area

4. To assess the practical indicators of poverty in Zango Kataf Local Government Area

5. To recommend ways of reducing conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government Area.

1.5 Research Assumptions

1. There is significant relationship between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government Area.

2. Most of the conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government are caused by the manipulation of political elites.

3. Ignorance and unemployment constitutes triggers to conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government area.

4. Poverty does not heighten conflicts in Zango Kataf local government.

1.6 Significance of the Study

Poverty and general hopelessness of the people was diagnosed as one of the major causes of conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government. The area is generally backward in many aspects and therefore, need urgent government intervention. The study has also proved that poverty causes conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government as shown in the survey of practical indicators of poverty conducted in the cause of the research. The choice of the theory of human security has further revealed the desperate need of governments at all levels to intervene by providing basic amenities/services to the people of Zango Kataf Local Government in order to cushion the effects of their sufferings and build peace, development and sustenance of other sector of their economy. Having help in discovering the actual nexus between poverty and conflicts on Zango Kataf Local Government therefore, the study will be useful to academics and other researchers in their theoretical approaches. Furthermore, it will open more doors for researchers to carry out indepth research to test the validity of these findings or the otherwise of it. Similarly, it will be of immense benefit to public policy analysts because it brings of their focus our attention to the

interface between poverty and conflicts. More so, this study has been able to discover the factors responsible for the conflict escalation in Zango Kataf Local Government of Kaduna State.

Therefore, it is believed that this study has brought to the focus the importance of understanding the real causes of conflicts, and the best mechanisms to be adopted for the promotion and achievement of peace, prosperity. Similarly, that a conducive environment should be created by the government within the State so that citizens could enjoy a better life.

1.7 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The scope of this study was limited to the assessment of the relationship between poverty and conflicts in Kaduna State between 1987-2011 using Zango Kataf Local Government Area as a case study. A research of this nature is never void of limitations such as insufficient time; lack of cooperation by respondents was serious constraints of this research work. These limitations notwithstanding, an attempt was made at successfully obtaining all the relevant data required in order to put his research together. However, whatever the limitation, this study is still considered very useful in that it has provided some basis for further research on the topic covered in future.

1.8 Justification of the Study

The choice of this area of study- poverty and conflict can be justified on the grounds that the Northern part of the country and Kaduna State has continued to witness unending sectarian and violent conflicts before and during the period under review. More disturbing is the escalating rate of violent sectarian conflicts since the country return to democratic government in 1999. Similarly, the choice of Zango Kataf Local Government is that it has witnessed a very significant number of violent conflicts in the State one of which have attracted international attention. Zango Kataf Local Government has perhaps witnessed one of the highest numbers of conflicts in the state. So, this presents a unique opportunity to carefully and systematically investigate the

reasons for the attendant violent conflicts, a situation which is not acceptable. Lastly, no work has been done on the nexus between poverty and conflict in the state and the Local Government to the best of the researcher's knowledge.

1.9 Research Methodology

Nworgu (1991) defines research design as a plan or blue print which specifies how data relating to a given problem should be collected and analysed. Research design being a plan or a strategy for conducting the research was used based on survey. This method the researcher believes reveals useful information within a short time. The choice of this method was also to allow for a number of respondents who themselves constitute a sample to determine the character, features and quality of the research. The purpose of this method is to discover meaning in data collected, so that facts and events could be better understood, interpreted and explained. The survey was based on very simple procedure such as collecting data by asking people questions through Focus Group Discussion (FGD) and a well Structured Interview. Therefore, the population structure sampled for the research in Kaduna State is Zango Kataf Local Government Council.

1.10.1 Sources Used For Data Collection

The sources used for collection of data for this research were through primary source of data and secondary sources of data.

i. Primary Data

The Primary data are those which are usually collected by the researcher through the use of research instruments such as questionnaire, Focus Group Discussion, Observation and Interview.

In this case, to be able to establish the relationship between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf local Government, a Focus Group Discussion and Structured Interview were used.

Focus Group Discussion was used in Zonkwa, Zango town, Samaru Kataf and Fadan Kamanton where groups of Politicians, students, the elderly, gender unemployed, the employed and the self-employed were engaged in discussion as to the link between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government. Questions were administered to them and then ample opportunity was given to them to express their minds on the topic under investigation. Their responses were recorded through the use of Radio recorder while part was written down by the researcher with the team of three research assistants.

The interview method was equally used in the gathering of data. Selected people such as traditional rulers, religious leaders and politicians were interviewed through a one on one interview. These people were very important to the research and are more knowledgeable about the politics of the place, and could give useful suggestions that proffer possible solutions to the problem.

ii. Secondary Data

The secondary data used in this study included published and unpublished documents. This method was used through the extraction of relevant information from scholarly publications, Journals, newspapers, magazines, conference papers, books and above all, the internet etc.

1.10.2 Sampling Procedure

Daramola (1995:116) describes a sample as selected groups which are a fair representation of the entire population of interest. He further observes, "A sampling procedure as a systematic process employed to select a required proportion of a target population. Combinations of purposive and stratified sampling techniques were adopted here. In view of this, Zango-Kataf Local

government was purposely chosen because it has perhaps over the years witnessed some sectarian conflicts that have attracted national and international attention in the Southern part of the state.

Stratified sampling method was adopted to ensure that the sample has certain characteristics that are representative of the population on key variables. The strata used are: the youths, the elderly, the unemployed, the employed, the poor, gender, the employed, peasants, students and those who are self-employed. These target groups were purposely selected because of their relevance to the research. Apart from the fact that they constitute a good sample size, they were able to provide reliable views of the topic for this research.

Zango Kataf Local Government has eleven wards (electoral wards) with a total of four ethnic groups. In determining the sample size, five wards were selected representing each ethnic group (Anghan, Atyap, Bajju and Ikulu and The Hausa and Fulani). Interviews and Focus Group Discussion were conducted in Zonkwa, Samaru Kataf, Zango Town (for the Hausa community), Fadan Kamanton and Kamuru Station. Conflicts spots were identified in each ward for the conduct of interviews and Focus Group Discussion. A group of secondary school students were organiesd for the FGD in each word while prominent personalities like religious leaders, traditional rulers and politicians were interviewed.

For the FGD conducted, ten (10) students from Nuhu Bamalli Polytechnics, Samaru Kataf were organised for it, six(6) each from Government Secondary School Fadan Kamanton and St. Francis College Zonkwa while Government Day Secondary School, Kamuru Station had eight (8). Similarly, another group of interview and FGD was organised for the poor, peasants, the youths, the unemployed, the self-employed and the employed. This means the FGD was conducted in each electoral ward sampled for the purpose of this research.

STRATA OF THE SAMPLE
Youth
Poor
Peasants
Students
Unemployed
Employed
Self –employed
Elderly
Gender: Male and Female
Politicians
Traditional rulers
Religious leaders

Source: Strata of the sample surveyed by the researcher

1.10.3 Procedure for Data Collection

The procedure for collection of data on the relationship between poverty and conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government was through Focus Group Discussion and Structured Interview. The aim was to ensure that the outcome of the research is reliable and valid.

The mixed method was adopted because it enables the researcher to have a balance representation of the sample population and a reliable outcome of respondents' responses. The combination of the two methods enables the researcher to have balance opinions of respondents regarding the topic under investigation. Similarly, due to the target groups the researcher used,

for example the youths, the elderly, the poor, peasants, women, unemployed, self-employed, traditional rulers, religious leaders, civil servants and students, it became necessary that the mixed model was employed so that a near 100 per cent objectivity can be attained of the research from the respondents.

First, there was a random selection of towns (areas) for the Focus Group Discussion and Structured Interview. They include: Zango Town, Samaru Kataf, Kurmi Bi, Zonkwa, (Abobo), Fadan Kamanton, and Kamuru Station. The researcher purposely chose these towns because they have been serious flash points during conflict situation. Similarly, they have gained prominence because some of the 'bad boys' who have been at the fore front of conflict in the Local Government also reside there. In each of the areas covered in the study, respondents were identified through the stratified sampling method and simple random sampling used in selecting respondents. The researcher and his team of three research assistants carried out the Focus Group Discussion and the interview of the respondents for the research. Three weeks was spent in the conduct of the research in Zango Kataf Local Government Area.

1.10.4 Methods of Data Analysis

The method of reporting was through an arrangement of respondents responses based on the questions asked during the interview and Focus Group Discussion. In other word, respondent views were categorised based on the questions asked during the course of this study. After the categorisation, the data was coded and edited before the analysis of data. The data collected was subjected to a combination of transcription, coding and interpretation of result. After the recording of the interviews, the deductive method of analysis was used in interpreting the data.

1.11 Historical Background of the Study Area

The multi dimensional nature of poverty in Nigeria and Kaduna State in particular and the attendant incessant violent conflict calls for an overview of the history and background of the study area in order to understand the possible cause and the solutions to poverty and conflict. Similarly, a historical background of the study area will help us have a better understanding and appreciate the results of this research. Therefore, this section focuses on the historical background of Zango Kataf local government of Kaduna State**.**

Zangon Kataf Local Government Council

Zangon Kataf is a Local Government Area in Kaduna State, Nigeria. Its headquarter is in the town of Zonkwa. It has an area of 2,668 km² and a population of 316, 370 at the 2006 census. The people are predominantly Bajju and Atyap, with other ethnic groups such as Anghan, Ikulu. There are is a Hausa community and other Nigerian ethnic groups living with the natives.

Historically, the Zango Kataf area was an autonomous small communal polity of related ethnic groups, and the people were followers of traditional religion(s). The ethnic groups were of the semi-Bantu family of the Niger-Congo languages. A common feature being that they shared the same traits and culture, and belong to what Harold D. Gun classified as the "Kataf group of tribes" (cited in Kazzah-Toure, 2003:120). The Hausa settlement of Zango was established in the middle of circa 18th century in the homeland of the Atyap people, as a mid-way base for long distance traders.

There was never a strong relation between the Hausa and the Kataf of Zango rather; Zango was only a transit route of slave trade for the Hausa down south. Similarly, there is no record of conquest by the Hausa on the Kataf people except instances of raids carried out by the jihadists on the small communal polities that resulted often in capturing of slaves for the Hausa. It was in 1903 when the Zazzau Emirate was conquered by the colonialist that a strong colonial military

force was deployed to subdue the Kataf people and brought under the emirate system for the first time.

Before the conquest of the Kataf people by the colonial superior power, (Kazzah-Toure, 1995:121) described the animosity between the Hausa and the Kataf ethnic group thus:

> *…Atyap continuous attacks on Fulbe cattle, refusal to pay tax and tribute, and outright rebellion. As a result, the enclave of Zango was cleared of Hausa population for fear of reprisal".*

With the evacuation of the Hausa population in 1897, things changed. The Hausa could no longer live securely in the area, and travelling along the trading routes became unsafe, until the arrival of the British colonialists in 1903. With the coming of the colonialists, some Atyap (Kataf people) were captured and taken as slaves to Zazzau while majority relocated to places with hilly terrain and caves like Kagoro which provided hiding places and thus more security (Kazzah-Toure, 2003).

The imposition of Hausa and Muslim rulers over the autonomous communal polities brought about force labour, taxation, oppression of the people by the Hausa traditional rulers without recourse to the tradition and beliefs of the people led to series of revolts that continued up to the 20th century. The Hausa had better opportunities at all levels while the Kataf were more of second class citizens, oppressed and dominated by the Hausa. This lopsided relationship continued throughout the colonial era. Kataf people were ruled by Hausa leaders during the colonial administration a situation which did not go down well with the Kataf people.

Apart from the Atyap (Kataf) ethnic group, other neighbouring ethnic groups experienced similar fate where the Hausa and Fulani aristocrats were made rulers over them without regard to the culture and beliefs of the people. This resulted into constant clashes between these autonomous

communal polities and the Hausa and Fulani rulers. After Nigeria's independence in 1960, this lopsided relationship continued where the Hausa and Fulani were favoured in governance above these ethnic nationalities, a situation that have pitched them against each other till date.

1.12 Definition of Key Terms

A. Poverty

Poverty may be seen as a reflection of glaring defects in the economy as evidenced in mass penury, pauperization of the working and professional class, including artisans, mass unemployment and poor welfare services. It includes absence or lack of basic necessities of life including material wealth, commonplace, regular flow of wages and income, and inability to sustain one based on existing resources available (CBN's, 1999).

Poverty is seen as a life in environment where low income, inadequate work opportunities, poor housing and depressed mental and physical state is prevalent. It is also a lack of power to do anything about it. Poverty is insecurity and a lack of emotional stability. Omale and Molem (in Obadan et al, 2003: 6) define poverty in two basic ways; "absolute deprivation" i.e. lack of basic necessities and "relative deprivation" i.e. the inability to maintain the living standards customary in the society. Absolute poverty they said is measured in terms of basic cultural needs, including education, security, leisure and recreation while relative poverty refers to a situation in which people may not be able to provide themselves with basic necessities and are unable to maintain the standard of living that is considered normal in the society. Poverty as a deprivation or

situation where individuals cannot meet basic necessities of life considered normal in a society has been adopted as a working guide.

B. Conflict

Conflict is a struggle, between individuals or collectivities over values, claims to status, power and scarce resources in which the aims of the conflicting parties are to assert their values or claims over those of others (Goodhand and Hulme, 1999:14) cited in Goodhand (2001). Conflict according to (Coser, 1956:8) is a struggle over scarce resources that are not regulated by shared rules; it may include attempt to neutralize, eliminate or destroy rules, it may include attempt to neutralize, eliminate or destroy one's rival. It is a product of antagonistic interest between two or more opposing forces or groups within the society and may manifest itself in a continuum range from early signals to violent crises or war (Alemika, 2004:4) cited in Ekpenyong et al, (2010). It arises when actors or groups are dissatisfied with existing social conditions and thus seek the same goal or mutually incompatible goals (Agha, 2004: 66).

Conflict could be viewed as a triangle with structure, attitudes and behaviour at its verticals. The structures embodies the conflict situation, the parties and their conflict interest, values and goals, attitudes refers to the tendency for the parties to see conflict from their own point of view, to identify with one side, and to diminish the concern of theirs; behaviours include gestures and communication, which can convey either a hostile or a conciliatory intent (Galtung, 1996; 47, Draman, 2003). Conflict generally is defined as an interaction between interdependent people who perceive incompatible goals and who expect interference from the other party if they attempt to achieve their goal (Draman, 2003). Conflict is embedded in society and cannot be separated from ongoing political and social processes.

The above definitions have undeniable truth in them: conflict is inevitable in every social relationship; it occur between individuals, families, communities, states, countries, organizations, a group at varying degrees; the chief causal factor of conflict

is incompatible interest; and conflict can be associative or dissociative. And when a people cannot maintain a minimum standard of living customary to a society, poverty is said to have heighten and this could in turn results to conflict.

C. Communal Conflict: communal conflict is defined as violent conflict between non state groups that are organised along a shared communal identity. The groups are organised along a shared communal identity, meaning that they are not formally organised rebel groups or militias but that the confrontation takes place along the line of group identities.

D. Violence: Violence is the use of physical force to injure people or property. Violence may cause physical pain to those who experience it directly, as well as emotional distress to those who either experience or witness it. Individuals, families, schools, workplaces, communities, society, and the environment all are harmed by violence (*Encyclopedia of Psychology* online).

E. **Violent Conflict:** Violent conflict refers to the fact that the parties use lethal violence to gain control over some disputed and perceived indivisible resource, such as a piece of land or local political power.

F. **Security:** According to (Manunta, 1999:58), security is defined as 'a function of the presence and interaction of Asset (A), Protector (P) and Threat (T) in a given Situation (Si)'. This definition was adopted for the purpose of analysis in the research.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

Given the excruciating effects of poverty and conflicts on human and sustainable development, its global dimension, it has remained the focus of national and international development programmes. In spite of the pursuit of economic adjustment programmes, and the achievement of moderate growth, poverty and conflicts has increased in developing countries like Nigeria. It has been generally accepted that although economic growth and good governance is a prerequisite for poverty alleviation, it is not by itself a sufficient condition, especially where growth is accompanied by bad governance, inequality in income distribution. Therefore, the design of poverty reduction strategies, encompassing the adoption of programmes and provision of appropriate social safety nets and good governance which will ensure that the benefits of economic growth actually trickle down, require that the more vulnerable groups in the society be clearly identified.

This chapter analyses the basic concepts and examine the views of scholars on poverty, conflicts and the nexus between poverty and conflicts.

2.2 Literature Review

2.2.1 Conceptualising Poverty

Poverty defies objective definition because of its multidimensional nature, notes (Osinubi, 2003). It is very wide and elastic (Joseph 2006). Poverty means different things to different people in different contexts, and circumstances. Poverty, like an elephant, is more easily recognized than defined (Aboyade, 1975).

Given its multi-dimensional nature, poverty has been perceived using different criteria. Poverty may be seen as a reflection of glaring defects in the economy as evidenced in mass penury, pauperization of the working and professional class, including artisans, mass unemployment and poor welfare services. It includes absence or lack of basic necessities of life including material wealth, commonplace, regular flow of wages and income, and inability to sustain one based on existing resources available (CBN, 1999).

In such a state, the means of achieving minimum substance, health, education and comfort are absent. That is why poverty is associated with a condition in which income is insufficient to meet subsistence need. Similarly (Johnson, 1971:23) defined poverty as "a situation where the resources of individuals or families are inadequate to provide a socially acceptable standard of living". In other words, the individual lives below the conventional poverty line demarcating the poor from the non poor.

Nnamani (2005a:15) conceived poverty as the social situation personal to the individual; a group in which he cannot undertake the funding of essential services to self or groups and in which participation in social development is lowered, if not aborted for lack of the major currency decimal applicable within the environment". It is therefore then a state of human condition in which an individual cannot afford adequate living standard or is not possible to attain it. In this wise, poverty affects social relations and the ability for an individual to realize his/her full potentials in life.

The German government in 1992, described poor people as "those who are unable to lead a descent life," while defining poverty as "not having enough to eat, a high rate of infant mortality, a low life expectancy, low educational opportunities, poor water, inadequate health care, unfit housing and a lack of active participation in the decision making process".

Sometimes attention is drawn to the relative poverty and a clear distinction is drawn between the poor and the non-poor. According to the World Bank Development Report, 1990, poverty is defined as "inability of certain persons to attain a minimum standard of living". The poor are known to have inadequate level of consumption (Aluko, 1975). They are illiterate with short life span (World Bank, 1995), and cannot satisfy their basic health needs (Sancho, 1996).

2.3 The History of Poverty

Geremek (1994) and (Hanson, 2000) attempted to trace the history of poverty by looking at whom or what causes it. Geremek linked poverty from the middle ages to the modern era. According to him, poverty in the medieval age was not primarily measured on economic terms, but rather it was based on moral and spiritual grounds. Geremek (1994:74) said "even in the middle ages there was little sentimentality about involuntary material poverty". A high value might be placed on the spiritual poverty which arose from the deliberate renunciation of worldly goods or from a refusal even while retaining control of one's fortune, to be rule by materialistic concerns. Similarly, Geremek further posit that other forms of poverty might well be regarded with contempt and attributed to idle or dissolute behaviour.

Hanson (2000) on the other hand argued that the history of poverty can be traced to decaying systemic conditions beyond individual control. According to (Hanson, 2000) poor people are in their unfortunate condition due to circumstances beyond their control. Because the source of poverty lies in the socio economic system, the solution to it must also be at their societal level. Hanson's view is associated with the great economic crisis that engulfed the Western Europe in the sixteenth century.

