

**HOUSEHOLDS COPING STRATEGIES WITH VIOLENT CONFLICTS IN
PLATEAU STATE, NIGERIA**

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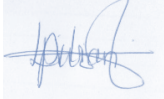
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ABSTRACT

This study examined the impacts of violent conflicts on households in Plateau State, Nigeria, how households mobilise or access resources for coping and the factors that impede on the effectiveness of processes and outcomes of the different types of interventions carried out by both state and non-state actors. Adopting qualitative research method, primary data was collected through in—depth interviews, and supplemented with focus group discussions and key informant interviews. Thus, 36 in-depth interviews, 3 focus group discussions and 10 key informant interviews were carried out. Guided by the research questions, the data collected for this study was thematically analysed using qualitative data analysis method to generate codes and themes. New insights to findings reveal that family life, children’s growth and development have been negatively impacted; tilling virgin lands every now and then in host communities outside Plateau State is negatively impacting the effectiveness of coping of such households; beliefs and ideologies; traditional institutions and the African spirit of ‘ubuntu’ have been great source for coping. Poor synergy and interagency cooperation; development deficits; poor planning and coordination; the recurring nature of the violent conflicts and poor political-will, continue to impede on the quality of future interventions by both State and non-state actors. Addressing these gaps in interventions will go a long way in ensuring effective and sustainable outcomes, thereby alleviating the plights of displaced households in Plateau communities. The findings in this study will contribute to evidence-based approach to programming.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ADP	:	Annual Development Plan
ADP	:	Annual Development Plan
ABD	:	Agricultural Business Development
ADP	:	Annual Development Plan
CAFOD	:	Catholic Agency for Overseas Development
CAID	:	Christian Aid
CDA	:	Coast Development Authority
CIDP	:	County Integrated Development Plan
COVID-19	:	Corona Virus Disease 2019
DFID	:	Department for International Development
EU	:	European Union
EWER	:	Early Warning and Early Response
FGDs	:	Focused Group Discussions
GFDDR	:	Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery
GHA	:	Global Humanitarian Assistance
GHO	:	Global Humanitarian Overview
HoRN	:	Horn of Africa Resilience Network
HRW	:	Human Rights Watch
IASC	:	Inter-Agency Standard Committee
ICG	:	International Crises Group
IDMC	:	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
IDPs	:	Internally Displaced Persons
IPOB	:	Indigenous People of Biafra
IPSS	:	Institute for Peace and Security Studies
LGA	:	Local Government Area
NATO	:	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NEMA	:	National Emergency Management Agency
NRC	:	Norwegian Refugee Council
OCHA	:	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OECD	:	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OSCE	:	Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe
PIC	:	Project Implementation Community
PIE	:	Person in Environment
SDGs	:	Sustainable Development Goals
SEMA	:	State Emergency Management Agency
SESRIC	:	Statistical, Economic & Social Research & Training Centre for Islamic Countries
TNH	:	The New Humanitarian
UN	:	United Nations
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	:	United Nations International Children Emergency Fund
UNISDR	:	United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
USAID	:	United States Agency for International Development

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

Any unfavourable circumstance that requires a momentous external aid and resources, or a response that is multi-sectoral in approach, while extensively engaging humanitarian actors can be termed as humanitarian crises (IASC, cited in UNICEF, nd). In other words, events or situations that threaten the wellbeing of a group of people or communities can be described as humanitarian crises. Records abound on how the lives of people are threatened across the globe by such crises. The situation is usually characterized by deprivation of a part of a population of a country or setting, of basic livelihood conditions; food, water, shelter, access to healthcare and education and can result into long-term health and security threats. The three broad categories of humanitarian crises include: man-made crises which are associated to violent conflicts, nuclear disasters, train or plane crashes. The second category are natural disasters that are associated with natural hazards that are geographical, meteorological, biological, climatic or hydrological, and are characterized by earthquakes, storms, epidemics or pest infestations, droughts, floods, etc. The third type is referred to as complex emergencies; a combination of both man-made and natural disasters, characterized by spread of violence and displacements of people (Malteser International, 2022). This study focuses on violent conflicts, categorised under man-made crises.

As the world grapples with issues of humanitarian crises stemming from different types of disasters, the 2021 Global Humanitarian Assistance (GHA) Report estimates that, one out of twenty-nine people world-wide will need humanitarian support and protection in 2022, a rise to two-hundred and seventy-four million (274 million) people, from two hundred and thirty-four (234 million) people in 2021. The report adds that, eighty percent

of the number that will require this support are refugees and asylum seekers, while seventy-six percent (76%) are internally displaced persons (IDPs) who have fled their homes for safety and security. Humanitarian crises across the world have pushed over 82.4 million of the world's population into forced displacement. This figure (82.4 million), accounts to about 1% of the world's population (OCHA, 2021).

According to the Statistical, Economic, Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries - SESRIC (2017), conflicts and natural disasters are the main drivers of humanitarian crises in the world, and violent conflicts remain a major type of humanitarian crises negatively impacting the world today. People in countries like Afghanistan, Ukraine, Syria, Yemen, Somalia, Democratic Republic of Congo, South Sudan, Tigray part of Ethiopia and a host of others have been pushed into forced displacements, amidst hunger and other grave humanitarian concerns. The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC, 2021), records that, conflicts and disasters are confirmed reasons why people flee their homes, following displacements in their own countries. This is affirmed in a submission by the Global Humanitarian Overview (GHO) in OCHA (2021) that, in all the conflicts dealt with in 2020 across the globe, 60 percent were violent. This is in spite of the calls for ceasefires repeatedly made as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. More worrisome is the fact that the civilian population remain the hardest hit during political conflicts. Thus, the needs of the most vulnerable categories of persons keep exacerbating. And this reflects the situation in different parts of the world where violent conflicts are prevalent. Records also reveal that violent conflicts are reinforcements of structural violence induced in different ways, and are often locked around issues such as poor governance and corruption, especially in the sub-Saharan Africa, where about half of the states have been blighted by different forms of violent conflicts since 1960. These can be categorised as post-colonial conflicts, boundary and

territorial conflicts, conflicts linked to secessionist ambitions, resource-based conflicts, annexationist conflicts, poverty, denial and perceived or real injustice induced conflicts (Obasanjo, 2014).