According to Geremek, (1994) with the great economic crisis of the sixteenth century, especially those of the 1520s, mass poverty began to be perceived as a threat to the public good.

The poor were conceived as indolent, and unwilling to work (Ward, 1999). This perception led to the establishment of the working of the English 1834 poor Law act. This non understanding and the uncompassionate piece of legislation established the infamous 'less eligibility principle' that not only labeled the 'poor' but also categorized them as lazy, it made people believe they were poor because their number included 'able bodied' adult males who preferred to seek indoor relief in the poor law institution rather than find work. They and their successors have thus carried the unfortunate stigma of being work-shy down the generations.

Contrary to this view, Ornati (in Dunne, 1964:17) however, does not believe that the poor are poor simply because they are shiftless lots. They are victims of background and environment. He continued, society owes it to them, and itself, to enrich their personal patrimony and to improve their personal, social and demographic characteristics.

In order to successfully address the explosive mass poverty, and to bring sanity into the society, certain strategies were adopted to stem the tide. All the vulnerable groups were provided with certain skills or assistance in order to improve their living condition (Hanson 2000, Geremek, 1994). Geremek further pointed out that, it was the method employed in the past that most government have adopted in the fight against poverty today.

2.4 Dimensions of Poverty

Poverty has been conceived through various dimensions. Nwaobi (2003), (Osinubi, 2003), (Igbuzor, 2004) all agree to the concept of income poverty. Osinubi (2003:15) interestingly defined the income dimension of poverty as "a situation of low income or low consumption". This has been used in the constructions of poverty lines. But (Igbuzor, 2004) defined income poverty as "a condition where people lack access to basic needs". There is also the non-income dimension of poverty usually intertwined with the income dimension of poverty.

According to Lines (2008), poverty has both physical and psychological dimensions. Poor people themselves strongly emphasize violence and crime, discrimination, insecurity and political repression, biased or brutal policing, and victimization by rude, neglected or corrupt public agencies. Some may feel poor or be regarded as poor if they cannot afford the sort of things, available to other people in their community. Poor people report their condition largely in terms of material deprivation, not enough money, employment, food, clothing and housing, combined with adequate access to health services and clean water; but they are also unable to give weight to such non-material factors as security, peace, and power over decisions affecting their lives.

The description above revealed, clearly what a person lacks when he/she is poor. But they do not capture poverty in its entirety. This is because poverty is very complex. Although income poverty is the most evident and glaring, poverty is multi-dimensional and multi-faceted and includes income, political, social and ideological poverty.

Income poverty is a condition where, people lack access to basic needs. Political poverty occurs when people are denied basic rights and excluded from participating in the decisions concerning the generation, distribution and utilization of the resources in their communities/ nations as well as being excluded from how they are being governed. Social poverty is a condition of societal stratification where certain individuals are discriminated against, stigmatized and dehumanized.

Ideological poverty is a condition, where people are bereft of or forced to abandon indigenous, genuine, people centered and practical ideas on how to organize society and distribute resources of communities and nation in a just and equitable manner. It is important to note that these various dimension of poverty are interconnected and reinforce each other (Igbuzor, 2004:24).

To determine the practical aspect of the concept of poverty, three sets of ratios based on the level of consumption were constructed by the World Bank in 1997. These are the so-called p-alpha ratios, showing:

(i) The head count ratio, the proportion of the population for whom consumption fall below the poverty line.

(ii) The depth of poverty, which is obtained by multiplying head- count ratio by the proportion of the population deem to be poor.

(iii) The severity of poverty, obtained by squaring the gap between the incomes of the poor and the poverty line, and also taking into account income distribution.

Aluko's (1975) description of poverty with lack of command over basic consumption need such as food, clothing and shelter, calls for a serious investment by governments into the lives of the poor. Such lack of resources to meet the basic needs incapacitates the individual in protecting himself against social, economic and political deprivation. Also Deng (1966), Atoloye (1997), Englama and Bamidele (1997), (cited in CBN, 1999:8), defined poverty as "lack of basic necessities of life".

The poor people are more in the urban slums than the rural areas, it is more apparent therefore and that most of the poor people in developing countries lived in the rural areas. Poverty in urban areas can be real and painful enough but the overwhelming majority of the very poorest people is actually rural (Osinubi, 2003).

As earlier mentioned, the German Government 1992 described the poor people as "those who are unable to lead a descent life". They are illiterates with short life span (World Bank, 1995). They are known to have inadequate level of consumption (Aluko, 1975).

They are mostly residing in the rural areas and they constitute over 70 percent of the Nigerian population (IFAD, 2007). Most of the poor engage in agricultural production. The rural poor include large number of subsistence and near–subsistence farmers, who grow all the food that their household eat or only purchase a limited amount in exchange for produce that they sell. Such people earn little monetary income, but they are not necessarily worse off than those who grow no food for themselves (Lines, 2008). They have no or limited access to basic necessities of life such as food, clothing, decent shelter, are unable to meet social and economic obligations, they lack skills and gainful employment. Have few, if any economic assets, and sometimes lack of self-esteem (Olayemi, 1995). Very often, the poor lack the capacity to escape from their situation by themselves. This characteristic is what causes the social conditions of extreme poverty to persist and to be transmitted from one generation to the next. In fact, (Nwaobi, 2003:9) described it more succinctly that "Africa's poor threatens to make poverty what he called 'dynastic' with the descendants of the poor also remaining poor". Frequently, that those most affected by extreme poverty are young children, pregnant mothers, the elderly, the inhabitants of rural areas and marginal urban zones and that group of people who have not been integrated into the society, especially, certain ethnic groups of people who find themselves segregated from their own societies. Among the groups most affected by extreme poverty throughout the world are those who are more vulnerable and lack resources, along with those who do not have the capacity to organize themselves nor to exercise the right to protect their situation (Sancho, 1996).

The poor in most developing countries are to be found among four identifiable economic groups such as: the rural landless, the small farmers, the Urban underemployed, and the unemployed (Osinubi, 2003). Generally, the poor are disproportionately located in rural areas and shows in

urban centres. Their socio- economic status is stinking, and unless something is done soon, they risk ending up on the economic scrapheap. They are further described thus:

(a) Households or individuals below the poverty line and whose incomes are insufficient to provide for their basic needs.

(b) Households or individuals lacking access to basic services, political contracts and other forms of support.

(c) People in isolated rural areas who lack essential infrastructures.

(d) Female-headed households whose nutritional needs are not being met adequately.

(e) Persons who have lost their jobs and those who are unable to find employment as a result of economic reforms under the structural adjustment programme (SAP) and those who are in danger of becoming the new poor.

(f) And finally, ethnic minorities who are marginalised deprived and persecuted economically, socially, culturally and politically.

Eneh (2005) gives a different picture of poverty using the following indicators:

a. Low gross domestic product (GDP).

b. Low gross national product (GNP) per capital.

c. Unbridled environmental degradation.

d. Low school enrolment and completion rates.

e. High infant mortality (IMR).

f. High material mortality rate (MMR).

g. High rate of teenage girls (15-19 years) who are mother or pregnant with first child.

h. Low proportion of births attended by unskilled health personnel.

i. Low family planning and contraceptive prevalence rates.

j. High proportion of fewer than 5 children with stunting.

k. High proportion of under -5children with underweight.

l. High proportion of population with food insecurity.

m. High proportion of under-5 children with wasting.

n. Low proportion of population who have access to safe drinking water.

o. Low proportion of population with access to adequate sanitation facilities.

p. High proportion of population with lifetime prevalence of drug abuse.

q. High crime rate per 100,000

r. High HIV sero- prevalence rate

s. High HIV prevalence rate for 20-24years old ante-natal care attendance, and

t. Estimated number of people living with HIV/AIDs

The human faces behind these conditions impose poverty reduction as the fundamental objective of human development in Kaduna State as a whole and Zango Kataf local government to be specific in order to mitigate the rate of conflict escalation. Although, poverty manifest itself in different forms depending on the nature and extent of human deprivation. When the minimum level of consumption to sustain human existence becomes important in distinguishing the poor from the non-poor, the unemployed and low income earners come readily as the stratum of poor households. It is more likely that this group may not have the capacity to provide the basic needs like food, clothing, housing and transportation for themselves and their teaming dependants. Most of them live in shanty, usually overcrowded and poorly ventilated homes. This class of poor people spread across geographical divisions, urban-rural and occupational categories.

Aboyade (1989), held the view that there seems to be a general agreement that poverty is a difficult concept to handle, and it is more easily recognized than defined. Thus, even though it is difficult to be specific about minimum level of well being for the state poverty, the poor in any given society stands out sufficiently in terms of severe material deprivation for their wretched conditions to be immediately recognized.

He stated that, in absolute terms, insufficient or total lack of necessities and facilities like food, housing, medical care, education and environmental service, consumer goods, recreational opportunities, neighbourhood amenities and transport facilities, is sufficient indicators of a state of poverty.

Pursuing the argument that poverty is more of a relative condition of well being, he stated that people are poverty-Stricken when their incomes, even if adequate for survival, fall radically behind that of the community average, they cannot have what the larger community regard as the minimum necessary for decency and they cannot wholly escape therefore the judgment of the larger community that they are indecent (CBN, 1999). They are degraded, for in the literal sense, they live outside the grades or categories which the community regards as acceptable. In this conception, what is considered poverty level in one country may well be the height of well-being in another?

Nnamani (2005b: 24) argued that poverty is not just about living on less than a dollars a day, but it manifests in 'poor infrastructure, poor health, poor nutrition, poor self-esteem, low hygiene standards, low intellectual development and lack of capacity to social, economic and political environment and low per capita income." But the central Bank of Nigeria (1999), the world Bank (1996) and the United Nations Development Programmes (2010) both agree that poverty has income and non-income dimension while it refers to lack of physical necessities, it also

represents a general condition of deprivation manifesting in social inferiority, powerlessness, isolation and degradation. According to Abdullahi (1993), poverty may be structural or chronic (i.e. Long term and persistent) if it is caused by more permanent or chronic factors such as limited access to production resources, joblessness or endemic socio-political problems.

Poverty may also be transitory or temporary and therefore, reversible, if it is caused by natural or man- made disasters such as flood, drought, war, environmental degradation or even future of public policy (CBN, 1999:9).

The perception of poverty has therefore, broadened the focus beyond the ability of households to provide food for its members to include its ability to access other basic social amenities which impact positively on family welfare.

2.5 Indicators of Poverty

The human poverty approach has been advanced by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in its Human Development Reports. UNDP (1997: 34) uses this conceptual framework to specify some basic human capabilities, which if absent, could result to poverty. It includes the capability to "lead a long, healthy, creative life and to enjoy a decent standard of living, freedom, dignity, self -respect and others".

The measurement index method of conceptualizing poverty has also been recognized in the existing literature (Rocha, 1998; Maxwell, 1999; Ajakaiye, 2002). As observed by (Omotola, 2008), measuring poverty, though a herculean task has become the rule rather than the exception. In terms of measurement, Rocha (1998) proposed that defining the relevant and operational poverty concepts and choosing the adequate measuring procedures is the result of a sensible and informed analysis of social reality.

Indicators of poverty generally, focus on measures of economic performance as well as the standard of living of the population. They thus combine measures of income or purchasing power or consumption with those social indicators which highlight availability and access to health care delivery, education, basic infrastructure and other welfare enhancing facilities in order to define the incidence of poverty (how many people are poor), the intensity or severity of poverty (how poor are they) and the distribution of poverty within a population (CBN, 1999).

Income based measures frequently used include GNP per capita, the purchasing power of real GDP per capita, etc. But recently, according to a survey conducted by Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI), used Multidimensional Poverty Index, (MPI) which was adopted by UNDP'S (2010) Human Development Report. The MPI reflects both the incidence (H) of poverty- the proportion of the population that is multi-dimensionally poor and the average intensity (A) of their deprivation. The MPI is calculated by multiplying the incidence of poverty by the average intensity across the poor. A person is identified as poor if he or she is deprived in at least 30 percent of the weighted indicators (OPHI, 2010).

The need to specify benchmarks against which individual, regional, and national measures of poverty can be compared has led to the construction of poverty lines which represent the value of basic (food and non food) needs considered essential for meeting the minimum socially acceptable standard of living within a given society. Thus any individual whose income or consumption falls below the poverty line is regarded as poor and the national poverty rate is the percentage of the population of a country living below the poverty line for that country. Similarly, separate urban and rural poverty lines may be constructed since the cost of living in the rural areas seems to be cheaper than in urban areas. From these, the corresponding urban poverty rates and rural poverty rates may be derived.

A related measure is the poverty Gap index (or Income Gap Index) which measures the shortfall or gap between the average income of the poor and the poverty line, expressed as a percentage of the poverty line. And in order to reflect inequality in the distribution of income, the percentage share of income or consumption according to segments of the population can be indicated by deciles (lowest to highest 10.0 percent) or quintiles (Lowest to highest 20.0 percent) of the population. However, the Gini index which measures the extent to which the distribution of income or consumption expenditure among individuals or household within a population deviates from a perfectly equal distribution is a good summary of the degree of inequality (CBN, 1999).

However, because of the all-pervasive nature of poverty (Gore, 2002), poverty lines will necessary differ from country to country depending on general price levels, the tradable/non tradable mix is basic needs exchange rates etc. Hence at the international level, there is an international poverty line of US $1.0 a day, expressed in 1985 international prices, and adjusted to local currencies using Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) exchange rates. With per capita income of $290 (Garba, 2006), Nigeria is one of the poorest countries in the world in spite of its enormous human and natural resources (oil wealth), because the living standards of the generality of its people falls below the poverty level.

The social indicators of poverty measure the availability to health, education and welfare facilities as well as basic infrastructure. The health indicators include those of life expectancy at birth, mortality rates across the age- segments of the population, prevalence of malnutrition, percentage of the population with access to health care, safe water and sanitation. They also include the number of hospital beds and physicians per unit of population, availability of productive health facilities and access to child immunization. For education, the ratios they

computed are literacy rates, and gross and net enrolment ratios at the primary, secondary and tertiary educational levels, disaggregated by gender, and expressed as a percentage of the relevant age group with the population. Measures of basic infrastructure include supply of electric power, telephones, tarred roads, railways, air traffic etc/per unit of population (CBN, 1999).

The development in computing indicators of poverty is the initiative of UNDP to provide composite quantitative measure of both the economic and social indicators of human development called the Human Development Index (HDI). The HDI combines a measure of purchasing power with measure of physical health and educational attainment to indicate progress or retrogression in human life. The building blocks of HDI are data on Longevity, knowledge and income. Longevity is measured solely by life expectancy at birth, while knowledge is measured by the adult literacy rate and means years of schooling weighted at 2:1 respectively. For income, purchasing power parity (PPP) (based on real GDP per capita adjusted for the local cost of living) is used. These three measures are combined in a three step process to arrive at an average index. The HDI sets a minimum and a maximum rate for each measures and then shows where each country stands in relation to this range, expressed as value between 0 and 1.

The main limitation of the HDI as a composite socio-economic indicator is the fact that, like all averages, it conceals the wide distribution inequalities within a population.

However, measuring poverty is a matter of identifying the essential causes of poverty in a given society (Rocha 1998). Is it widespread and affects the majority of population or is it locally concentrated? Which are their roots? Is it a traditional syndrome or does it result from economic and technological changes? Is it as a result of primitive accumulation or the typical rentier

syndrome of oil producing states as argued by the Iranian economist Hussien Mahdavy? Which are its main features? And who are poor in terms of some essential characteristics? This overall information on poverty syndrome is the key element for adopting concepts and measurement instruments that seem the most appropriate to a specific context in terms of social reality and data gathering possibilities.

2.6 The Causative Factors of Poverty

It is evident that the causes of poverty are numerous. According to (Ward, 1999) "The cause of poverty is poverty itself". According to him, poverty like wealth is inherited. Ward (1999) argued that it is the frequency of poor health and education combined with limited access to only the bare minimum of assets that places children born to poor parents at a serious and often lifelong disadvantage. Though causes of poverty could at terms be attributed to poverty itself, but Michael ward seem to have closed his eyes from looking at the human factors – the ineptitude and avarice of political leaders, who have failed to put their people at heart before their personal interest. His western background cannot be employ in Sub – Saharan Africa and other developing countries where political leaders used the state as a centre of primitive accumulation in order to enrich themselves. This is one of the major reasons why poverty has remained a curse to Nigeria. The Central Bank of Nigeria (1999), broadly grouped the causes of poverty into two: Low economic growth and market imperfection. But Nigeria have experienced some economic growth over the years without any corresponding development; does it mean the growth was not real or what? Eneh (2007) further advocates for similar growth in a strategy he called "pro-growth pro-poor strategy." This strategy according to him is based on labour intensive economic growth and investment in people by way of provision of social services and amenities. While the provision of basic amenities is a good strategy to cushioning the effects of

poverty, economic growth on the other hand hasn't proven to be a good approach to reducing poverty. That is not to say economic growth is not a basic requirement for poverty reduction, but in the case of Nigeria it has not resolve the poverty 'wahala' (problem). The question that comes to the minds of people is why is poverty more rampant today in Africa, particularly Nigeria, than any other region of the world, even though almost without exception, many of the independent African states had identified poverty reduction as a primary policy objective more than thirty years ago. African Medical and Research Foundation- AMREF (1998) in a poverty survey in Kisumu district, Kenya, identified environmental, historical, political, demographic and personal factors as major causes of poverty in the district (Joseph, 2006:93).

According to (Obadan, 1997), the main factors that cause poverty in Sub-Saharan African include: inadequate access to employment opportunities, inadequate physical assets, such as Land and capital (the poor have minimal access to credit even on a small scale). Inadequate access to the means of supporting rural development in poor regions, poor access to markets where goods and services can be sold, Low endowment of human capital, degradation and reduced productivity, inadequate access to assistance for those living at the margin and the victims of transitory poverty, and finally failure to involve people in the design of development programmes that affects them.

Enahoro and Ikpefan (2005), Identify causes of poverty as large family size, low level of human capital lack of access to cultivable land, absence of or inadequate access to all weather roads and markets. Other factors are low productivity, poor health status of an individual, and cultural and social values, which have unfavourable bearing on work ethic, drug and alcohol abuse and certain types of family structure (polygamy, single parent households). The Economic Policy

Research Centre (1997) identified the main causes of poverty to be civil strife, economic crises and the HIV/AIDS epidemic.

Ijaiya (2000); Abdu (2005), attribute the cause of poverty on urbanization. They argued that the factors that cause poverty in most urban cities can be linked to the inner urban decay caused by poor public facilities that have been allowed to get run down due to lack of maintenance and investment. Insufficient resources and poor maintenance skills are often accountable for this; the available amenities are frequently inadequate to meet the increasing demand placed on them.

Galbraith (1971:54) made a cursory observation on the causes of poverty in the three regions of the developing world: the Sub- Saharan Africa, Latin America and Asia. For Sub-Saharan Africa, he ascribes poverty to what he called "absence of opportunity rather than absence of aptitude," as the countries of this region "have had only a few years" of independence to face the task of economic development. He further observed that people with requisite education, training, and honesty for performing public task are unavailable, in this region. Consequently, "taxes are collected in haphazard or arbitrary fashion and public funds are spent inefficiently or for no particular purpose except the reward of the recipient". Furthermore, Galbraith noted that law enforcement in Sub-Saharan Africa (particularly Nigeria), is unreliable and essential public services which exist could only make primitive local trade to flourish with the attendant handicaps.