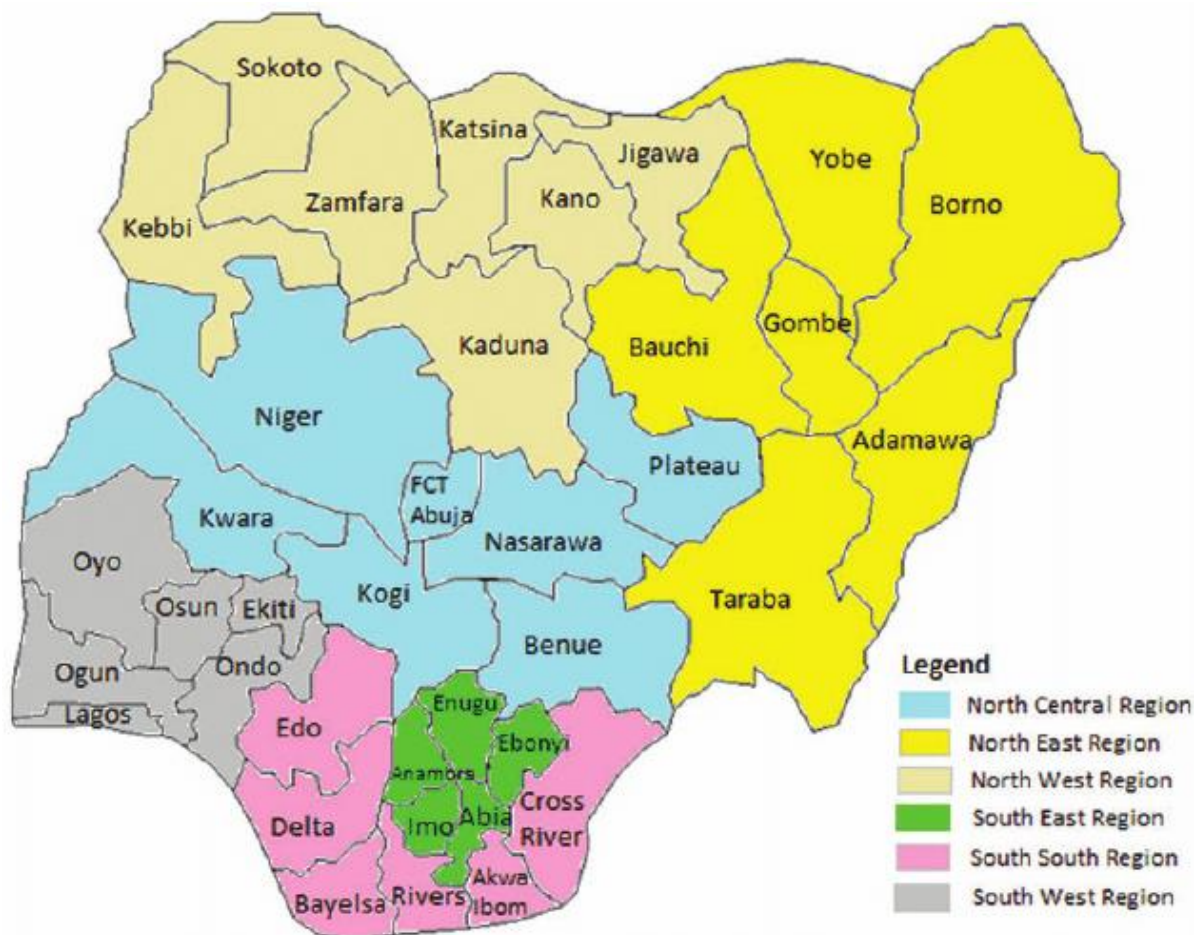


Figure 1.1: Map of Nigeria showing the 36 States and the 6 Geopolitical Zones of the Country. (Source: ResearchGate)

In Nigeria, like many other parts of the sub-Saharan Africa, the situation is not different, as the different regions also have a share of violent conflicts. While the northern region is contending with insurgency (Muhammed, 2017), there are records of clashes between herders and farmers in the central region (Shobayo, 2017; Udosen, 2021; Olufemi, 2021; Tade, 2021). In the west and south-east, groups such as the O’odua’s People Congress (OPC) and the Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB) respectively are agitating for different

political reasons (Ploughshares, 2014). Summarily, violent conflicts have plagued a lot of communities in Nigeria, leaving them uninhabitable, as residents flee for safety and end up as displaced persons in different camps and host communities or families. The north-east and central region of the country are hardest hit areas, where the Boko-Haram insurgents and the clashes between herders and farmers have gravely impacted on the conflicts, recording loss of hundreds of thousands of lives, destruction of property and means of livelihood, while raising very serious humanitarian concerns as vulnerabilities increase (Oghuvbu & Oghuvbu, 2020).

Plateau State has suffered from pockets of recurring violent owing to socio-economic, socio-religious and socio-political factors (Danfulani, 2006; Higazi, 2011). For instance, clashes between farmers and herders due to competition over shared natural resources, amidst climatic changes leading to deaths, loss of means of livelihoods, destruction of properties and rendering thousands of people in the affected communities homeless and internally displaced in different camps and communities, where host communities and families bear the brunt amidst harsh economic realities. Consequently, social and economic development processes are adversely affected (McGoldrick, 2005; TNH, 2005; START Network, 2018; SEMA, 2018; IDMC, 2021, Na'anlong, 2021; Olufemi, 2021). According to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC, 2021), there were about one hundred and sixty-nine thousand displacements in Nigeria at the end of 2020, bringing the total to two million, seven hundred and thirty thousand (2,730,000) people, and about fifty-five million people worldwide. These figures are alarming and call for serious call for action. Hence, it is expedient to place communities on pathways to resilience, by seeking to understand experiences of households impacted by these violent conflicts and seek ways for effective interventions that will contribute to efforts geared at making communities safe, secured and habitable.

The heightened level of humanitarian crises across the world has given the concept of community resilience a wide and considerable attention by researchers and scholars in the field of social sciences. The idea of community resilience refers to the ability of a community to cope well and recover from devastating effects of disasters within a very short period of time, with little or no external support or aid. According to Schmidt-Sane et al (2021), due to the amorphous nature of this concept over time, different researchers have given different meanings, interpretations and applications to it. One of the generally accepted definitions of this concept by the United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR, 2009), is ‘the ability of a system, community, or society exposed to hazards to resist, absorb, accommodate and recover from the effects of hazards in a timely and efficient manner, including through the preservation and restoration of its essential basic structures and functions’. Norris et al., (2008) describes a resilient community as one that “has the ability to transform the environment through deliberate, collective action” and “requires that the community as a whole, must cope effectively with and learn from adversity.”