While Galbraith (1971) may be right to some extent, but to large extend he is wrong. We agree that there was absence of aptitude, but honesty and the opportunities for effective poverty eradication abound. The greatest problem Sub- Saharan Africa and zango Kataf local government is confronted with today is lack of men of sound mind and character. Men who are

focus, determine, honest and have character. Men who are ready to sacrifice their comfort for the sake of their father land. Men devoid of sentiments and above all, men that are not greedy but fear God. Unless and until we have this caliber of people, the prospect of poverty reduction and eradication will remain a dream to Nigerians. This is not to say that Africa and Zango Kataf local government does not have competent men to rule, it is just that such people have not had the opportunity to come into power.

From the foregoing, the causative factors of poverty may be summaries as follows:

There is no one cause or determinant of poverty. On the contrary, combination of several complex factors contributes to poverty. They include low or negative economic growth, inappropriate macroeconomic policies, deficiencies in the labour market resulting in limited job growth, low productivity and low wages in the informal sector, and a lag in human resource development. Other factors which have contributed to a decline in living standards and are structural causes or determinants of poverty include increase in crime and violence, environmental degradation, retrenchment of workers, a fall in the real value of safety nets, and changes in family structures. These are examined below by (Ajakaiye and Adeyeye, 2002:7).

1. Low Economic Growth Performance: Growth of the economy is a must for poverty reduction. In developing countries such as Nigeria, where growth that is employment generating and with export base is desirable in order to achieve growth that is poverty reducing with equity. Although the economic performance of countries in the World has generally been highly volatile since the early 1980s, on the whole, growth rates have been low or negative, with overall declines in several countries. This is due in part to external shocks such as adverse changes in several countries' terms of trade, changes in global demand for exports and changes in global interest rates on developing countries external debt.

2. Macroeconomic Shocks and Policy Failure: - This has been a major cause of poverty in several countries of the world. As many economies in the world faced macroeconomic disequilibrium, mostly in the balance of payments due to expansive aggregate demand policies, terms-of-trade shocks, and natural disasters, it become necessary to undertake major policy reforms. In the process such economies became vulnerable to poverty. Macro-economic shocks and policy failure account for poverty largely because they constrain the poor from using their greatest asset "labour". Also, monetary policies that adversely affect cost and access to credit by the poor, fiscal policy which results in retrenchment, lay-off and factor substitution; exchange rate policy which raises the domestic cost of production in an import dependent production system will affect the poor negatively. However, an exchange rate policy which boosts exports particularly those in which the poor are predominantly engaged (for example agriculture) will help reduce poverty. The urban poor, as a result of policy failure, are vulnerable to job losses resulting from job-cut-backs in the public sectors or from the decline of industries adversely affected by shifts in relative prices. They also lose from the removal of food subsidies and other welfare packages.

3. Labour Markets Deficiencies: The poor's most abundant resource is their labour; a virile labour market is important to reducing poverty and income inequality. In most countries of the world the majority of poor households participate in the labour market in one way or another, and thus poverty is a problem of low wages (in the informal sector), low labour returns to rural self-employment activities, underemployment, and in some cases, protracted unemployment. These problems are affected in different ways by deficiencies in labour market. The majority of the labour force work as paid employees in the private informal sector, followed by employees in the public sector. When there are deficiencies in labour market, the poor are affected by limited

job growth and absorption capacity in the formal sector. Also, relatively high labour costs in the formal sector that lead to over expansion of a low-productivity informal sector, thus putting downward pressure on wages in the informal sector (where many of the poor work), and limited opportunities for unskilled youth to acquire job training and skills can perpetuate a cycle of poverty.

4. Migration: Migration rates do reduce poverty especially when the majority of individuals who migrate are skilled workers. On the other hand, individuals who emigrate vacate jobs in labour markets. Thus, migration drains on skills. It reduces the pace of economic growth and thus slows the process of overall job creation and affects the long-run development potential in a country.

5. Unemployment and Underemployment: Employment is a key determinant of poverty. Gainful employment is important for individual to earn income and escape from "income" poverty. While generally in countries of the world the non poor suffer from transitional or involuntary unemployment, the poor are faced with problems of structural unemployment due to lack of skills or extremely low educational levels, medical problems, geographical isolation (which affects some of the rural poor in general and the urban poor due to marginalisation of persons living in high- crime neighborhood) and in some countries, discrimination based on race or other attributes.

6. Human Resource Development: This is key for human capital development and capability to escape from poverty. Continued investment in human capital with an improvement in efficiency is necessary to sustain reduction in poverty changes in the labour market. Investment in people can boost the living standards of households by expanding opportunities, raising productivity, attracting capital investment, and increasing earning power: In addition, providing additional

educational opportunities for adolescents may prevent some youths from becoming involved with gangs, drugs and violence, given the evidence linking the perpetrators of crime with school dropouts.

6. Health/Diseases: Good health is basic to human welfare and a fundamental objective of social and economic development. Poor health shackles human capital, reduces returns to learning, impedes entrepreneurial activities and holds back growth and economic development. Diseases cause poverty and vice versa. In most countries of the World major diseases causing poverty are Malaria, HIV/AIDS and other Infections/diseases. In Nigeria for instance, AIDS prevalence is about 5.4% with an infected adult population of 2.6 million. This will constrain availability and participation of this segment of the population in the labour market to earn income.

7. Debt Burden: In several developing countries of the world, debt burden is assuming increasing importance as a cause of poverty. In such countries servicing of the debt has encroached on the volume of resources needed for socio-economic development. The productive sector such as agriculture, manufacturing etc are equally constrained leading to low productivity, low capacity utilization, under employment and low purchasing power thereby subjecting the masses of the people to abject poverty. In Nigeria, at the end of December 2000 external debt stood at US$28.5b (about 80% of GDP). The amount required to service this debt annually is enough to hamper government expenditure for the provision of social and physical infrastructure for the poor.

8. Governance: The persistence and pervasiveness of poverty in several countries has been linked to the lack of popular participation in governance and decision- marking as well as weak institutional base. This has led among other things to poor accountability, transparency in resource allocation, weak programme implementation and monitoring. Ultimately, development

programmes are rendered ineffective, poverty reduction initiatives are therefore ineffective and resources wasted.

9. Environmental Degradation: Environmental degradation is a cause of accentuated poverty. At the same time, poverty itself can be a cause of environmental degradation. This reverse causality stems from the fact that for poor people in poor countries such as Nigeria, a number of environmental resources are complementary in production and consumption to other goods and services while a number of environmental resources supplement income most especially in time of acute economic stress. This can be a source of cumulative causations, where poverty, high fertility rates and environmental degradation feed upon one another.

10. Crime and Violence: A steady increase in crime and violence has degraded the quality of life to a varying extent in many counties of the world. Although individuals of all socioeconomic groups are affected, the urban poor are particularly vulnerable to these social problems. There are instances of shootings, gang killings, etc.

Crime and Violence have serious economic costs. For instance, an increasing proportion of public resources, which are already limited, are required to strengthen police enforcement, support the growing prison population, finance the demands place on the judicial system, and provide health care for persons injured by violence. Other costs include the expensive security systems and guards now required by businesses and homes, the loss in potential revenues from foreign investors and tourists who have sought other destination as a result of the threat of crime, and the migration of the urban middle class. Because of the heterogeneous nature of the poor, it is difficult to link poverty, crime and violence directly. However, the adverse social consequences of crime have been closely associated with poverty e.g. loss of lives at productive age and quantum loss of properties.

11.The Strategy of Economic and Social Development: There is no doubt that a situation of economic underdevelopment could be a hindrance to the capacity of a nation or nations to formulate and implement programmes and projects that would enhance real economic growth, the first necessary step to poverty alleviation. Nigeria requires the expertise of men and women with the capacity, capability and the integrity to utilize. The billions of dollars the country has generated and is still generating from crude oil can be channel to promote development.

12. Low Productivity: causes poverty since the consuming unit is unable to earn enough income which will enable it to maintain adequate/ decent living standard. Low productivity may be due to obsolescence of human skills or low acquired skill resulting from Low education, poor health, and acquired skill resulting from low education, poor health, and physical incapacity. Nigeria's human and physical skills has tended to deteriorate with the passage of time as a result of the combination of brain-drain and failing educational facilities and funding (CBN 1999:14).

13. Market Imperfections: Distortions in the employment market, which introduce all forms of discrimination and rigidities that prevent the advancement of people along the social and economic ladder of progress, in the form of sex, age, colour, race and tribe constitute market imperfections. Also, the existence of an income distribution structure which is skewed in favour of some classes in the society is a form of market imperfection that renders the less favoured class poor.

14. Physical or Environmental Degradation: A classic case of this cause of poverty is readily seen in countries like Ethiopia, and Somalia in Africa. Misuse or over – use of land which results in deforestation, desert encroachment and blight in an excessive shifting cultivation system of agriculture are destructive of endowed land resources, swelling the population of the poor as well

as Deeping the incidence of poverty. It is the same effect that oil spillage produces from mindless exploitation of crude oil in Nigeria.

15. Structural Shift in the Economy: Inadequate macro- economic management policies usually result in an unwholesome shift in economic activities. Nigeria is a good example of such a structural shift. It was a well balance economy with five principal export commodities namely: cocoa, palm produce, rubber, groundnuts, and cotton before the advent of crude oil. The country's structural shift occurred when undue concentration was given to crude oil to the neglect of agriculture which provides jobs for the rural poor. In the process the economy became a mono-culture, while mass poverty became the lot of the rural sector, with the consequent rural – urban drift which also swelled the number of the urban poor.

16. Inadequate Commitment to Programme Implementation: Much, of the policies and programmes in the development plans of the 1970s and 1980s in Nigeria for example, were not faithfully implemented even when the country did not suffered lack of funds. This failure contributed to deepening poverty. Also, worthy of note here, is the usual pattern of lack of commitment to policy by each successive government (lack of continuity), however beneficial the policies of the preceding government may be. All this results in economic instability and is unhelpful to poverty alleviation.

17. Political Instability: In line with the observation of Galbraith (1971), the rush to "share in the national cake" has resulted in political instability in most African countries including Nigeria, with serious adverse impact on the economy. In fact, the "sharing syndrome" is responsible to the primitive accumulation which the theory hopes to explain in detail and the race to capture the central government by politicians became *"a bout"* that has increase the number of the poor.

18. Corruption: The incidence of corruption has taken a frightening dimension such that Nigeria is now internationally regarded as one of the most if not the most corrupt country in the world. In its attempt to measure corruption the transparency international (an NGO set up to counter corruption worldwide) developed the corruption perception index (CPI) which ranks countries according to the extent to which they are perceived round the world as corrupt. In its 1998 report, it ranked Nigeria among the four most corrupt countries in the world with a ranking of 1.9

Corruption can lead a country into foreign debt. A good example is Nigeria which got trapped in both the London and Paris club's debt. Though Nigeria has been cleared but it seems the present government is beginning to push the country into debt again. By and large, corruption or otherwise known as "primitive accumulation" is one of the major causes of poverty in Nigeria. Corruption can cost government as much as 50 percent of their tax revenues, and corruption can equally add between 20 percent and 100 percent to government costs for goods and services (CBN, 1999:15).

2.7 The Concept of Conflict

Generally, conflict is defined as an interaction between interdependent people who perceive incompatible goals and who expect interference from the other party if they attempt to achieve their goal. According to (Coser, 1956:8) "conflict is a struggle over scarce resources that are not regulated by shared rules, it may include attempts to neutralize, eliminate, or destroy one's rival". Conflict is a product of antagonistic interest between two or more apposing force and groups within the society and may manifest itself on a continuum range from early warning signal to violent crises or wars (Alemika, 2000:4). It arises when actors or groups are dissatisfied with existing social conditions and thus seek the same goal or mutually incompatible goals (Agha, 2004:66). To illustrate further, these social conditions suggest the deprivation of basic

human needs by the political leaders- ruling class, for the people a situation which arises frustration that result to aggressive violent explosions.

Galtung (1996) viewed conflict as a triangle with structure, attitudes and behaviour as its vertices. By structure, he means the conflict situation, the parties, and the conflict of interest among them. Conflict arises where the parties come to have incompatible interests, values or goals. He use the term attitudes to refer to the tendency for the parties to see conflict from their own point of view, to identify with own side, and to diminish the concerns of others. Behaviour includes gestures and communications, which can convey either a hostile or a conciliatory intent.

According to (Justino, 2007), conflict can lead to poverty traps and on the other hand, poverty can lead to conflicts traps too. As a result, initial outbreak of conflict is likely to create a cycle of conflict and poverty traps from which households are not able to escape easily. (Collier, 2007, Justino, 2008, Justino, 2009) thus, high vulnerability to household's poverty increases the risk of participation in and support of conflict.

An individual that have been a victim of violent conflict is likely to participate in further conflicts most especially if he/she was not properly compensated or the perpetrators of the conflict were not punish during and after the previous conflict. Some people participate in conflict if they are perceived to be a subject of target by another group or an opposing group. In this case, (Goodhand, 2001) conceived conflict as a struggle, between individuals or collectivities over values or claims to status, power and scarce resources in which the aims of the conflicting parties are to assert their values or claims over those of others. Conflict is embedded in society and cannot be separated from ongoing political and social processes. Its eruption could be as a result of deplorable human conditions. Fukuda-Parr (2008), described conflict as a critical human development cost and capability of deprivation for individuals because human security is

threatened, infrastructure is destroyed, institution' capacities are weakened, and conflict destroys people's livelihood through its impact on economic growth.

A certain amount of conflict is always present in society. It may even have positive consequences. When group experiences conflict with outsiders, group members often draw closer together and achieve a greater sense of solidarity (Coser, 1956:8, Simmel, 1955:31). When it takes place within a group, however, conflict creates divisiveness rather than solidarity. The result is usually destruction of the group of significant change in internal relationships (Brinkerhoff and white 1988:88 cited in Ekpenyong et al, 2010).

The above definitions have undeniable truth in them: conflict is inevitable in every social relationship; it occurs between individuals, families, communities, states, countries, organization or groups at varying degrees, the chief causal factor of conflict is incompatible interest; and conflict can be associative or dissociative.

2.8 Causes of Conflicts

There are quite a number of arguments advanced by different scholars on the causes of conflicts in Africa and, Nigeria inclusive. According to (Fukuda-Parr, 2008) the causal factors of conflict in relation to poverty are link to the theories of "greed and grievance". The greed theory linked conflict with dependence on primary exports and natural source and the vested interest of certain powerful groups creates an ability to finance civil conflict, especially when employment and earning opportunities for young men are few, which causes them to participate. He further argued that the grievance theory focuses on ethnic, religious and regional divisions and inequalities that can cause political repression and conflict among impacted groups. (Nnoli, 1980 Elbadawi and Sambanis2000, Salawu, 2010) all concurred to the notion of ethnicity as the major cause of conflicts in Africa. However, (Paul collier and Anke Hoeffler, 2004) debunk the

conventional wisdom that most conflict arises from ethnic heterogeneity and religious divisions. They instead maintained that situation of poverty creates greater likelihood for internal conflicts to occur.

Another argument put forward by scholars is the fragility of states, a factor which (Fukuda-Parr, 2008), (Gurr and Marshal, 2003) posits is often present in civil conflict and can exacerbate the effects of conflict on the population. When state capacity is weak and there is lack of political means to resolve conflict or prevent its occurrence, then citizens will feel insecure, resulting in loss of confidence in the government's legitimacy.

Modernization, democratization, colonization, militarization, population explosion, volatile climate and environmentalism and economic factors have been highlighted as some of the causes of conflict. The existence or manifestation of any of these factors mentioned could trigger conflict. Ehrlick (1973: 21-26 cited in Ikejiaku, 2009) argued from the economic theory that the propensity to indulge in violent conflict is higher for low income or less educated people. The assumption is that poor economic conditions and low quality of life could serve as a breeding ground for conflict. However, for the fact that poor economic condition might result from different problems bedeviling Africa, economic factors could not fully explain conflict in Africa. For example, Glaeser (2002, cited in Ikejiaku, 2009) argues against economic factors nothing that political leaders often encourage individuals and groups to engage in violence conflict in order to promote and protect their parochial and egocentric interests (Justino, 2009).

State failure, ineffective and illegitimate governance, imbalance of power and opportunities, the theft of national wealth by a small, self declared elite, the repression of opposition, rights and freedom all figure prominently in this sitting (Verstegen, 2001, Ibrahim 1995). Using governance as a factor, (Ikejiaku, 2009) attributes the causes of conflicts in Africa

on poverty which is rooted in political corruption. He revealed that the trends of events in the past three decades show that political corruption is the root cause of conflict. This situation has rendered most of the states in the continent incapable of providing the basic needs of the people.

The failure of developing countries like Nigeria to bring about responsible governance has heightened poverty which in turn make the citizenry more vulnerable to violent conflict that have plagued the society.

2.9 Poverty and Conflicts in Nigeria

Nigeria has witnessed myriads of conflicts with serious devastating consequences. Enweremadu(2009) described the conflicts in Niger Delta to poverty, corruption and total neglect from the government. In addition to this, there is the issue of the destruction of their environment by the activities of Multi-National Companies such that their land has become very difficult to cultivate crops. Looking at the crisis in Zango Kataf and the Tiv-Jukun conflict in Taraba State are all link to Land and controlled of economic activities. This is similar to the conflicts between the Aguleri Vs Umuleri, Ife Vs Modakeke in Osun States. Dunmoye (2003) described this scenario to the primacy of land and, the absence of it is link to poverty. Usman(1987) explained the outbreak of the crisis at the Kaduna State College of Education Kafanchan to the harsh economic condition occasioned by the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme(SAP) during the regime of Gen .Ibrahim Babangida. There was massive retrenchment of workers, increase in the standard of living among the people. Most of these conflicts in Nigeria are justify on the escalating rate of poverty in Nigeria during the period under review.

Poverty Leads To Conflict

On one hand, it has been argued by (Draman, 2003; Ikejiaku, 2012) that poverty leads to conflict. The association between poverty and conflict has become more apparent since the demise of the Cold War. Of 63 low-income (poor) countries, 38 are located in Sub-Saharan Africa and strikingly, these are the countries associated with conflict Luckham et al, 2001(in Ikejiaku, 2012). Poverty is also one of the cardinal forces that accounts for instability in many parts in the African continent. West Africa for example harbours 11 of the 25 most poorest and underdeveloped countries and is currently one of the unstable regions globally (Sambanis, 2004). There is a strong correlation between the absence of material well-being and the prospects for violence, from crime in inner-city neighbourhood to political instability and social conflict in poor nations (Atwood, 2005). Aside from the direct link between poverty, inequality and wellbeing, high levels of economic inequality can also indirectly undermine the ability of a society to promote valued capabilities. Inequality can be a source of social tension and violence (Drez and Sen, 1995). In discussing the South African conflict in 1992 (Baker, 1993: vi) highlights among other issues, the linkage between poverty and violence: 'While the causes of the violence are complex, it is clear that violence, poverty and inequality are linked. Socio-economic deprivation and intense competition over scare resources intensify political rivalry and deepen racial and ethnic antagonism'. The nexus between poverty and conflict, and the impact on development in Africa, (Nigeria inclusive) has been captured by Austin 1999 (in Ikejiaku, 2012) who contends that Africa, particularly Sub-Saharan Africa is an all too appropriate region in which to consider the relationship between poverty and conflict because, besides being the poorest region of the world in terms of average incomes in the 1980s and 90s, it has been the most plagued by civil strife. Austin (1999), further notes that the campaigns against colonial or

white-minority regimes are over but the region has recently been characterised by many examples of other forms of civil strife because of poverty.