Looking very closely at the different definitions and interpretations of the concept, it will be understood that the concept basically targets the reduction of vulnerability and guarantee of a speedy stability of the people in a setting or community in the face of any kind of disaster. Norman Gemazy, the pioneer of research in resilience observes that the concept of resilience should not be seen as brave, rather, the capacity of a person or system to survive or function adequately in spite of adversity. According to him, ‘it is not necessarily impervious to stress, rather, it is designed to reflect the capacity for recovery and maintained adaptive behaviour that may follow initial retreat or incapacity upon initiating a stressful event’. Summarily, resilience can be described as the progression from adversity (crises) and the outcome (increased vulnerability or increased resilience),

and it is dependent on factors like individual traits, environmental conditions, available resources, level of capacity, familial and other forms of support systems. It is on this premise that this research aims to study the coping strategies of displaced households in Plateau State, Nigeria, amidst violent conflicts. In particular, this study proposes to examine how household have been impacted by the violent conflicts in Plateau State, and how the impacted households have been able to access or mobilise resources for coping over the years. The study will also examine the gaps in the different types of interventions carried by State and non-state actors and analyse the factors impeding the successes of these interventions.

The proposition here is thus, if resilient communities are invaluable to sustainable development, then, ensuring that processes of coping are effective for quality outcomes should be prioritised by all actors (communities, state and non-state actors). The inevitability of disasters and conflicts in the modern society makes it very important to have capacities strengthened at different levels to be able to meet emerging needs in times of emergencies. This supports the argument that building resilient communities is crucial to sustainable development (OECD, 2018, Pisano, 2012, CAFOD, 2017). In other words, households will be able to absorb shocks from disturbances and remain functional, if they have the capacity to adopt or adapt or transform their situation as determined by their needs and ability to access and mobilise resources that will enable them cope effectively, making growth and development sustainable. Indeed, only a proper diagnosis of the gaps that affect the processes of (resilience) can help with practicable solutions, improved programming and interventions.

Given the background and understanding of types of humanitarian crises in general and violent conflicts in particular, (Malteser International, 2021; IDMC, 2021; OCHA, 2021;

SESRIC, 2017), gaining an in-depth understanding of the experiences of IDPs in Plateau State and their coping strategies over the years will be key in the effective designing and implementation of interventions targeted at households. Consequently, this research work will be anchored on the stress coping theory to understand the experiences of households and how their short-termed needs have been addressed. The social capital theory will be used to bridge the limitations of the stress coping theory to examine how households have been able to access and mobilise resources to meet short, medium and long termed needs.

1.2. Problem Statement

Recurring violent conflicts in Plateau State has pushed thousands of people out of their communities into Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps in the past two decades. Several reports show that the increasing number of IDPs makes it difficult to determine the actual figure, as more communities get deserted after every conflict. Records show that, there are displaced persons who have been living in camps or host families/communities for over five years (IDMC, 2021). This situation threatens the achievement of sustainable development plans linked with building of resilient communities in the State (McGoldrick, 2005; Ploughshares, 2009; IPSS, 2018).

Different studies highlight the causes and impacts of violent and armed conflicts in Nigeria as a whole and Plateau State in particular, and how livelihoods, education, housing, health, security of communities have been threatened. However, empirical studies on household coping strategies are limited, and the nature of support they will need in the short, medium and long terms to enable them bounce back, resettle or reintegrate are inadequate to push for policy actions. Majority of displaced households are from agrarian and pastoralist communities; hence the crises exacerbate a growing concern on food insecurity. Most of the interventions carried out by government,

humanitarian and development aid agencies have been humanitarian in nature, thus, short termed (IPSS, 2018; Muhammed, 2017; IDMC, 2021).

In spite of the vast resources that have gone into interventions by the state and non-state actors at different points, there is little or no positive impact to show, making sustainable growth and development a mirage (Ojewale, 2021). This creates a need to examine the survival strategies adopted by households in affected communities, the capacity they have to access or mobilize resources and identify the gaps that have affected the quality of outcomes. It is believed that, an appreciation of these will be crucial in designing effective intervention programs that align with the developmental gaps of the State.

1.3. Research Questions

The main research question is what are the coping strategies adopted by households over the years amidst the recurring violent conflicts in Plateau State?

Specific research questions are:

1. How have households been impacted by the violent conflicts in Plateau State?
2. How have households been able to access or mobilise resources for coping from State and non-state actors?
3. What are the gaps impeding the effectiveness of processes and outcomes of the different types of interventions implemented by state and non-state actors?