Conflict Leads To Poverty

On the other hand there is the argument that conflict leads to poverty – Scholars,(Nelson,1998; Cannor, 1994), who however disagree that poverty could lead to conflict, generally argue that poverty may only lead to conflict when other factors are present. They contend that, it is not a sufficient condition, and that no consensus has been established on whether poverty is effectively the cause of violent conflict or not. Nelson (1998) for example argues that the existing connection between economic grievance and conflict is elusive, variable, and highly determined by a wide-range of non economic factors. The persistent conflicts in Zango Kataf have increased the level of poverty as lives and property are destroy thereby affecting the economy of the area.

2.10 Poverty Profile in Nigeria

Poverty is still pervasive in Nigeria. Available data reveals that the poverty incidence in Nigeria has been on the increase especially from the 1980s and beyond. As reported by the UNDP (2010), between 1980 and 1996, the percentage of the core poor rose from 6.2 percent to 29.3 percent, declined to 22.0 percent in 2004, and has been on the rise since then. According to (Omotola, 2008), about 70 per cent of the population now lives in abject poverty.

There is the geographical dimension of poverty in Nigeria. According to (Aigbokhan, 2000), poverty is higher in the rural areas than in urban areas. In 2004, the urban population with access to water was 67 percent, while it was 31 percent in the rural areas. In terms of sanitation services, 53 percent of the urban population had access to sanitation services and 36 percent in the rural areas. This is worse than the situation in Cameroon, South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe (World Bank, 2008).

Garba (2006) observed that the world's per capita income as of 2003 was $7,140. Compared to this, Nigeria's per capita of $290 makes the country one of the poorest in the world. This relegated Nigeria to the ranks of Togo ($270), Rwanda ($220), and Mali ($210). Other indicators of development, such as life expectancy, for which Nigeria is ranked 155th out of the world's 177 countries, and infant mortality, for which Nigeria is ranked 148th among 173 countries, were consistent with Nigeria's low rank in income per capita (CIA, 2009). Based on these empirical data, Nigeria has been classified as a poor nation; a situation which can be described as a bewildering paradox given the vast resource base of the country.

According to (Earth Trends, 2003), 70.2 percent of the Nigerian population lives on less than $1 a day, while 90.8 percent lives on less than $2 a day. The total income earned by the richest 20 percent of the population is 55.7 percent, while the total income earned by the poorest 20 percent is 4.4 percent. This explains the alarming increase in poverty and the sharp inequality between the rich and the poor. Looking at the area with the highest measure of welfare per capita, the leading area in Nigeria, which is Bayelsa with a poverty incidence of 26.2 percent between 1995 and 2006, is still below the leading areas in Ghana (Greater Accra-2.4 percent), Cameroon (Douala, Capital of Littoral-10.9 percent) and South Africa (Baoteng-19.0 percent) (World Bank, 2008). In terms of the human development index, Nigeria is ranked 158th of the 159 countries surveyed in 2005 (CIA, 2009).

Using selected world development indicators, the life expectancy at birth in 2006 for male and female in Nigeria was 46 and 47 years, respectively. Between 2000 and 2007, 27.2 percent of children under five were malnourished. This is alarming compared to 3.7 percent between the same periods in Brazil, another emerging economy. Worse still, the Mortality rate for children under five years old was given as 191 per 1,000 births in 2006. This situation is very ridiculous

compared to the figures of 69 per 1,000 births in South Africa, 108 per 1,000 births in Togo, 120 per 1,000 births in Ghana, and 149 per 1,000 births in Cameroon (World Bank, 2008). This implies that there is a generalized high level of poverty in the country.

An analysis of the context reveals that poverty holds sway in the midst of plenty. Nigeria is the seventh largest oil producing country in the world, but it harbours the largest population of poor people in Sub-Saharan Africa with so many sectarian conflicts. It is ranked 158th on the Human Development Index (HDI). There is pervasive high-income inequality, which has perpetuated the concentration of wealth in the hands of a few individuals (Action Aid Nigeria, 2009). This is an iniquitous practice, which the Nigerian State must redress.

Appraising Antipoverty Initiatives in Nigeria

Since the attainment of independence in 1960 from the British government, the problem of poverty has, for a fairly long time been a cause of concern to Nigeria (Nwaobi, 2003). As a result, the government's efforts at combating the menace actually started immediately after the attainment of independence in October 1, 1960 (Ovwasa, 2000, Omotola, 2008). Nwaobi (2003) observed that the initial attention was focused on rural development and country planning as a practical means of dealing with the problem. He further notes that the failure to adequately implement these programmes can be seen as the precursor to most of the present causes of poverty in Nigeria.

Garba (2006) submits that the past attempts to alleviate poverty in Nigeria, which dismally failed, can be grouped into two distinct time frames or eras: Pre- SAP and SAP/post –SAP. Obadan (2001) notes that anti- poverty initiatives of the pre-SAP era were essentially ad hoc. The measures focused more on growth, basic needs and rural development approaches. During the same era, the government sought to fight poverty through certain institutional mechanisms

such as Operation Feed the Nation (OFN) Free and Compulsory Primary Education (FCPE), Green Revolution, Low Cost Housing, River Basin Development Authority (NAEDA), National Agricultural Land Development Programmes (ADP), Agricultural credit guaranteed scheme (ACGS) strategic Grains Reserves Programmes (SGRP), Rural Electrification Scheme (RES), and Rural Banking Programmes (RBP) (Garba, 2006, Omotola, 2008.Joseph, 2007).

As designed to take care of objectives, such as employment generation, enhancing agricultural output and income, and stemming the rural urban migration tide, which greatly contributed to rising poverty levels. While the Green Revolution and OFN were geared towards improved agricultural productivity, the low cost housing scheme was meant to address the housing problem in both the rural and urban settings of Nigeria. Iroegbu (2009) purports that these programmes yielded minimal fruit. Reacting to OFN, he claims that the poor were wrongly targeted and this continues to be a problem up to today. On the green revolution, he maintained that rather than the programme reward the poor, the influential people cashed into the fortune of acquiring lands for the purpose of obtaining grants and loans to the green farming.

During the SAP era, which witnessed the worsening of the socio-economic and political situation of the country, the government equally made some attempts to fight the scourge of poverty (Omotola, 2008). These programmes included the Directorate for Food, Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Better Life Programme (BLP), Peoples Bank of Nigeria (FBN), Community Banks Programmes, Family Support Programmes (FSP) and the Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) (Garba, 2006, Joseph, 2007).

These anti-poverty measures not withstanding poverty has consistently been on the increase in Nigeria, showing the government ineffectiveness of the strategies and programmes. The failure

of these measures has been attributed to lack of targeting modernism for the poor, political and policy instability; inadequate coordination of previous programmes, several budgetary, management, and governance problems, lack of accountability and transparency, and lack of mechanisms for the sustainability of the programmes as earlier mentioned are the causative factors of poverty (Obadan, 2001).

The government of Chief Olusegum Obasanjo introduced the Poverty Alleviation Programme (PAP) in 1999 as an interim anti-poverty measure (Nwaobi, 2003). According to Obadan (2001) PAP specifically seeks to provide jobs for 200, 000 unemployed people; create credit delivery system from which farmers can have access to credit facilities; increase the adult literacy rate from 51% to 70% by the year 2003, short up the healthcare delivery system from 40% to 70% by the years 2003, increase the immunization of children from 40% to 100%, raise the rural water supply and rural electrification from 30% to 60%, embark on training and settlement of at least 60% of tertiary institutions graduates and develop simple processes and small scale industries. This interventionist programme, notwithstanding poverty, incidence remained unprecedented in Nigeria.

Following the ineffectiveness of the PAP, as well as the central question it elicits as to why the government should be interested in only alleviating poverty instead of eradicating it, the government came up with the National Poverty Alleviation Programme (NAPEP) in 2001 (Omotola, 2008). According to Elumilade, Asaodu and Adereti (cited in Oshewolo 2010), the new programme has been structured to integrate four sectoral schemes, namely:

i. Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), which is concerned with providing unemployed youth opportunities in skills acquisition, employment, and wealth creation. To achieve this, the

scheme was further subdivided into Capacity Acquisition Programme, Mandatory Attachment Programme, and Credit Delivery Programme;

ii. Rural Infrastructure Development Scheme (RIDS), which deals with the provision and development of infrastructure needs in the areas of transport, energy, water and community, especially in rural areas;

iii. Social Welfare Scheme (SOWESS), which aims at ensuring the provision of basic social services, including quality primary and special education, strengthening the economic power of farmers, providing primary health care and so on;

vi. Natural Resources Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS) which seeks to promote participatory and sustainable development of agriculture, mineral, and water resources.

The target of NAPEP was to completely wipe out poverty from Nigeria by the year 2010, but here we are in a situation of uncertainty of what the future holds. Three stages of the attainment of this ambitions target have been identified as the restoration of hope in the mass of poor people in Nigeria which involve providing basic necessities to hitherto neglected people, particularly in the rural areas, the restoration of economic independence and confidence, and wealth creation (Elumilade, Asaolu, and Adereti, 2006,cited in Oshewolo,2010).

Although NAPEP appears to be well crafted, the prevalence of poverty in Nigeria and the various dimensions it has taken, place the activities of NAPEP in the realm of prospective analysis (Omotola, 2008).

The civilian administration that started in 2007 proposed a seven point agenda of development. The main objectives and principles of the agenda include improving the general wellbeing of Nigerians and making the country becomes one of the biggest economies in the world by the years 2020.the Agenda has critical infrastructure as the first key area of focus. This

includes power, transportation, national gas distribution, and telecommunications. The second focus is to address the existing issues in the Niger Delta through the NDDC and the Niger Delta Ministry. Food security constitutes the third priority area. The fourth area is human capital development and the land tenure reform is the fifth key area. While the sixth key area is national security, the seventh area of focus is poverty alleviation through wealth creation.

As laudable as these programmes appear, poverty still remains endemic and pervasive in Nigeria. What are the key challenges?

2.11 The Challenges to Poverty Reduction in Nigeria

According to (Garba, 2006), all the poverty alleviation initiatives in Nigeria since independence have yielded very little fruit. He claims that the programmes were mostly not designed to alleviate poverty, they lacked clearly defined policy framework with proper guidelines for poverty alleviation, they suffered from political instability, interference, policy, and macro economic dislocations, they lacked continuity, and they are riddle with corruption, political deception, outright kleptomania, and distasteful looting. No wander the conflict escalation is on the increase!

While examining the impact of institutions and policy on growth, poverty, and inequality in Nigeria, UNDP (2010) identifies some challenges to poverty reduction in Nigeria. First, is the area of governance, it is observed that the GDP growth rate in Nigeria is inversely related to governance indicators, such as political instability and absence of violence/terrorism, economic governance, and government effectiveness. Indeed, comparative analysis shows that governance indictors are on the decline in Nigeria. The poor quality of governance is, therefore, a major obstacle to development and poverty reduction in Nigeria.

Corruption, which is related to wasteful public investment, lower quality of public infrastructure, has underdeveloped Nigeria. Corruption has limited the initiatives against poverty and inequality. Many of the wealthiest people in the country are those who have acquired wealth through state power (i.e. primitive accumulation); by political corruption and by access to state contracts, agency rates and concessions. Corruption has also been a key factor in crime, unemployment, inter-religious and communal conflicts, unrest in the Niger Delta, police brutality, the Boko Haram bomb blasts and other instances of social injustice and dysfunction. Political corruption at any level, therefore, hampers the fight against poverty.

In this age of globalization, inter-governance system built on institutional interaction among sectors is becoming a therapy against the poverty scourge. The underdeveloped nature of this interaction in Nigeria has not helped in the fight against poverty. The uncoordinated collaborative efforts between the state, market, and civil society are hampering government interventionist programmes. The previous policies on poverty alleviation in Nigeria has been dominantly designed and implemented by the state. Where inputs from other sectors were allowed, such were not properly coordinated for effective impact on the poor population.

The politics of poverty remains another challenge (Ovwasa, 2000, Adesopo, 2008). According to (Ovwasa, 2000), the politics of poverty arises essentially from the fact that those who are saddled with the responsibility of alleviating poverty are the non- poor and in the Nigerian case, the probable cause of the problem. As explained by (Adesopo, 2008) the plight of the people have worsened by the excessive power that public officials enjoys in a country like Nigeria, where a few privileged people benefit from state generosity, leaving the larger portion of the population in abject poverty.

World Bank (1996) reports that the safety nets in the country are ineffectively managed and do not reach the intended beneficiaries. They have not been successful, as they have failed to include intended beneficiary communities in the design and execution of the safety net programmes. These constraints and challenges explained why poverty is still pervasive in Nigeria despite the huge sums of money appropriated over the years through relevant anti-poverty agencies to fight the menace.

2.12 Poverty and Conflicts in Northern Nigeria

Over the past three decades, poverty and conflicts has increased disproportionately in the North. The region has perhaps witnessed more conflicts than any part of the country a situations which scholars have attributed to poverty, inequality and economic deprivation. The Table below shows an increase astronomically in poverty in the north during the period under investigation.

There is a direct relationship between increasing poverty and insecurity. Whenever there is conflict and insecurity, poverty increases. The increased poverty fuels more insecurity and the vicious cycle continue. The Brookings Institute in its study noted that only 10 percent of the global poor live in stable, low income countries, 40 percent live in fragile and conflict-affected countries and 50 percent in middle income countries. This means that poverty is low in stable low income countries but high in conflict affected countries. It also means that poverty is prevalent in middle income countries because of inequality.

A review of the MDGs especially as it applies to Northern Nigeria will show that the challenge is huge and there is the need for urgent intervention. All official reports indicate that Nigeria is unlikely to achieve goal one. To achieve goal one, Nigeria is supposed to reduce the proportion of people living on less than one dollar a day to half the level of 1990 which means reducing

poverty from about 42 percent to 21 percent. But statistics from the National Bureau of Statistics indicate that the poverty level as at 2010 was 69 percent.

Table 1: Incidence of Poverty by Geo-Political Zones

Geo-Political Zone	**Percentage**					
Year	1980	1985/6	1992	1997	2004	2010
North East	35.6	53.2	54.0	68.0	72.2	76.3
North West	37.7	48.4	36.5	62.0	71.2	77.2
North Central	32.2	48.4	46.0	53.0	67.0	67.5
South East	12.9	30.9	41.0	79.5	26.7	67.0
South West	13.4	42.0	43.1	74.1	43.0	59.1
	13.2	38.0	40.8	78.6	35.1	63.7
Nationwide	28.1	43.0	42.7	69.2	54.4	69.0

Source: Igbuzor, 2012.

It is important to point out that the three zones in Northern Nigeria have the highest level of poverty in the country as shown in the graph in appendix .E. Taken together, the poverty level in Northern Nigeria is probably the highest in the world only comparable to war torn areas. The reason for the situation is not farfetched: conflicts (insecurity), corruption and lack of programming by Northern governments to support the poor.

A careful observation of the data above, will no doubt link the different conflict witnessed in the northern part of Nigeria to poverty. Abdu (2005) argued that those who have over the years championed the course of conflicts in the region are the youths. A close look at them shows that they have no means of livelihood and therefore, becomes vulnerable to the society.

2.13 Poverty and Conflict in Kaduna State

From the early 1980s, tensions and sectarian conflicts intensified in Kaduna State. In the broader Nigerian context, several groups have evoked the mobilization of ethno-religious, and all sorts of identities as vital in the struggle for survival. According to Kazah-Toure (2003:76), the Babangida years in power, 1985-1993, witnessed the growth of sectarian conflicts. Sectarian conflicts were heightened by the economic crisis that started in 1982, and worsened with the introduction of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) as from 1986. This brought about the dwindling of people's fortunes, (explosion of poverty which is said to have resulted in the incessant conflicts being witness in Kaduna State), as the poor tend to perceived their enemies as those who belong to the other ethno- religious group rather than the rich who oppress them. With SAP, the working people were increasingly enmeshed in serious difficulties (poverty). SAP came to be characterized by a collapse of the school system, public health system, and other social provisioning.

Usman (1987) maintained that there was a massive retirement in the military, which has been a major employer since the late 1960s. The return of former soldiers back into the peasantry contributed to their being restive in the communities and the growing ethno-religious and other sectarian conflicts. He further argued that local battles were now fought in typical military style. Incessant inter-ethno-religious and communal conflicts accompanied the hard times brought about by SAP.

The harsh economic reality as expressed in poverty leading to conflict and violent conflicts began to rear its ugly head. According to (Abdu, 2005) the 1980s and 1990s have witnessed increasing concentration of poverty and sectarian conflicts in urban areas.

Unemployment in the wider context contributes to most of the violent conflicts in Kaduna State. According to (Akintoye, 2008), the national unemployment rate rose from 4.3 percent in 1970 to 6.4 percent in 1980. It then rose again to 7.0 in 1987, and by 2000 unemployment had jumped to 18.1 percent. Akintoye (2008) further remarked that unemployment stood at 12.1 percent in 2005 in Kaduna State.

The first in the recent series of conflict started in March 1987. The crisis arose from a disagreement between Muslim and Christian students in the College of Education Gidan Waya. It later spread to Kafanchan town and subsequent reprisal killings occurred in Kaduna, Zaria, Katsina, Funtua, and Daura (then in Kaduna State). Though one may argued that this conflict was religious in nature and therefore, should not be linked with poverty, but it seems so. The root cause could be traced to the harsh socio-economic disparities between the Hausa-Fulani on the one hand and the Southern Kaduna people on the other. The harsh economic reality of the time as earlier explained above resulted in frustration and the expression of aggression by the people in a religious manner. Thus, economic factors could be explained as the major cause of this conflict.

In January 1992, another crisis erupted between the so-called indigenous Atyap community and the migrant Hausa-Fulani Community in Zango Kataf over the location and control of a market (Kazah-Taure, 2003 Abdu, 2005). This resulted in killings and destruction of lives and property of both Hausa-Fulani and Atyap and consequent reprisal attack in other parts of the State. In 1999, violence erupted over appointment of Hausa/ Fulani Emir, of Jama'a in Kafanchan, and in 2000, there was a large-scale violent conflict over the planned introduction of Shari'ah in the State. This led to the destruction of lives and property worth billions of Naira. Generally, there is

a deep-seated socio-political differences and distrust among these groups, and the major factor behind all these sectarian conflicts lies in 'poverty'.

As if that was over, violent conflicts erupted again in 2002. One of such battles is the Kasuwan Magani violent conflict between the 'Adara' ethnic group that holds to the claim of being indigenes and the Hausa-Fulani. It was a repetition of an earlier conflict that took place in 1998. The conflict centered on the land question and the control of markets as well as the issue of control of power in local matters. Another conflict area was Lere, where the Kahugu had been challenging the perceived Hausa continuous dominance at the levels of politics and the economy. Similarly, there was a crisis between the Gure and the Kahugu over land and economy, a situation which led to the establishment of government Day Secondary Schools at Kahugu and Gure respectively by the state government in order to pacified the two groups.

Another conflict erupted between the Bajju ethnic group and the Ikulu in April 2001 over the ownership of land. The conflict became so violent such that small Arms and light weapons were employed with serious loss of lives and property (Kazah-Toure 2003).There was the Miss World Beauty Pageant crisis in November 2002.The crisis erupted over a media publication written by Miss Isioma Daniel and published by Daily Times Newspaper concerning the event in relation to the Prophet, Muhammad. Moslems in Northern Nigeria went wild and the incident led to the destruction of thousands of lives and property worth million of naira. Though, the publication by Isioma Daniel was inciting because of its disrespectful remarks on Prophet Mohammed.

On April 18, 2011 witnessed one of the worst conflict and senseless destruction on humanity in northern Nigeria took place after the presidential election results were announced by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) declaring the incumbent Goodluck Jonathan

of the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) winner over his rival from the Congress for Progressive Change (CPC), Muhamadu Buhari. Supporters of Buhari went on rampage demonstrating against the pronouncement of the Electoral Commission. The protest was turned to full blown carnage in most Northern States like Kano, Zamfara, Katsina, Jigawa, Yobe, Gombe, Bauchi and Kaduna. But the crisis became more serious and devastating in Kaduna State than any other state in the north. There was large scale destructions in Zonkwa, Kafanchan, Birnin Gwari, Zaria, Soba and other small communities across the state and the impact of this conflict are still being felt till date.

Central and complex issues involved in these battles include land question, control of political power in public governance; control, access, and distribution of resources, ethnicity, religion, perception of justice and democratic question (Kazah-Toure, 1995). Looking at the conflicts between the Atyap and the Hausa, Bajju and Ikulu, the problem is centred on land ownership and control.

2.14 The Poverty- Conflict Nexus

There is a lot of disagreement among scholars about the specific link between poverty and conflict (Draman, 2003; Ekpenyong et al, 2010; Mohanty, 2006; Goodhand, 2001; Justino, 2001, 2002; Cramer, 2001). While one school of thought thinks that poverty causes conflict, the other school of thought argues that only the reverse is true. Admittedly, the relationship between poverty and conflict is blurred. Draman (2003:5) argues that "poverty is both a cause and a consequence of conflict". The relationship he said is two-way: poverty leads to conflict and vice versa.

However, with the end of the cold War, the relationship between poverty and conflict has become more evident as the World Bank Group Data and Statistic (2003:4, cited in Draman,

2003) demonstrates in 2002, of 63 low income countries, 38 were located in Sub-Sahara Africa and were associated with conflict.

Those who dismiss the poverty-conflict nexus generally argue that poverty may lead to conflict when other factors are present. According to (Nelson, 1998), the precise links between economic grievances and ethnic conflict are elusive, variable and strongly conditioned by a wide range of non-economic factors. Nelson cites the works of specialist in conflicts and relevant headings of some of their works which are dismissive of poverty-conflict linkages; walker Cannor (1994) writes about 'The Seductive Lure of Economic Explanation," while McGarry and O'Leary (1998) in their work on Northern Ireland label their discussion 'Mammon and Utility: Liberal Economic Reasoning" cited in Mohanty, 2006). Justino, (2002) and Cramer, (2001) argues that the effort to establish a link between poverty and conflict has been undermined by the difficult and sometimes inappropriate country comparisons based on cross-sectional analysis. One of Cramer's key arguments is that in trying to understand the role of inequality in the production of civil conflict, one of the most significant obstacles is the poor quality and weak comparability of the data. On this basis, Cramer questions the confidence in any alleged general pattern linking inequality with obvious economic or political outcomes" (Draman, 2003).

However, there are a member of scholars such as; (Justino, 2007, 2008, 2009); (Fukuda-Parr, (2008); (Ginifer and Ismail, (2005); (Atwood, 2009); (Kambur, 2007); (Verstegen, 2001); (Ekpenyong et al, 2010); (Ikejiaku, 2009) and a number of theoretical and empirical studies that have established the link between poverty and conflict. These studies show that poverty, inequality, scarcity of resources and external economic factors all combine to have a destabilizing impact on political stability. Proponents of Frustration-Aggression theory

"suggests that individuals become aggressive when there are obstacles (perceived and real) to their success in life" (Vande, et al. 1996, Cited in Draman 2003: 8)

Closely associated with the Frustration- Aggression theory is the Relative Deprivation theory, which stresses that sometimes people perceive themselves to be deprive in relation to others and this perception creates inter-group hostility. This often happens when conditions improve more slowly for one group than for another (Draman, 2009).

Another hypothesis is the Human Need Theory which posits that Poverty as a result of lack of human needs leads to reactions that result in conflict. The Human needs theory Championed by (Burton, 1997) argues that there are conflicts and instability in developing Countries because people are deprived not only their biological needs, but also psychological needs that relate to growth and development. The overriding importance of this theory is that it understands that needs, particularly basic needs (such as food, water, shelter and health) unlike interest cannot be traded, suppressed, or bargained for; thus any attempt to do this, leads to conflict. This situation has created inequality gab between the rich and the poor. Kambur, (2007), (Atwood, 2007) and (Mohanty, 2006), concurred to the view that inequality has the potential to cause conflict or can foster resentment that leads to conflict. Draman (2003) and Burton (1997) sees the relevance of these theories in discussing the relationship between poverty and conflict in Africa. These theories are however very relevant in explaining the nexus between poverty and conflict in Zango Kataf local government of Kaduna State. Bad governance, poor structures and unequal access and distribution of economic resources ensure that some segments of the population tend to have better opportunities than others. This inevitably alters power relations and in turn leads to the persistence of poverty amongst certain groups with very serious consequences for social stability. Ginifer et al, (2005) and Abdu, (2005) agrees that, "when a

people are disempowered and deprived of their basic needs they become viable tools in the hands of those who are economically empowered'. So, we also agree with them that when people perceived that poverty is being inflected on them (that is, been deprived of their basic needs of decent life), then the Frustration-Aggression thesis becomes relevant in understanding why conflicts erupts".

The economic argument has it that conflicts in Africa and most of the developing countries like Nigeria are fuelled by greed rather than grievance with opportunities to looting the resources of the state. Many analysts such as Justino, (2008); Draman,(2003) etc believe that the participants in many of Africa's violent demonstrations in recent years have been moved by the poor economic conditions under which they live.

While the link has been established between poverty and conflict, it behooves us to also state that conflict can leads to poverty and even chronic poverty. The resource that is supposed to be channeled through development is now used for rehabilitation of displace people and the reconstruction of destroyed property. In view of this, the political parasites suck these resources through unscrupulous ways thereby hampering development and in the process, increasing poverty among the people. Thus, this research has employed Human Security Theory in explaining the relationship between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government area.

2.15 Theoretical Frame Work-Human security Theory

For proper analysis and in order to provide a rational basis for explaining or interpreting the results of this research, this study was based on the Human Security Theory.

The Human Security Theory as argued by Naidoo,(N.D) emphasized the need for a new paradigm of security as is associated with two sets of dynamics: First, human security is needed

in response to the complexity and the interrelatedness of both old and new security threats – from chronic and persistent poverty to ethnic violence, human trafficking, climate change, health pandemics, international terrorism, and sudden economic and financial downturns. Such threats tend to acquire transnational dimensions and move beyond traditional notions of security that focus on external military aggressions alone.

Second, human security is required as a comprehensive approach that utilizes the wide range of new opportunities to tackle such threats in an integrated manner. Human security threats cannot be tackled through conventional mechanisms alone. Instead, they require a new consensus that acknowledges the linkages and the interdependencies between development, human rights and national security.

The CHS, in its final report on Human Security, defines human security as: "…to protect the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfillment. Human security means protecting fundamental freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical (severe) and pervasive (widespread) threats and situations. It means using processes that build on people's strengths and aspirations. It means creating political, social, environmental, economic, military and cultural systems that together give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity." (CHS: 2003: 4)

Overall, the definition proposed by the CHS re-conceptualizes security in a fundamental way by:

(i) Moving away from traditional, state-centric conceptions of security that focused primarily on the safety of states from military aggression, to one that concentrates on the security of the individuals, their protection and empowerment;

(ii) Drawing attention to a multitude of threats that cut across different aspects of human life and thus highlighting the interface between security, development and human rights; and

(iii) Promoting a new integrated, coordinated and people-centered approach to advancing peace, security and development within and across nations (UNTFHS, 2009).

Human security was first defined and promulgated in the Human Development Report of 1994, published by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Instead of emphasizing military protection of the state unit from external threats, the theory holds that creating security for ordinary people through sustainable human development is the missing link to the prevention of future wars. In the broadest sense, the Report defines human security as the 'freedom from fear' and the 'freedom from want'. In other words, human security signifies people's ability to "exercise [their] choices safely and freely … and [describes a condition where] they can be relatively confident that the opportunities they have today are not totally lost tomorrow." The document identifies seven core aspects of human security – economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security, and political security. According to the Report, the new paradigm aspires to eliminate threats to these aspects of civilian livelihood through proactive, rather than defensive means. However, since its first promulgation and the creation of this definition of human security, the concept has become the subject of heated debate and interpretations of its desired application vary.

Since the publication of the Human Development Report, human security has evolved into two branches, by virtue of its selective endorsement by political institutions. While the UNDP approach stresses the "interrelatedness of different types of security" and suggests international development as the most significant means by which to eliminate human security threats, several states adopted human security with a different focal point. The Canadian government has successfully assembled a group of governments that subscribe to a narrower definition of human

security, outlined in the Human Security Report of 2005. This Report defines human security in terms of political violence that derives from fear of violent crime and frequently unfounded concerns about terrorism. While this approach adopts the individual as its referent object, it leans toward the argument of the 'responsibility to protect' as a means to achieve civilian security; thus it focuses on the 'freedom from fear' side of the UNDP definition. In this way, the new concept of human security has been assessed differently by political actors and its esteemed aspects selected for potential policy making. Left are two publicly supported views of human security: an inclusive stance based on human development on the one hand and a narrow stance emphasizing the necessity of political intervention on the other (Kufner, 2010).

Since its emergence, human security has gained much presence in international political discourse. A variety of state governments, multilateral bodies, and NGOs have adopted human security as a preferred policy formula in their rhetoric. In 2008, for example, Barak Obama stated that the United States have "a significant stake in ensuring that those who live in fear and want today can live with dignity and opportunity tomorrow." Multilateral institutions like the United Nation Institute for Disarmament Research (UNDIR) have also adopted the human security approach and led a number of activities related to the issues of freedom from want and fear. Policy plans were also influenced by the paradigm. For example, while "the promotion of international and regional stability through good governance and the reinforcement and reform of public institutions" was prioritized over the protection of civilians during the UN mission in Tahiti from 1993 to 1996, in a similar mission to Tahiti from 2003 to 2005 "the preservation of human rights, civilian safety and wellbeing, and integrated approaches to disarmament, demobilization and reintegration (DDR)" were emphasized in UN rhetoric. In 2005, the term 'human security' retained more than 492,000 google.com references – almost ten times the

number of ‘cooperative security’ references and one hundred times the number of those for ‘societal security’. Today the number of human security references amounts to 136,000,000, almost forty times the number of ‘cooperative security’ references. The dire need for the safeguard of freedom and dignity of human being (people) makes this theory very relevant to the socio-economic and political existence of the people of Zango Kataf local government. Clearly, the human security discourse is on the rise in Zango Kataf Local Government based on the research conducted.

Although the paradigm has been subject to discussion in the international sphere, its theoretical value for the field of security studies is limited for several reasons. Firstly, a major theoretical flaw of human security lies in the elusiveness of the concept’s very definition. Although the UNDP Human Development Report of 1994 outlines different aspects of the concept, it employs the term of human security in a strongly expansionist fashion, “encompassing everything from physical security to psychological well-being.” This vagueness makes a study of the concept difficult, if not impossible. Paradoxically it is exactly this imprecision that allows for the paradigm’s international popularity – the more aspects of security it includes, the more political actors can rally behind its argument. In this way, the theoretical flaw of human security enables middle powers and non-state actors to partake in the human security campaign. However, since the UNDP ranks all aspects of human security as equally important, treating all factors as a whole, the concept does not offer a clear guide to policy making. Thus, although the vague and expansionist definition of human security presented by the UNDP’s 1994 Report guarantees the concept’s popularity, this very vagueness limits its theoretical value for policy makers and as a theoretical framework.

Further, the elusiveness of the UNDP definition also implies an inherent paradox that further limits the logic of the human security argument. The UNDP approach suggests that "human security is a universal concern [that describes] threats that are common to all people." However, this universality of human security is problematic, because it implies the elimination of the conceptual difference between internal and external security threats, which, in turn, eliminates distinctions between the internal and the external in general and causes the necessity to analyse the world population as a political and social unit. In other words, since the human security paradigm does not imply any form of social hierarchy and considers all individuals of equal worth, it presumes the absence of social fractions. Conversely, we asserts that, this view of the world is inherently unrealistic since any form of social organisation necessarily recreates ideas of in-groups and out-groups and thus shifts the emphasis back to the collective, for example the state, rather than the individual, as is the purpose of the UNDP approach. In this way, the concept of human security, when thought to the end, paradoxically arrives back at its beginnings. By default, the group re-emerges as the referent object of security studies. This fundamental contradiction in the definition of human security further impedes on its value as a framework of analysis in security studies as well as in the creation of security policy.

Relating the human security theory to poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf local government it's important to note the various conflicts that have occurred during the period under review erupted due to human security concerns and have created further human security factors. For instance, the conflict between the Bajju and Ikulu ethnic groups can be situated under the context of land which has become a scarce commodity and a factor of conflict. Similarly, the 1992 Zango Kataf conflict can be contextualized under the claims to land ownership, market and decisions on local political matters all buttressed the human security concern as the people feel unsafe and seeks for

better means of securing theirselves, a situation which subsequently resulted in conflict. To curtail these conflicts and to promote peace, tranquility and development in Zango Kataf local government, the protection of human life and property must form the focus of government in order to prevent monumental disaster. Poverty which is a serious security threat to the people of Zango Kataf as the data from the survey revealed should be urgently tackled by all concerns. Basic amenities and human services like good roads, hospitals schools fertilizer and general security should also be provided to them to be able to feel the presence of government and contribute to national development. All these will help improve the human security concerns and prevent further bloodshed in Zango Kataf Local Government of Kaduna State.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 AN ASSESSMENT OF PRACTICAL INDICATORS OF POVERTY IN ZANGO KATAF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the analysis of the practical indicators of poverty in a survey conducted in Zango Kataf local government of Kaduna State. A descriptive and deductive method was used in analyzing the findings of the survey. Defining poverty as a state of deprivation or lack of access to basic necessities for acceptable living condition the selected indicators were grouped under economic status, living conditions and environmental conditions. Economic status embraces income level and distribution, employment status, occupational categories and educational attainment. While living condition includes average household's feeding conditions. Housing and availability of social and economic infrastructure made up the environmental conditions. The type of dwelling units, ownership structure, its distribution, access to potable

water, energy utilization, health facilities and dominant modes of transportation formed the various aspect of environmental conditions explored.

This survey was conducted in eight communities representing each of the four ethnic groups plus the Hausa /Fulani that made up of the eleven (11) wards of the local government. Out of these communities, four are villages while the other four are semi-urban (towns) areas. The essence of doing this was for objectivity and to be able to reach all the category of respondents for the survey. Similarly, it was to make the survey a true reflection of the reality on the ground. The names of the sampled areas includes: Zonkwa, Fadan Kamanton, Kamuru Station, and Samaru Kataf completing the list of the towns. Makarau, Yangal, Zakku'u and Vonkpang constitute the names of the villages. A total of 850 questionnaires were distributed across the sampled places while only 800 were returned after completion to the researcher with a team of six research assistants.

It is very important to point out here that a study of this nature will require that a comparative analysis of poverty between Zango Kataf Local governments with other local government across the state be carried out. Unfortunately, no data was obtained vis-a-vis poverty indicators across the 23 local governments in the state from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) and Federal Office of Statistics (FOS).

3.2 Economic Status of Household-Heads

The economic status of the household's heads was analysed with reference to variables comprising the households' earned income and distribution, employment status, occupational categories and educational attainment. The behaviour of these variables was noted to have had strong influence on the level of poverty.

3.2.1 Households Income Levels

Village and Semi- Urban Incomes level in Zango Kataf LGA

Income category	Per annum ₦
Average Village household income	725
Average semi-urban(towns) household income	13,380

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher.

Average income of the household heads surveyed was divided between those in the typical rural areas (villages) and those in the semi-urban areas (towns). The average income of the household heads in the village is #725 compare to those in the towns with the average of #13,380. There were no data from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) or Federal Office of Statistics (FOS) on Zango Kataf local Government to corroborate these figures. However the survey showed that poverty is more severe in the villages than the towns as those in the towns tend to have more opportunities with averagely better economic activities than the villagers.

3.2.2 Distribution of Income

Income Distribution and changes in income

Category	**Income accrued to respondents in ZKLGA**
A. Income bracket (₦)	**Percentage (%)**
Less than 1,000 1,001 -5,000 5,001 -10,000 10,001 – 20,000 20,001 – 30,000 More than 30,000	6.7 26.1 20.2 15.9 14.6 16.5
B. Change in income %	
Increasing Decreasing No change in income	36.2 63.8 -
C. Factors responsible for change in income	

Inflation	88.8
Temporarily out of job	3.9
Under employment	6.3
Retirement	0.5
Old age	0.5
D. Current job (satisfied or Not)	
Satisfied	47.5
Not satisfied	52.5
E. Prospect for migration	
To rural area	25.1
To urban area	74.9

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

The household income is classified into six income group and analysed for eight areas (communities) representing the four ethnic groups that made up of the local government council. The essence was to ensure that every ethnic group that made up of Zango Kataf local government was dully represented and to explore the given notion of poverty specifically being that of income distribution. We fixed the income benchmark or poverty line at #15,000 per year, the aggregate income distribution among household heads showed a large percentage of the population heads surveyed to be very poor. A breakdown of the figures revealed that 6.7% of the population lives on less than #1000 while 26.1% fall within the range of #1001- #5000, 20.2% to #5000 - #10,000, 15.9% on #10,000 - #20,000, 14.6% lived on the income of #20,000 - #30,000. Only 16.5% of the population whose income was measured at more than #30,000 and above was recorded. A careful checked on this , we discovered that those who fall within this category are a small group of civil servants living in the villages and not typical villagers who relied so much on farming for survival.

The survey also showed changes in income with 32.2% of the population experiencing an increase in their income while 63.8% of the population has witnessed a decrease in their income in the period under review. Certain factors have contributed to the change in income among

which are: inflation, retrenchment, under employment, retirement and old age. The resultant effect is that the prospects of migration is very high with 74% of the population planning to migrate to the Urban areas in search of greener pastures, but 25.1% said they will prefer to move or stay in the rural areas.

3.2.3 Employment Status

Poverty by employment status: household heads

Employment Status	Village	Semi-Urban(Town)	Total
Wage earner	22.6	44.0	66.6
Self-employed	51.0	40.0	91.0
Others	17.4	36.0	53.4

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

About 51.0% of the household heads were self employed in the villages while 40.0% of the household heads in the towns were self-employed. More than 22% of villagers earn wages with 44% of household heads in the towns earning wages. Most of the self-employed in the villages are farmers, artisans. Wage earners that live in the villages worked as security operatives to primary schools health centres, cleaners and primary school teachers who domicile in the village. The category of the unemployed household heads includes the able bodied unemployed persons, the retirees and the ages. The unemployment rate was more prevalent among the youths without skill acquisition and the elderly.