1.4. Research Objectives

The main objective of the study is to understand the coping strategies of households in Plateau State amidst recurring violent conflicts.

Specific research objectives are:

1. To analyse how households have been impacted by the violent conflicts in Plateau State.
2. To examine how households have been able to access or mobilise resources for coping from State and non-state actors.
3. To analyse the gaps impeding the effectiveness of processes and outcomes in the different types of interventions implemented by state and non-state actors.

1.5. Rationale for the Study

The study linked previous studies that explored the causes and effects of the recurring violent conflicts in Plateau State, based on the application of the concepts of coping and social capital. The outcome adds to existing literature informing the methodology of similar studies, and become a veritable tool that will inform policies and focus for development interventions aimed at addressing the challenge of violent conflicts in Plateau State. The research work will also contribute to efforts geared towards meeting the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in general and the 11th Goal: sustainable cities and communities in particular.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is about the reviewed literature for this research work. It gives an empirical review of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks for the study, through an in-depth analysis of the concepts and variables in the study.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

This research work anchored on the stress coping and the social capital theories. The stress coping theory was used to examine and analyse the coping strategies of households affected by violent conflicts in Plateau State, while the social capital theory supplemented the stress coping theory to examine how households utilise the social capital they have built or amassed over the years to access or mobilise resources for coping to build resilience.

The rationale behind combining the two theories, is anchored on the understanding that in managing crises situation, individuals and households evaluate the resources at their disposal to ascertain the level of external support they will require to be able to cope. These external supports are dependent on the nature of social networks or linkages they can access at the material time to be able to cope with the new situation. Thus, the importance of examining how these have been applied overtime to understand the coping strategies of households in Plateau State.

2.1.1 Stress Coping Theory and Violent Conflicts

The pioneers of the stress coping theory, Richard Lazarus and Susan Folkman describe the concept as a cognitive process and efforts towards responding or managing specific

external and or internal pressures, appraised as overwhelming or exceeding the resources of the person. In other words, the concept of coping is a process that aims at appraising or evaluating a situation through a mental or logical assessment, interpreting and making meaning out of the situation, and making deliberate effort to respond to the situation.

When individuals are exposed to threats for example from a violent conflict that resulted in the death of a loved one or destruction of home or loss of means of livelihood, the experience will usually, come with a shock and eventually stress. What happens to such an individual between the situation or event, and the outcome, determines whether the individual becomes resilient or vulnerable. However, every effort made to respond to the situation targets a positive outcome, hence, resilience. According to the interactive model of the stress coping theory developed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), there are two crucial processes that are important to the outcome of the problem; the degree and manner in which the situation affects the individual (household) and how the problem is or can be resolved. This means understanding how the situation affects the household and finding solutions to the threats posed by the problem, while tolerating or reducing both internal and external pressures. They posit that, this process is a relationship or interaction between the individual (household) and his environment, which is expressed through an assessment of the situation to determine how it impacts them before responding. Based on the transactional/interactive model, the two stages (processes) of evaluation are termed primary and secondary. At the primary evaluation stage, the individual assesses how they are impacted by the situation and ascertain if it affects their wellbeing in a harmful or beneficial manner and what challenges they could be faced with. At the second stage of evaluation, the individual appraises the best strategies to adopt in coping with the situation, the coping capacities and resources.

According to Moon (2009), societies affected by violent conflicts are traumatized and need therapeutic management if conflict is to be ameliorated. She stresses that it is the responsibility of a post-conflict State to meet the psychiatric health needs of its citizens, and argues that conversations around therapy gives a focus for a radically new type of state acceptance, because it helps in acknowledging the sufferings of people, remedy or reduce trauma. Thus, therapeutic understanding and interventions helps people cope better in post-conflict processes. It aids in ridding people of the issues that could potentially be responsible for resurgence of violence. This finding shows the need to understand the different coping strategies adopted by people in conflict settings, the various stages of the processes they are going through, assess their capacity and what resources will be required to help them become resilient.