Regarding the distribution of employment in the towns where 33% earn wages, most of them are civil servants working either with the local government, primary and secondary schools (both private and public), health centres (both private and public), and other businesses where wages

are paid. Finally, the others are those who have no handwork and as such are not doing anything. The survey showed that majority of the unemployed are located in the towns compared to the villages.

3.2.4 Occupational Distribution

Incidence of poverty by occupational category of household heads

occupational category	Percentage of respondent
Farming	67.4
Trading and artisans	10.2
Public service	10.7
Corporate unit	5.4
Student and Apprentice	3.9
Others	2.4
Total	100

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

Six different occupational categories comprising farming, trading and artisans, public services, corporate business, student-apprentice and others were identified among the surveyed household heads. These occupational types provided explanation about the degrees of poverty, since certain occupational practices are characterised by low productivity, low income and very limited access to economic resources, and social and physical infrastructure.

Farming activities which seemed to be a low income occupation predominated, as 67.4% of the household heads were engage in farming, while 10.2% are self-employed traders and artisans. About 11 % of the household heads worked in public service; 5.4% worked in corporate establishments; 3.9 % (were categorised) as student-apprentice, while the remaining 2.4 % were group under unspecified workers.

From the above analysis, it is obvious that even those who lived in the towns are engaged into farming in order to improve their incomes. This shows a level of dissatisfaction with the work they are doing as well as low remuneration.

3.2.5 Farming and Structure of Land Ownership

Farming and structure of land ownership

Type	Village	Semi- urban(Town)
Family owned and inherited Rented Leasehold Purchased	68.1 10.3 15.6 6.0	34.3 36.9 14.6 14.2
Total	100	100

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

Zango Kataf people are predominantly farmers and the settlement pattern is communal as is common in most parts of Nigeria. Therefore, land ownership is either communal or inherited by a family. The survey of the household heads on farming and land ownership showed that land is family owned and inherited with 68.1 % in the villages while 34.3 % of land is owned and inherited in the towns. About 10.3% of lands in the villages are rented while 36.9% are rented in the towns; leasehold constitutes 15.6% in the villages as against 14.6 % in the towns. Only 6.0% are purchased as against 14.2% in the towns. With this development, it is very glaring that the people of Zango Kataf local government are predominantly farmers hence the 68.1% of lands are owned by families and inherited. This makes land a scare commodity and a factor of conflicts among the people.

3.2.6 Educational Attainment

Incidence of poverty by educational attainment of household head

Education	Village	Semi-urban(Town)	Total
No education	45.6	41.0	43.3
Primary	20.9	30.4	30.7
Secondary	15.2	25.0	24.1
Post- secondary	0.3	3.6	1.9

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

Education is crucial as it provides skills and abilities which enable households to secure productive and well paying jobs. Lack of education deprives the household access to gainful and well paid employment. Thus, household heads without education accounted for 45.6% in the villages while the towns recorded 41.0%; those who had primary education represented 20.9% in the villages compared to 30.4% in the towns. Household heads with secondary and post secondary education in the villages 15.2% and 0.3 % respectively. Only 25% and 3.6% in the towns had secondary and post secondary education respectively. As clearly seen, most household heads with primary, secondary and post-secondary education were increasingly found in the semi-urban (towns) centres. Meaning, poverty is high in the villages more than the towns.

3.3 Household Living Conditions

This section gives a vivid description of the age, gender, marital status, household feeding condition and above all, the average household's size.

3.3.1 Average Households Size

The survey centred on the average size of households, age, gender, marital status and household feeding conditions. From our survey, we discovered most of the Houses we visited had six people and above. The incidence of poverty becomes compounded when the size of the household is more than 6 persons. Though, the researcher discovered that those in the villages have more children than those in the semi-urban areas. the reasons being that village people are

predominantly farmers and therefore, gives birth to more children because of their farm work while those in the semi-urban centres do not have as many children like the village people because of the cost of child upbringing.

3.3.2 Distribution of Household Heads by Age

Age and gender of Household Heads (%)

Average group of Household Head	Village	Town
16-25	2.5	6.1
26-35	25.8	20.3
36-45	27.0	27.9
46-55	23.0	26.6
56-65	14.3	11.1
65+	7.4	6.4

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

Household heads who were still in active working life represented 80.0% of the total household heads surveyed. Of this household category, 4.5 % were in the active labour force (16-25). The largest number of (27.2 %) household heads was in the 36-45 age brackets. About 25.6 % were age 46-56 years, followed by 23.3 % of household heads who were between 26-35 years of age. Household heads aged between 56 and 65 years and those above 65 years represented 13.0 and 6.4 % respectively. Human resources development entails investing in people's education, health and nutrition. Thus a policy that gives training and added skills to the household, will go a long way to increasing their productivity. Most (80 %) household heads within the active working life were found to be residing in the semi-urban areas compared with 78.3 % of the household heads within the active working age brackets who resided in the villages. Household heads above 65 years were more in the villages than in the towns (semi-urban areas).

3.3.3 Distribution of Household Heads by Gender

Gender of Head	Village	Town
Male	97.2	83.9
Female	2.8	16.1

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

The households headed by males accounted for 97.2 % of the total households headed by males in the villages than in the semi-urban areas (towns). Similarly, household headed by females were more in the semi-urban areas than in the villages. Some of the women household's heads were divorcees, separated or widowed. Being the vulnerable group, the women household heads were impoverished because of the discrimination they encounter in getting jobs and in accessing credit facilities for self-employment.

3.3.4 Distribution of Household Heads by Marital Status

Households' Marital Status (%)

Status	Village	Town
Married	80.2	81.0
Single	11.1	17.0
Divorced,Separated	2.1	6.2
Widowed	0.7	1.7

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

Majority (86.6 %) of the household heads surveyed were married, 4.5 % were single, while 5.7 and 3.7 % divorced-separated and widowed respectively. The semi-urban areas (towns) had more

(81.0 %) of the married household heads than the villages (80.2 %). Of single household heads, 11.1 were found in the villages compared with (17 %) in the towns. The proportion of widowed household heads living in the villages exceeded that of the semi-urban areas while the towns had more of the household heads that were divorced or separated than the villages.

3.3.5 Household Feeding Condition

Dominant Nutritional Types, Distribution of Income of Feeding and Frequency

1. Nutritional type	ZK LGA %
➢ Garri	1.8
➢ Yam	5.7
➢ Rice	14.9
➢ Guinea corn	45.6
➢ Millet	24.4
➢ Maize	2.6
➢ Cassava	4.0
➢ Beans	1.0
2. % of income spent on feeding	
➢ 20 – 40%	2.9
➢ 40 – 70%	19.8
➢ 70 – 100%	77.3
3. Food supply source	
➢ Market	51.9
➢ farm	48.1
➢ Elsewhere	-
4. Number of times average household eats daily (frequency %)	
➢ Once	3.5
➢ Twice	64.9
➢ Thrice	31.6

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

Analysis of household feeding conditions include description of the dominant nutritional types and their consumption patterns, food supply sources, the portion of the household income devoted to feeding and the number of times the average household eats per day.

The dominant nutritional type for the people (poor) includes guinea corn, maize, millet, rice, yam, cassava, garri, and beans. Guinea Corn top the list of nutrition with 45%, Maize 14.9%,

Millet 24.4%, Rice 2.6%, Yam 5.7%, Cassava 4.0%, Garri, 1.8%, Beans 1.0% respectively. It is obvious that Guinea Corn top the list of the food consumed by the people with 45% followed by Millet which had 24.4%.

Regarding the percentage of the income spent on feeding, 2.9% of the population spent 20-40% of their income, and 19.8% spent 40-70% while 70-100% spent their income on feeding. This is more serious considering the average household's income of #13,380 surveyed strongly indicates inadequacy for a household averaging seven in number. Even though purchased food was supplemented with food supplied from farms, over 70% expended their income on feeding. From the survey conducted, 51.95 of households source their food from the market while only 48.1 source theirs from the farm. This shows a deteriorating situation where a large chunk of income is spent on feeding. Of great concern is a situation where households spent their income on the minimum calories requirement. Since basic necessities of clothing and housing cannot be neglected in poverty analysis, the tendency is that most of the households who claimed to have devoted 100% of their income on feeding may be getting transfer income from their relations.

More than 64% of the total households surveyed ate twice daily. About 32% of the households ate thrice while 3.5% ate once daily. The feeding pattern analysed above is indicative of the fact that poverty is prevalent in Zango Kataf local government and that it has tremendous effects on human development. Its further makes the citizens of Zango Kataf local government vulnerable to the manipulation of the political elites.

3.4 Environmental Conditions

Under the environmental conditions, only the types and ownership of dwelling units and modes of transportation was statistically described and analysed based on the data generated during the course of the survey.

3.4.1 Housing Condition

Types and Ownership of Dwelling Unit %

A. Types	**Village**	**Semi-urban(Town)**
i. Mud-thatch/bacha house	57.0	33.5
ii. Block/Brick rooming type	25.	39.7
iii. Block of flats	9.9	12.6
iv. Bungalow	7.4	12.9
v. Duplex	0.5	1.3
B. Ownership		
i. Purchased	0.5	11.7
ii. Rented	4.9	35.4
iii. Owned or built by the respondent	48.0	28.8
iv. Inherited	46.6	24.1

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

Housing conditions which are reflected in the types, quality and location have strong bearing on the economic status and the social well-being of the household. According to the survey results, mud-bacha/thatch houses were the dominant accounting for 57% in the villages and 33.5% in the towns. The mud-bacha/thatch houses constructed with corrugated iron roofing sheets and thatch grasses and mud walls were poorly ventilated and without amenities. The majority of the bacha houses lacked electricity, water supply and toilets facilities. They used pit latrines dug in their premises or nearby bushes. For the thatch houses they are fairly better ventilated than the bacha but the roof could be blown off in the event of heavy down pour.

The other houses that served as dwellings for the households surveyed included those constructed with bricks and blocks had 25% in the villages while 39.7% in the towns, blocks of

flats (villages 9.9%, towns 12.6%); bungalows (7.4% villages, 12.9% towns); duplex (0.5% in the villages, 1.3% towns). Reflecting their socio-economic characteristics the towns' dwellers had relatively better quality houses than those in the villages

On the ownership structure of the dwelling houses, the survey indicated that 48% of respondents in the villages owned their houses as against 28.8% in the towns; 0.5% purchased theirs in the villages while 11.7% purchased in the towns; 4.9% rents in the villages as against 35.4% rent in the towns and 46.6% inherited in the villages while 24.1% inherited in the towns.

In the final analysis, the concentration of mud-bacha/thatch houses in the villages and their owners reflect their relative lower economic status (poverty) than the town's poor. Only 28% of respondents owned houses in the towns while 35% lived in rented apartments in all the four towns surveyed in Zango Kataf local government.

3.4.2 Roads and Modes of Transportation

Mode of Transportation (%)

Mode	Village	Semi-urban (Town)
Public transport (Bus)	29.0	56.6
Bicycles	15.3	28.1
Motorcycle	7.8	5.4
Canoe	1.0	0.0

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

A network of roads serves as major transport links between the villages and the towns within and among the eight places sampled for the survey. Most roads in the towns (semi-urban) were motorable while many roads in the village are no longer motorable. The village roads are flooded or water logged especially during the rainy season, thus hindering the evacuation of farm produce and reducing migration to the towns.

The methods of transportation in order of importance include trekking, bicycles, motorcycles, canoes and public transport. Public transport is the most common in Zango Kataf local government like any other part of Nigeria. The dominance of trekking among the village people reflects their low level of income (poverty) and the poor conditions of roads.

3.4.3 Provisioning of Basic Socio-Economic Infrastructure

Provision of infrastructure

Types of infrastructure	**Who provides it**		
	Government	Community	Private
1. Economic:			
a. Electricity	69.2	10.2	20.5
b. Motorable road	61.0	38.2	0.8
2. Social:			
a. Schools	60.1	22.5	17.4
b. Health institution	43.7	20.0	37.3
c. Water Supply	-	-	-

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

The basic socio-economic infrastructural facilities include electricity, potable water, education and health facilities and roads. These facilities contribute immensely to the improvement in the living conditions of the people while lack of them aggravates poverty situation. The survey showed that most of the socio-economic infrastructures available in the local government were found in both the villages and the towns in the eight places sampled for this survey.

The provision of socio-economic facilities is largely the responsibility of the government while self-help community and private efforts plays some roles in providing these facilities. For instance, the survey showed that government provided 69.2% of electricity while the remaining 30.8% was provided through communal efforts and private concerns. However, one significant aspect of Zango Kataf local government is that, it is only the towns(semi-urban areas) that have access to electricity particularly towns near to the main road while the villages do not have

access to electricity. And in places where electricity has been extended to, they rarely see power in months. According to respondents, even when power is supply the voltage is very low and equivalent to nothing.

On existing motorable roads, the survey showed that government provided 61% while the remaining 39% of the motorable roads are provided by the community and private individuals. This can be verified in Fadan Kamanton Ward. Government accounted for 60.1% of existing schools; 43.7% of health services in Zango Kataf local government with the private and communal interests contributing 39.9% and 57.3% respectively. Although facilities for water supply have been installed in Zonkwa and Samaru Kataf (with the exception of Fadan Kamanton), lack of maintenance has put most of them out of use. As a result, most households in the towns (semi-urban areas) relied more on wells, some sink boreholes while those in the villages have to trek long distances to streams, brooks and rivers to fetch contaminated water. Though, from our observations few households heads have sank wells in the villages.

3.4.4 Accessibility to Basic Infrastructure

Accessibility and non-accessibility to socio-economic infrastructural facilities by Households %

	Health	Education	Energy	Water supply	Electricity
Accessibility	39.6	52	28.5	45	56
Non-accessibility	60.4	48	71.5	55	44
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

Non-accessibility to socio-economic infrastructural facilities by Village and Town households

	Health	Education	Energy	Water supply	Electricity
Rural	73.1	85.3	46.4	81.7	90.1
Urban	26.9	14.7	53.6	18.3	0.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

The accessibility to basic infrastructural facility by the surveyed households was determined among others, by the distance between the locations of these facilities and their residences, their level of incomes, their occupational and income status and poor transportation system. An attempt to quantify their accessibility showed that the households surveyed had restricted access to the basic infrastructural facilities which range from 71.5% energy, 60% in education.

As would be expected, the rural dwellers (villagers) were more deprived of access to the facilities than those in the towns (semi-urban dwellers). Over 90% of the households in the villages reportedly had restricted access to electricity, 81.7% to water supply, 85.3% to education and 73.1% to health.

3.4.5 Types and Patronage of Health Facilities and Services

Types of Health facilities accessed %

	Village	Semi-Urban (Town)
Traditional	20.6	12.4
Clinics	47.1	16.3
Dispensary	23.1	9.2
Patent medicine store	3.4	1.2
Cottage hospital	3.6	2.5
General hospital	0.2	50.4
Specialist hospital		8.0
Free-paying	-	-

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

The health facility available ranges from the orthodox to the traditional types in Zango Kataf local government. Some of these facilities were regarded as not available because of their inaccessibility due to the long distances between their locations and the residences of the households. Notwithstanding the limited access, the general hospitals and small clinics were the dominant health facilities patronized by the households. About 50% of village dwellers patronized clinics while 50.4% of peoples living in the semi-urban (towns) areas have received medical services from the general hospital (see Table 3.16). In the absence of effective medical

services in the villages, the traditional medicine outfits are consulted. However, it is very important to point out here that Zango Kataf local government has a single General Hospital for treating medical problems and it's not meeting the demands of the people. Indigenes travel to Kafanchan in order to receive medical attention.

On educational facilities, though the government has made efforts to providing affordable education but, such efforts have not yielded positive outcome. The people are seriously complementing the government efforts by building schools (Primary and Secondary) in their community. A classic example is government Secondary School Fadan Kamanton which was started by the community before it was taken over by the government.

3.4.5 Household's Energy Utilization

Utilisation of energy %

	Village	Semi-Urban(Town)
1. LIGHTING		
a. Electricity/Generators	-	30.4
b. Kerosene	5.6	62.5
c. Candle	94.4	7.1
2. COOKING		
a. Firewood	96.7	59.4
b. Stove	3.3	40.6
c. Gas	-	-

Source: Survey conducted by the researcher

The main energy types available to the households for lighting the houses are electricity, kerosene lamps and candles. Electricity, kerosene stove, gas and firewood constitute the energy types available to the households for cooking. Candles and kerosene dominate the lighting type in the villages as against 62% and 30.4% of kerosene and electricity respectively in the semi-urban (towns) areas.

Of the households' survey, 96.7% villagers used firewood for cooking while 49.4% used firewood in the towns with 40.6% using stove for cooking. This by implication explains the severity of poverty among the people. This calls for urgent attention of the government at all levels to do more to salvage the people from human hopelessness in Zango Kataf local government.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 ANALYSIS OF POVERTY AND CONFLICTS IN ZANGO KATAF LOCAL GOVERNMENT, KADUNA STATE

4.1 Introduction

This section deals with the analysis of poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government of Kaduna State using the data generated through Focus Group Discussion and Structured Interview. In this section, the deductive method of analysis has been adopted in trying to establish the relationship between poverty and conflicts in Kaduna State with particular focus on Zango Kataf Local Government Area.

4.2 Analysis of Poverty and Conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government

The data collected have been subjected to a critical analysis such that the conclusions of the findings can be tested scientifically. The analysis was done based on each of the questions asked

and the raw data was analysed in tandem with the respondent's responses as coded and categorised. Below is the analysis of data:

4.2.1 Why is there Conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government?

Respondents' responses regarding this question varied. While some attributed the incessant conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government to injustice of political leaders, lack of good awareness, others see it as a quest for dominance, lack of respect for the culture of other, and then some attributed conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government to religion and intolerance. Poverty was equally mentioned as a factor responsible for the incessant conflicts escalation in the area. Similarly, the raw data identified some of these variables earlier mentioned as the factors responsible for conflict escalation in Zango Kataf Local Government.

For instance, on the injustices of political leaders as identified by the data obtained, a traditional rulerinterviewed (10/10/2012) and a Muslim cleric interviewed (10/09/2014) argued that once political leaders have captured political power, such power can be used to achieve anything they desire even if it is against the interest of the general public for manipulating the people into conflicts of different dimensions. They blamed leaders both from the Federal, State and at the Local government level for enhancing conflicts in the local government. Political leaders are fond of introducing centrifugal forces to create instability in order to achieve their selfish ambitions. This give credence to what Ekejiaku (2009) described as "political corruption". Glaeser (2002) put it more succinctly that "political leaders often encourage individuals and groups to engage in violent conflict in order to promote and protect their parochial and egocentric interest".

Political leaders have equally been blamed for not being truthful, sincere and have failed to build trust among the people. This was made known by a group of politician in Zango Kataf

Local Government. Because of their selfishness, and the desire to manipulate the people, proper awareness on the danger of violent conflicts is never carry out before crisis. It is only when conflicts have occurred that government will intervene. in the same vein, the data obtained revealed that leaders(political and religious) have failed to teach their followers the need for peaceful coexistence. That is to say, creating awareness among the people about the need to build a harmonious society through peace will help drastically reduce conflicts in Zago Kataf local government.

On the contrary however, a Christian cleric interviewed (11/10/2012) blamed conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government on the quest for dominance by some people on others. He argued that when a particular group of people see themselves as superior to others, then conflicts is inevitable. Corroborating a similar view, a traditional ruler in Zonkwa (10/10/2012) maintained that lack of respect for others' culture is fuelling conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government. He further explained that, when a people see themselves as partners with equal rights and access to all opportunities, there will be no need for disrespect. He blamed inequality on economic, social and political opportunities as the cause of the disrespect and the attendant conflicts in the area. That if the people of Zango Kataf Local Government will have equal opportunities at all levels of government, the issue of disrespect and quest for dominance will not arise. This assertion seems to align with those of the frustration –Aggression theory who blame the emergence of conflicts on 'perception of one group being better than the other' and the attendant expression of aggression in the form of killings and destruction of property.

The data showed that religion and intolerance are some of the factors responsible for conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government. According to a traditional ruler, religious supremacy and intolerance is causing conflicts In Zango Kataf Local Government. He posits that religious

leaders have failed woefully to teach religious tolerance and as such, have heightened the conflicts in the area. Corroborating this view, an opposition political leader interviwed (15/10/2012) agreed that religion has played some part in conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government. Though he used the phrase 'ethnicity of religion', which he blamed its introduction by politicians. According to him politicians have introduced the ethnicity of religion because of their desperation to rule. He concludes realistically that, the two religions can live peacefully together without any confrontation if not manipulated by the political elite. This has justified the research assumption which says: most conflicts are caused by the manipulation of political elites in Zango Kataf Local Government Area of Kaduna State".

Poverty was equally mentioned as a factor responsible for the high rate of conflicts in Zango Kataf local government as revealed by the data. But according to a group of politicians from the ruling Party (PDP) 12/10/2012, students of Nuhu Bamali Poly, Samaru Kataf(19/10/2012), St. Francis College Zonkwa (18/10/2012), GSS F/Kamanton (22/10/2012), GDSS Kamuru (22/10/2012) and a group of Unemployed graduates, that the local government generally lack industries as most of their young people lack job while the economy of the area have not been given proper attention by the government by harnessing it to the fullest. This has led to the underdevelopment of the local government and her people resulting in frustration and the aggression been expressed in the form of conflict details of this will be discuss in the nexus between poverty and conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government Area. Although, some acknowledged the efforts made by the government but, pleaded that more needed to be done to cushion the effect of the suffering.

4.2.2 Respondents Responses on Poverty-Conflict Nexus

Data on the poverty-conflict nexus was very clear. Poverty, corruption, lack of patriotism greed, laziness were all identified as the causes of the nexus to conflict However, responses on the poverty-conflict interface were mixed. While some sees a strong correction between poverty and conflicts, another group did not see anything between the two variables. For instance, in an interview with a Muslim cleric on 9/9/2014 in Fadan Kamanton, he agreed that there is high poverty rate in Kaduna State generally. He went further to argue that the indices given by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) in their publications released in for 2010 about the poverty rate in Kaduna State is even lower than the reality on the ground. The cleric said the poverty level in Kaduna State in his own opinion is up to 90%. However, he still maintained his earlier position that poverty is caused by greed and injustices of leaders. That poor people can be manipulated by the elite into conflicts but not poverty itself being the cause of conflict. A traditional ruler equally shares this view. According to the monarch, most Nigerian are greedy and as a result are susceptible to manipulation by the political elites into conflicts of different kinds.

In a Focus Group Discussion with a group of politicians from the ruling party (PDP), on 11/10/2012 in their Local government secretariat, they agreed that there is poverty in the local government, and that the poor people are instigated by politicians from the opposition to caused crisis in order to blackmail the ruling party. But that poverty in itself does not cause conflicts in Zango Kataf. They linked the conflicts in the area to the overwhelming influence of the elite at the Federal, State and Local government level.

Regarding the nexus between poverty and conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government Council, politicians from the opposition agreed that poverty and the failure of the family value system is the cause of most conflicts as most parents can no longer carter for their families due to the harsh

economic condition being experienced occasioned by bad governance, corruption, and injustices of political elites. Espousing a similar view, a monarch linked poverty with primitive accumulation from political elites. That since the people have been denied of their basic needs and have therefore become beggars and working tools of political leaders, they are easily hoodwink against their own will. This by implication suggests that, household poverty can lead some people to be used as instruments of destruction.

Justino (2009:6), argued that" economic reasons may overlap with these motivations, or may provide a separate case for why individuals and households support and participate in conflict", this explained the vulnerability of poverty to households. She further added that, "The higher the risk of conflict, the higher the probability of an individual (people) supporting and participating in conflict. According to Atwood (2007:169) ...poverty, more than any other factors, contributes to feelings of alienation, exploitation, and dependency; and it is this feelings in turn that contributes to breakdown of social cohesion and to violent conflict.

This view support empirical studies on the links between poverty and conflicts such as the frustration aggression theory. Proponents of this theory suggest that Individuals become aggressive when there are obstacles (perceived and real) to their success in life". Closely associated with this theory, is the relative deprivation theory which stresses that sometimes people perceive themselves to be deprived in relation to others and this perception creates inter-group hostility. This often happens when conditions improve more slowly for one group than for another (Draman, 2003:9). Justifying the links between poverty and conflict, Mohanty (2006:3), posits that "many of Africa's violent conflicts in recent years have been moved by the poor economic conditions under which they lived". This has explained the nexus between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government Area whereas those from the southern part of the

state perceived there neighbours from the northern part to have more opportunities than them. It is this perception that creates the animosity and the acrimony between and among the people. At the same time, it is responsible for the mistrust, suspicion and conflicts.

The youths and the unemployed are believed to have championed conflicts In Zango Kataf Local Government during the period under review. Data as well as respondent's responses were very strong about youth's involvement in conflicts, and blamed this incidence on the failure of the family value system occasioned by poverty. A traditional ruler and a politician from the opposition (CPC) attributes their (youths) participation in conflicts on the inability of them not been meaningfully engaged. This view was strongly supported by all the people interviewed that unemployment among the youths heightens conflicts.

But a former councilor blamed youth restiveness in Zango Kataf Local Government Area to lack of education. He argued that the youths have been active in conflicts because their parents lack the economic means to send them to school. Because of that, they join gang groups and become instruments in the hands of politicians. Some again dropped out of schools due to difficult economic condition or other reasons based known to them. This submission aligns with those of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) which attributes most conflicts in developing countries to lack of education.

On the contrary, while most of the people interviewed see poverty as having a link with conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government, some did not see any link at all. A former councilor (12/10/2012) and a group of self-employed and the employed agreed though about the pervasive nature of poverty but, vehemently and outrightly repudiated the relationship between poverty and conflicts. Nelson (1998) shares these views where he questioned the precise links between

poverty and conflicts as elusive, variable and strongly conditioned by a wide range of non-economic factors.

Crammer (2001) is also dismissive of the poverty and conflict nexus. He argued that the effort of establish a link between poverty and conflict has undermined by the difficulty and sometimes inappropriate country comparisons based on cross-sectional analysis.

His major line of argument lies on the poor quality and weak comparability of data. On this basis therefore, crammer (2001) questions the confidence in any alleged general patterns linking poverty with any economic or political outcomes.

Lending their voices to the discussion, a group of unemployed, self-employed and the employed (16/10/2012) spoke in favour of the provision of education to bulk of the youths. They further opined that technical education should be included into the educational curricular in order to give the youths some technical knowledge and skills to enable them create jobs or employment for them. They are convinced that education though, is not a guarantee for an automatic employment instead; it opens up opportunities for an individual to tap from.

On the other hand, some of the unemployed, self employed and employed youths insisted that the government should either create jobs for the youths or create an enabling environment where individuals can invest and create employment for the youths. They particularly made reference to lack of proper attention giving to the local government by both the Federal and States governments in terms of infrastructural development and citing of industries, institutions of higher learning like the other parts of the state. Finally, the data revealed that most of the youths in Zango Kataf Local government are lazy and some not education. On laziness, the data showed that most of them do not want to work let alone and want to be successful (rich) without working hard to earn a living. Therefore, since they not want to work harder to earn a living, they

will certainly be poor and thereby constitute a nuisance to the society. Some also do not have the require education to be employ. Thus, the best way to be employ by any government is to get the minimum education required for employment or learn a trade or hand work in order to get out of poverty.

4.3 Probable Solutions to Conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government Area.

As to the probable solutions to the problem of conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government Area, both the data and the respondents suggested the following as solutions to the problem:

I. Political leaders must do everything within their power to see that the problem of poverty is address in Zango Kataf local government. The problem of poverty must be address by the government at the local level; state and the national level at large if animosity, bitterness, fear and conflicts must be reduce to the lowest minimum. The infrastructural deficits in Zango Kataf local must as a matter of urgency be address forthwith. Above all, every poverty related indicators should be taken care of by the relevant authority in order to promote human security, freedom and human dignity in Zango Kataf local government. in effect, the issue of human security must be taken into consideration by government at all levels in order to stem the tide.

II. Equal treatments of all citizens irrespective of their historical linkages. Respondents suggested that the government at the state level should treat people of Zango Kataf equally like those from other parts of the state. It is this equal treatment and opportunities that brings a sense of belonging.

III. Entrenchment of the rule of law. Respondents blamed the government at the Federal, State and Local government levels for not allowing the law to take its full course. They call on the government to sincerely apply the law of the country on all offenders without any sacred caw.

Similarly, they pleaded with the government to implement reports on all conflicts in the state without fear or favour.

IV.Tolerance was also proffered as a probable solution to the incessant conflicts in the local government. The respondent call for tolerance for all parties as it will go a long way in sustaining peace and building a healthy relationship between and among the people.

V.Free education should be provided to all young people from primary to the secondary level. They equally suggested that this free education should be made compulsory. Respondents advised that technical education should be provided to enable the youth acquire technical skills for self development and sustenance.

VI. Establishment of industries and institutions of higher learning equitably will help improve the standard of living of the people of Zango Kataf local government and the southern part of Kaduna as a whole. When industries and institutions are establish, unskilled and skilled labourers will be in high demand, and business will open up thereby improving the quality of life of the people.

4.4 Relating Research Assumptions with Data

Relating research assumptions with data, it shows that poverty have strong links with conflicts and one of the main causes of conflicts in Zango Kataf local government. This has significantly affirmed the research assumption which states that there is a significant relationship between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf local government. With this, the data has answered the research question which sought to know the factor(s) that are responsible for conflict in Zango Kataf. Though the data revealed that poor people can be manipulated by the political elite into conflicts due to their economic status or condition, as such, poverty must be address in order to

resolve human security crisis facing Zango Kataf local government. This has answered the second research question on the relationship between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf local government.

Deductively, poverty and the elite have been blamed for all the conflicts witnessed in Zango Kataf in particular over the years. Data reveals that personal interests of the elite have often overpowered public interest and since they have control of the machinery of government, they used them to achieve their interest against the general good. The injustices and selfishness of leaders and their penchant to rule have created division among the people thereby leading to conflicts of different dimensions. This support the argument put forward by Ikejiaku (2009), that the elite are the major cause of conflict because of the massive corruption they have institutionalised.

Lack of education and unemployment has equally been associated and confirmed by this study as a cause of conflicts in Zango Kataf local government. The data generated revealed that most of the participants in conflicts in the state are illiterates, school dropped out or unemployed. The uneducated are easily manipulated because they lack the education qualification to be engaged meaningfully. As such, they become useful tools in the hands of the elite to cause mayhem around the state, Burton (1997). Some are used as vanguards to either fight for the political interest of these elites or as thugs against oppositions. In the process, these guys will take this as a profession and used it to intimidate people even when the need may not have arise .The unemployed are not left out of this as they seek for survival in a highly corrupt and competitive world. Findings showed that the unemployed and the youths have championed the course of conflicts in Zango Kataf local government because of ignorance and the overpowering or severity of poverty in the area. Again they are susceptible to join gang group(s) to commit more

crimes and still be useful to the elite. They give them false promises of a better future, and then used them for the wrong reasons. This is a confirmation of the second research assumption which linked conflicts with ignorance and unemployment.

In effect therefore, the elite have been penciled down as the enemies of public peace. They have been identified as the troublers of the state, and they should be hold accountable for the destruction of lives and property in Kaduna State and Zango Kataf in particular.

From the above analysis, the findings have accepted the first assumption which states that there is significant relationship between poverty and conflicts in Kaduna State. Though, the research found out that poor people can be manipulated into conflict due to their poverty level. The study discovered that lack of education (illiteracy) and unemployment have also immensely contributed to most conflicts in the area.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter focus on the summary of major findings, concludes and made some recommendations derived from the findings on the relationship between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government council of Kaduna State.

5.2 Summary of Major Findings

The following are the summary of the major findings:

The findings of this research revealed that poverty can lead to conflict and that the poor people have been manipulated by the political elites. This is to say, poverty causes conflict but the elites enhances conflicts by manipulating the poor people. Other factors that can trigger conflict are: the political and religious elites, lack of respect for other's culture, quest for dominance, inequality in the distribution of economic resources, political marginalization (injustice) and economic deprivation.

The human security problem in Zango Kataf Local Government should be given a priority by government as this was found out to be a serious threat to peace, development, unity and cordial relations among the people in the local government. But failure to address the human security concerns in Zango Kataf Local government will further make the people more vulnerable to the manipulation of the elites, particularly the political elite who have been identified as being responsible for conflicts in the local government area.

Lack of education (illiteracy) was also seen as a factor responsible for conflict escalation in Zango Kataf Local Government of Kaduna State. Since most of the young people are not educated and illiteracy breeds ignorance, they have therefore become vulnerable to use for the

wrong purpose. Even those who have acquired some level of education are not able to provide for themselves. Thus, it was opined that the provision of technical education will help reduce poverty and conflict among the youths as Unemployed youths easily join gang youths and are manipulated by the elite according to the findings. Therefore, unemployment was blamed for conflict escalation. The aim of employing the bulk unemployed youths searching for jobs that does not exist is to reduce youth's restiveness and their susceptibility to conflicts.

Conflict has heightened in Nigeria generally because of the failure of governments at all levels to contend and control it. Several committees has been set up to investigate different conflicts across the country with very good recommendations made but nothing tangible has been made to see to the implementation of such reports. This is also peculiar to the study area where commission of inquiry has been set up to look into the causes of these conflicts but none of these reports have been fully implemented. This has shown lack of government commitment to peace and unity in Zango Kataf Local Government.

5.3 Conclusion

This research "Poverty and Conflicts in Kaduna State: A Study of Zango Kataf Local Government Area", has examined the relationship between poverty and conflicts in Zango Kataf local government of Kaduna State. The data shows that poverty is pervasive in Zango Kataf local government and is responsible for the poor people being manipulated by the elites. That has exposed the people to the political elites to be manipulated into conflicts, among which is economic deprivation which is caused by primitive accumulation. By implication, primitive accumulation which is corruption increases poverty and poverty in turn causes conflicts and conflicts leads general deplorable state of the people in Zango Kataf local government.

Conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government has resulted to wanton destruction of lives and property, mistrust and hatred, fear and suspicion among the different ethnic groups that have been living together for some times. Similarly, it has succeeded in dividing the local government and the people along religious and ethnic lines. Christians and Moslems now see one another as enemies and not the politicians that divide them. The findings of this research accept the argument of Draman (2003:4), that poverty is both a cause and consequence of conflict. While poverty causes conflict, conflict further perpetuates poverty and in the process leads to more conflicts.

The human condition in Zango Kataf Local government calls for government attention as basic social services are deficient. At the same times, socio-economic activities have been affected as a result of government to provide basic social amenities such as stable power supply, motorable roads for the transportation of raw materials from the rural areas to the urban centre to boost economic activities and improve the income of the people. In some instances, there are security concern which has affected the movement of people, good and services within the local government. Hence, the "Human Security theory" adopted for this research has demonstrated, that human security is very vital to the stability and development of any society. The root of all these as argued by Ikejiaku (2009:23), is link with political corruption which has remained a policy in Nigeria.

5.4 Recommendations

Poverty and conflict are complex social problems in Nigeria, Kaduna State and Zango Kataf local government in particular. However, they can be reduced through drastic measures to

improve the living conditions of the people of Kaduna State. The researcher therefore, recommends the following as panacea to the problems of conflict in the Kaduna State at large and Zango Kataf local government specifically:

1. The problem of poverty must be address by the government at the local level, state and the national level at large if conflicts must be mitigated. The infrastructural deficits in Zango Kataf Local government must as a matter of urgency be address forthwith. Above all, every poverty related indicators should be taken care of by the relevant authority in order to promote human security, freedom and human dignity in Zango Kataf local government.

2. Perpetrators of conflicts should be openly prosecuted and given maximum punishment. This can be done through the institution of strong and effective mechanisms for non-violent conflict management of group interests

3. Government should provide employment opportunities for the teaming unemployed youths so as to reduce their tendencies of being used by some politicians for the wrong purpose. Those who do not have any formal education should be trained into some skills that will enable them sustain themselves.

4. Education should be made free and compulsory for all citizens of the state. Similarly, technical education should be provided by the government such that when a student graduate from school he/she should be able to provide job for himself/herself not necessary waiting for white collar jobs that are not available.

5. The people of Kaduna State need to unite and vote out corrupt government officials who have made life very difficult for their comfort. Those who create divisions and crisis of all sorts should be identify and isolated from the society. This will make them feel the dejected and turn from their evil life.

6. Industries that have collapsed need to be resuscitated and new ones built so as to reduce the rate of unemployment in the State.

7. Adequate security should be provided across the state as this will help prevent frequent conflict escalation. Similarly, the police should be efficiently equipped with all the necessary tools to safeguard lives and property.

8. Human/religious rights as enshrined in the constitution should be adequately safeguarded as this will help prevent the infringement of others rights by those who often take the law into their hands.

9.Kaduna State government should as a matter of priority ensure that industries and institutions are evenly distributed across the state in order to promote unity and development of the state, as this will go a long way to reduce the problem of the claim of marginalization by certain section of the state.

10.Cultural assimilation should be encourage among the people of the state as some see themselves as being superior to others. This has contributed to the feelings of resentment that have turned these ethnic nationalities into enemies. Thus, there should be respect for one another's culture and tolerance of their differences.

In conclusion, I therefore recommend that further research should be carried out on this topic to discover more factors responsible for conflicts in Zango Kataf local government and Kaduna State.

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS GUIDE

1. Why is there conflict escalation in Zango Kataf local Government Area?

2. Do you agree that politicians are responsible for most conflicts in Zango Kataf local government Area?

3. According to statistics from NBS (National Bureau of Statistics), poverty rate in Kaduna State is 73.0% don't you see it as the cause of these conflicts?

4. These conflicts are championed by the youths and the unemployed. Is it true?

5. Religion has again been blamed for most conflicts in Zango Kataf local government Area. What is your take on that?

6. Can the provision of education and economic opportunities to the youths reduce poverty and conflicts in the Zango Kataf local government Area?

7. In your opinion, what are the effects of these conflicts on the human wellbeing and development of the Zango Kataf local government Area?

8. Proffer solutions to these problems.

APPENDIX B

PRESENTATION OF DATA

A. Why Is There Rampant Conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government?

I. Lack of truth, trust, and sincerity from political Leaders
II. Lack of respect for others' culture
III. Lack of good awareness from political and religious leaders
IV. Injustice of political leaders
V. Quest for dominance
VI. Selfishness of leaders
VII. Religion and intolerance
VIII. Poverty.