Coping strategies may differ from place to place and are highly dependent on the capacity of the people and the quality of the resources that can be accessed internally and externally. Through a qualitative study that explored the adaptive capacity of countries in the Pacific Islands, Fletcher et al (2013) identified five common strategies employed in the Project Implementation Communities (PICs) and recognised these as traditional methods: family and community involvement, faith and religious beliefs, traditional governance and leadership, agriculture and food security. Although, the effectiveness of these methods has not been tested, it gives us an idea of what people in the PICs use and may also applicable to other parts of the world. A qualitative study on coping strategies in central Nigeria (Benue, Nasarawa and Kogi States) using interview guide showed that most people forced into displacements end up as dependants of friends or other family members for the emotional and material support required to meet immediate needs like food and shelter. Most of these families eventually suffer from vicarious trauma as results of shouldering responsibilities beyond their capacity. The study also revealed that farmers

in this group switch occupation since they are often not be able to access their farm lands due to relocation or other reasons tied to insecurity (Tade, 2021).

2.1.2 Social Capital Theory

The social capital theory emerged from the concept of social capital, a concept that first emerged from the work of Hanifan in 1916 and 1920, also understood as the cultivation of goodwill, fellowship, sympathy and social relationships. Several scholars like Jane Jacob, Pierre Bourdieu, and James Coleman brought it into the academics afterwards. However, Robert Putnam (1993, 2008) championed it into research and policy discussions. The World Bank maintains that with the growing number of evidence, it is agreeable that social cohesion is key to the economic prosperity and thriving development of societies, thus embracing the concept is critical. The central thesis here is that relationship is key to building communities and having people commit themselves in turns, knits social fabric. Hence, the social capital theory advances the view that social networks are valuable assets that can benefit individuals and communities (households), where built relationship platforms are used to generate long, short or medium termed benefits that are psychological, emotional or economical. Key features of this theory include solidarity and trust, social cohesion and inclusion, reciprocity and mutual help, information and communication, and social networks, social participation (Coleman, 1988; Bourdieu, 1994; Bourdieu, 2001).

Social capital refers to the links, networks and bonds developed through interactions, friendships and acquaintances. These links can be formed through friendship groups, for example, knowing a friend of a friend. They can also occur through daily social interactions. To put it another way, social capital are the social ties that we develop throughout our lives (Boyce, 2020). According to Lydia Hanifan, cited in Ferragina (2010) social capital can be referred to as ‘those tangible assets that count the most in the

daily lives of people; goodwill, fellowship, sympathy, and social intercourse among the individuals and families who make up a social unit'. It is the networks of relationships among people who live and work in a particular society, enabling them to function effectively. It can also be understood as the development of relationships that help contribute to a more efficient production of goods and services in any society. OECD (2018) defines it as the 'networks together with shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate co-operation within or among groups'. This definition builds the understanding that considers networks as the actual relations, links or connections that exist among groups or individuals; consider a network of friends, of family etc. Szreter, cited in Claridge (2004), describes social capital as something that provides a platform which facilitates co-operation, exchange and innovation. It promotes social cohesion by bringing people and holding them together. Very broadly, social capital refers to the social relationships between people that enable productive outcomes. Different scholars have different views of types and classification of social capital. However, according to Bhandari and Yasunobu (2009), classification of social capital that have gained considerable prominence over the years include structural and cognitive social capital: bridging, bonding, and linking social capital. Others are: strong and weak social capital, and horizontal and vertical social capital. Likewise, Woolcock (1998) views the concept of social capital as '...specifically in terms of networks, stressing the norm-laden nature of relationships within and between them.' He classifies the common types into three basic forms; The bonding, linking and bridging social capitals.

First, the bonding social capital describes relationships within or between relatively homogenous groups. Such relationships that exist between individuals with very close ties like in the case of family, relatives, friends, neighbours that hold a relatively high degree of network closure. Here, the persons involved operate at same level and the

people in the group know themselves and share strong ties based on the norms and values that help them build and maintain trust within themselves. This type of social capital, enhances communication that enables those involved nurture the ties they share and may have both positive and negative manifestations and implications for social exclusion, depending on the responses of those involved, to the values they exhibit, in relation to the norms. Example is seen in cases where members fail to invest in the social capital, they will not be able to access assets in the network. This is because provision of solidarity by members may be measured by that which has been invested over time.

Second, is the bridging social capital. In this case ties exist where the relationships of persons in the network are characterized by cross social divides in the social groups. Bridging social capital deals with structures and places the actors in structural holes playing different roles based on capability or skills that others can leverage on. It helps in narrowing existing gaps between individuals, groups and communities and key in solving group or societal problems. Here, there may be no engagements of many shared norms because the relationship is outward-looking and characterized by distant ties often associated with reciprocity and 'thin trust'. It may provide access to network resources outside of an individual's normal circles and as such can provide significant individual (and group) benefits. A good example that comes to mind is when a friend of a friend recommends one for a job position.