B. Do you agree that Politicians (Elites) are Responsible for Most Conflict in Zango Kataf Local Government?

I. Politicians are responsible for conflict in Zango Kataf LGA

II. Not politicians only but all greedy people

III. Political interests to mobilize people to achieve some interest

IV. Opposition Politicians

C According To Statistics by NBS (National Bureau of Statistics) Poverty Rate in Kaduna State Is 73% Don't You See It as the Cause of These Conflict?

I. Poverty, corruption, lack of patriotism and greed of leaders

II. Politicians

III. Laziness

IV. Injustice

D Conflicts are said To Have Been Championed by the Youths and the Unemployed is It True?

I. Inabilities of the youths to be meaningfully engage.

II. Youths involvement is due to lack of education

III. Youths involvement due to ignorance

IV. Lack of employment

V. The youths are instigated by leaders

E Religion has again been blamed for most Conflicts in Zango Kataf Local Government. What do you have to say?

I. Religion is the cause

II. Religion does not cause conflict

III. Interest of religious leaders

F Can The Provision Of Education And Economic Opportunities To The Youth Reduce Conflicts And Poverty In Zango Kataf Local Government Area?

I. Education will solve the problem

II. Education and provision of economic opportunities will not solve the problem of poverty and conflicts, only Justice will.

III. Education will wipe away ignorance

IV. Technical education will solve the problem.

G In Your Opinion What are the Effects of These Conflict on the Human Wellbeing and Development of Zango Kataf Local Government?

I. Lack of good leadership at all levels of government

II. Injustice from leaders

III. Equal treatment from the government

IV. Destruction of life and property

V. Mistrust, Division along religious lines

VI. Suspicion, fear and hatred

H Probable Solutions to These Problems

I. Free education

II. Equal treatment

III. Justice

IV. Rule of Law

V. Respect for their culture and beliefs

VI. Tolerance

VII. Improve standard of living of the people

VIII. Free Education

IX. Establish industries in Southern Kaduna

APPENDIX C

LIST OF PEOPLE INTERVIEWED TO DATE

S/No	NAME OF THE INTERVIEWEE	PLACE OF INTERVIEW	DATE	TIME
1	His Royal Highness, Iliya Ishaku.District Head Abobo Zonkwa	His Royal Highness' Palace	10/10/2012	11:00am
2	Mallam Dalhat Yakubu. Chairman, Da'awah,Zango Kataf Local Government.	Mallam Kabiru Baduku's Compound	10/09/2014	12:45pm
3	Rev.Sunday Ibrahim. Chairman Christian	His Personal Residence, Zonkwa.	11/10/2012	9:00am

	Association of Nigeria(CAN), Zango Kataf Local Government.			
4	Mr.Samson Sheyin, PDP Chairman, Zango Kataf Local Government.	PDP Local Government Sectariat, Zonkwa.	12/10/2012	2:00pm
5	Alhaji Umar Maitulare. CPC Zonal Vice Chairman Kaduna.	CPC State Secretariat, Kaduna.	15/10/2012	1:30pm
6	Mr. Shamang Istifanus, PDP Acting Secretary General, Zango Kataf Local Government.	PDP Local Government Secretariat, Zonkwa	12/10/2012	2:45pm
7	Mr.Hosea Daniel, PDP Youth Leader Zango Kataf Local Government	PDP Local Government Secretariat, Zonkwa	12/10/2012	2:45pm
8	Hon. Yakubu B. Mohammed. Immidiate past Councilor Zango Urban Ward, Zango	PDP Local Government Secretariat, Zonkwa.	12/10/2012	12:34pm

	Kataf Local Government.			
9	Mr.Felix Adams, a self employed.	Samaru Kataf	16/10/2012	11:13am
10	Mr.Wilfred Gbamwuan, a student.	Fadan Kamanton	16/10/2012	12:00pm
11	Mallam. Umar Idris, Unemployed person.	Zango Town	17/10/2012	2:00pm
12	Mallam.Mohammed Abubakar, a self employed	Zango Town	17/10/2012	2:00pm
13	Mallam Idris Musa, Unemployed person.	Zango Town	17/10/2012	2:30pm
14	A group of students from Nuhu Bamali Poly,Samaru Kataf	Nuhu Bamali Poly,Samaru Kataf	19/10/2012	10:40am
15	Eunice Jerry, Civil Servant	Zonkwa	18/10/2012	10:00am
16	Students of St. Francis	St, Francis College	18/10/2012	1:30pm

	College Zonkwa	Zonkwa		
17	Mallam Kabiru Baduku. A self-employed	Fadan Kamanton	22/10/2012	12:45pm

APPENDIX D

Table 3.1
Age and gender of Household Heads (%)

Average group of Household Head	Village	Town
16-25	2.5	6.1
26-35	25.8	20.3
36-45	27.0	27.9
46-55	23.0	26.6
56-65	14.3	11.1
65+	7.4	6.4
Gender of Head Male Female	 97.2 2.8	 83.9 16.1

Households' Marital Status (%)

Status	Village	Town

Married	80.2	81.0
Single	11.1	17.0
Divorced,Separated	2.1	6.2
Widowed	0.7	1.7

Table 3.2
Village and Semi- Urban Incomes in Zango Kataf LGA

Income category	Per annum ₦
Average Village household income	725
Average semi-urban(towns) household income	13,380

Table 3.3

Income Distribution and changes in income

Category	Income accrued to respondents in ZKLGA
F. Income bracket (₦)	Percentage (%)
Less than 1,000 1,001 -5,000 5,001 -10,000 10,001 – 20,000 20,001 – 30,000 More than 30,000	6.7 26.1 20.2 15.9 14.6 16.5
G. Change in income %	
Increasing Decreasing No change in income	36.2 63.8 -
H. Factors responsible for change in income	

Inflation	88.8
Temporarily out of job	3.9
Under employment	6.3
Retirement	0.5
Old age	0.5
I. Current job (satisfied or Not)	
Satisfied	47.5
Not satisfied	52.5
J. Prospect for migration	
To rural area	25.1
To urban area	74.9

Table 3.4
Incidence of poverty by employment status: household heads

Employment Status	Village	Semi-Urban(Town)	Total
Wage earner	22.6	44.0	66.6
Self-employed	51.0	40.0	91.0
Others	17.4	36.0	53.4

Table 3.5
Distribution of poverty by occupational category of household heads

occupational category	Percentage of respondent
Farming	67.4
Trading and artisans	10.2
Public service	10.7
Corporate unit	5.4
Student and Apprentice	3.9
Others	2.4
Total	100

Table 3.6
Farming and structure of land ownership

Type	Village	Semi- urban(Town)

Family owned and inherited Rented Leasehold Purchased	68.1 10.3 15.6 6.0	34.3 36.9 14.6 14.2
Total	100	100

Table 3.7
Household access to credit facilities %

	Village	Semi-urban(Town)
a. Households who had no access to credits	73.6	49.4
b. Household with to credit • Relations • Contribution/ loan from the community • Community bank • Commercial/Merchant banks	26.4 18.4 5.0 2.o 1.0	50.4 42.4 6.2 1.0 1.0
c. Factors underlying inadequate access to bank credit • Absence of banks in the neighourhood • No contact or saving accounts maintained with the banks	 13.6 86.4	 50.6 49.4

Table 3.8
Common agricultural implements used by the respondents

Mode	Village	Semi-urban(Town)
Cutlasses	40.6	45.8
Hoes	41.8	41.2
Shovel	4.8	3.6
Fishing net	1.8	1.4
Traditional	3.9	2.6
Tractors	3.7	4.4
Ploughs	3.4	1.0

Table 3.9

Incidence of poverty educational attainment of household head %

Education	Village	Semi-urban(Town)	Total
No. education	45.6	41.0	43.3
Primary	20.9	30.4	30.7
Secondary	15.2	25.0	24.1
Post- secondary	0.3	3.6	1.9

Table 3.10

Dominant Nutritional Types, Distribution of Income of Feeding and Frequency

	ZK LGA %
5. Nutritional type	
➢ Garri	1.8
➢ Yam	5.7
➢ Rice	14.9
➢ Guinea corn	45.6
➢ Millet	24.4
➢ Maize	2.6
➢ Cassava	4.0
➢ Beans	1.0
6. % of income spent on feeding	
➢ 20 – 40%	2.9
➢ 40 – 70%	19.8
➢ 70 – 100%	77.3
7. Food supply source	
➢ Market	48.1
➢ farm	51.9
➢ Elsewhere	-
8. Number of times average household eats daily (frequency %)	
➢ Once	3.5
➢ Twice	64.9
➢ Thrice	31.6

Table 3.11

Types and Ownership of Dwelling Unit %

	Village	Semi-urban(Town)
A.Types		

vi. Mud-thatch/bacha house	57.0	33.5
vii. Block/Brick rooming type	25.	39.7
viii. Block of flats	9.9	12.6
ix. Bungalow	7.4	12.9
x. Duplex	0.5	1.3
B. Ownership		
i. Purchased	0.5	11.7
ii. Rented	4.9	35.4
iii. Owned or built by the respondent	48.0	28.8
iv. Inherited	46.6	24.1

Table 3.12
Mode of Transportation (%)

Mode	Village	Semi-urban (Town)
Public transport (Bus)	29.0	56.6
Trekking	46.9	28.1
Bicycles	15.3	28.1
Motorcycle	7.8	5.4
Canoe	1.0	0.0

Table 3.13
Provision of infrastructure

Types of infrastructure	Provisioning		
	Government	Community	Private
3. Economic:			
c. Electricity	69.2	10.2	20.5
d. Motorable road	61.0	38.2	0.8
4. Social:			
d. Schools	60.1	22.5	17.4
e. Health institution	43.7	20.0	37.3
f. Water Supply	-	-	-

Table 3.14
Accessibility and non-accessibility to socio-economic infrastructural facilities by

Households %

	Health	Education	Energy	Water supply	Electricity
Accessibility	39.6	52	28.5	45	56
Non-accessibility	60.4	48	71.5	55	44
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Table 3.15
Non-accessibility to socio-economic infrastructural facilities by Village and Town households

	Health	Education	Energy	Water supply	Electricity
Rural	73.1	85.3	46.4	81.7	90.1
Urban	26.9	14.7	53.6	18.3	0.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Table 3.16
Types of Health facilities accessed %

	Village	Semi-Urban (Town)
Traditional	20.6	12.4
Clinics	47.1	16.3
Dispensary	23.1	9.2
Patent medicine store	3.4	1.2
Cottage hospital	3.6	2.5
General hospital	-	50.4
Specialist hospital	0.2	8.0
Free-paying	-	-

Table 3.17
Utilisation of energy %

	Village	Semi-Urban(Town)
3. LIGHTING		
d. Electricity/Generators	-	30.4
e. Kerosene	5.6	62.5
f. Candle	94.4	7.1

4. COOKING		
d. Firewood	96.7	59.4
e. Stove	3.3	40.6
f. Gas	-	-

QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE PRACTICAL ASSESSMENT OF POVERTY IN ZANGO

KATAF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

I am an Ms.c student in the Department of Political Science Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, conducting a research on the assessment of Practical Indicators of Poverty in Zango Kataf Local Government, Kaduna State. I kindly solicit your support in responding to the following questions.

This research is purely an academic activity as such, your responses shall be handled with high confidentiality.

Thank you.

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION1: PERSONAL DATA

1.Name of respondent……

2.sex……Male ( ) Female ( )

3.Age……

4. Marital status (i) Married( ) ii Single( ) iii Divorced( ) iv Widowed( ) v Separated( )

5.No. of children…….

SECTION II:

7. EDUCATION

Indicate by picking the appropriate educational levels attained.

I Primary( ) ii Secondary( ) iii Post Secondary School( ) iv Adult Education( ) v No. education( )

8.FEEDING

a.What type of food is mostlytaken by you amd your family?

b.How many times do you feed daily?

c. How do you source most of your food items? i. From the farm( ) ii.Purchased from in the market( ) iii.Sourced elsewhere( )

d.What percentage of your income or farm product do you spend on feeding?

EMPLOYMENT

10. Which of the underlisted category applies to you? i.Self-employed( ) ii.Paid employment( ) iii. Unemployed( ) iv. Retired( )

11.What is your primary occupation? i.Farming( ) ii.Trading( ) iii.Artisan( ) iv.Civil servant( ) v.Corparate Unit( ) vi. Student/Apprenticeship( ) vii. Others(specify)……..

12. If engaged in agriculture: i. What food crop do you cultivate? ii.What sort of implement do you use? iii.How do you source for your fertilizer?

SECTION III:

DWELLING UNITS

13.Tick the appropriate, is the house you are living in:

A.Rented( )

B.Owned( ) i.built by you( ) ii.Purchased( ) iii.inherited( )

C.Partly owned( )

14.Which type of the underlisted is your dwelling place? i.mud house( ) ii.block of flats( ) iii.bungalow( ) iv.duplex( ) rooming type( )

15. Do you have: i.Pipe borne water( ) ii. Electricity( ) iii.Telephone( )

16.Which of these basic utilities available in your area provided by: Communoty, Government and Individual?

i. Pipe borne water( ) ii.Electricity( ) iii.Motorable roads( ) iv.Health centre( )

v. Schools( )

17. What form of energy sources do you use in your house? i.Electricity( ) ii.Gas( ) iii. solar energy( ) iv. firewood

SECTION IV:

INFRASTRUCTURE

18. Which of the following utilities do you have access to in the community? i.water( ) ii.telephone( ) iii.electricity( )

19. Which of these modes of transportation do you commonly use?

a.Road i.motor( ) ii.motor-cycle( ) iii.bicycle( ) iv. trekking v. others( )

20. Which of these health services do you patronise most in you area?

i. Tradtional( ) ii. cottage hospital( ) iii.small clinic( ) iv. dispensary( ) v.General hospital( ) vi. specialist hospital( ) vii. patent medicins store( )

SECTION V

FINANCING OF BUSINESSES

21. (a) In which income bracket do you fall in?(Tick appropriate Please)

i.Less than #1000 p.a ( ) ii.1,001-5000p.a( )

iii. 5,001-10,000p.a( ) iv. 10,001-20,000p.a( )

v.20,001-30,000p.a( ) vi.30,001-50,000p.a( )

vii.50,000 and above( )

(b) By how much has your income increase since 1980?

22. Do you have access to credit facilities? Yes/No

23. Which of these credit sources exist in your area?

i. Commercial Bank( ) ii.merchant Bank( ) iii. Community Bank ( ) vi.Cooperative societies( )

24. Has your income being decreasing in the pst ten years?

25. If YES, what is responsible for the decline in your income/

26. Are you satisfied with your current job or not?

27. Any prospect of migrating to either the village or the city?

28. Suggest what you would want the government to do socially and economically for you or your area in the next few years to alleviate the present condition and improve the people's standard of living please.

APPENDIX. E

Table 1: Incidence of Poverty by Geo-political zones

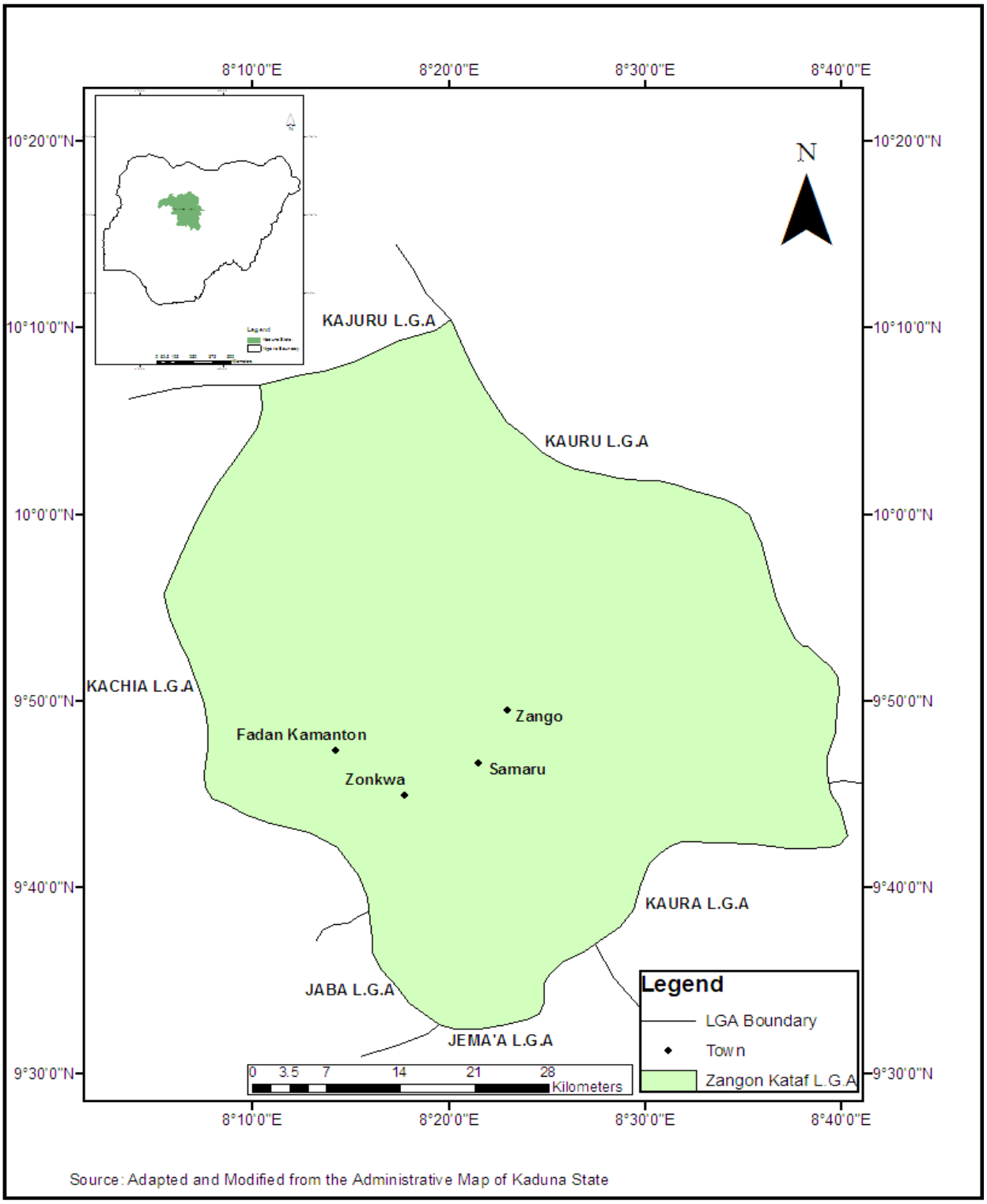
Geo-Political Zone	**Percentage**					
Year	1980	1985/6	1992	1997	2004	2010
North East	35.6	53.2	54.0	68.0	72.2	76.3
North West	37.7	48.4	36.5	62.0	71.2	77.2
North Central	32.2	48.4	46.0	53.0	67.0	67.5

South East	12.9	30.9	41.0	79.5	26.7	67.0
South West	13.4	42.0	43.1	74.1	43.0	59.1
South- South	13.2	38.0	40.8	78.6	35.1	63.7
Nationwide	28.1	43.0	42.7	69.2	54.4	69.0

Source: Igbuzor, 2012.

APPENDIX

MAP OF ZANGO KATAF LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OF KADUNA STATE



Source: Adapted and Modified from the Administrative Map of Kaduna State