Third is linking social capital which describes relationships between people or groups at different hierarchical levels. The interaction here occurs at a level of a network of trusting relationships within people, on a platform with explicit, formal, or institutionalised power or authority.

Studies show that the school of thought that promotes the focus of coping on the social environment points at social capital and is reflected in the work of Wright, et al (2013). This school of thought is what researchers refer to as the ‘fourth wave’ of resilience research, focussing on multi-level dynamics of resilience. The perspective according to Adobor (2018) supports cross-level interactions and shows how behaviours, based on capacities at different levels (micro, meso and macro) have trickling effects on the processes that contribute to stress coping and lead to resilience. It also considers the efforts of practitioners and researchers, as determined by their capacities and how they benefit from these interactive but complex structures, and the variables at different levels. These interactions also help in building understanding on where more focus should be for effective outcomes as synergy is built for inter-agency cooperation.

2.1.3 The Concept of Resilience in Relation to Coping and Social Capital

The desire of every individual or household in the aftermath of any kind of adversity is to bounce back to normal or get out of the adversity stronger than they were. Whatever the situation, the anticipated outcome is always to become resilient. Studies (Breda, 2019; Stanley et al, 2018; Luther, et al 2000) show that the concept of resilience is a very broad one. It emerged around the 1970s, but started gaining momentum in the field of research in the 90s. Early research works on the concept show how an investigation of psychopathology was carried out in children by doctors that led to a discovery that children exposed to risks did not recover at the same rate. While recovery in some were fast, it was slow in others. The discovery led to further researches to investigate the different patterns of recovery. Hence, the conceptualisation of the concept of resilience as the process between an adverse event and the outcome.

The concept of resilience has over the years appealed to researchers in different fields and disciplines, leading to further researches. While some have come to accept the concept as a holistic approach, others are of the view that it is intrinsic to individuals, and the positive functionality of individuals or systems in the face of adversity. Luther et al (2000), hold that the concept is a process characterised by constant change bound by positive adaptation within the context of great adversity. This suffice that, exposure to remarkable stress and the attainment of positive adaptation are notable. Furthermore, the protective-stabilizing (personal attributes are stabilizing forces despite increased risks to adversities), protective-enhancing (engaging the stress or adversity with self-confidence), and protective-reactive (basic benefits that come with low level of stress) factors are elements upheld here. Unger et al (2015), view the concept as a phenomenon with different sets of characteristics. That it represents the structure within which the individual faced with adversity is found, the quality of services that the individual receives, the manner in which knowledge about health is formed, these combined with the personal attributes of the individual that enable them to surmount adversity, and chart pathways to resilience.

The arguments of these scholars are tied to the socio-economic disparities found in the global north and south. That individuals in the global north are more likely to experience ‘acute and proximal-onset chronic adversity’ from natural disasters, while the experiences of conflicts, poverty and proximal-onset of adversity caused by war, natural disasters, and the combination of the three would be the likely situation of those in the global south. Therefore, it is important that outcomes of adversities are defined based on the processes of coping identified, and the constructs or what constitutes resilience, be determined by the context due to the considerable differences between the global south and north. Thus, outcomes should be measured on a continuous scale using specific

variables. These variables should be based on social context, relevance to the study and the developmental or coping stage of the study participants. Studies also show that constructs like hardiness, sense of coherence, self-efficacy are being promoted by Scholars to describe resilience processes or protective resources (Schwarzer and Warner, 2013; Streb et al., 2013; Nikolaeva and Elnikova, 2015; Scoloveno, 2018, Jakovljevic, 2018).

In the same way, we see contemporary resilience theory focussing on appreciating resilience in the confines of social systems, being engaged with issues of power and social justice for desirable and sustainable outcomes, and this justifies the linking of social capital and coping theories in this work. Other scholars (Sarra and Berman, 2017; Breda, 2019) observe that, resilience building identifies processes within network of social relationships with family, friends, colleagues, neighbours, school etc, within an individual. Hence, relational and not intrapsychic. This perspective shows the differences between support and connection. While connection is unidirectional as seen in the bonding social capital, support is bi-directional; relationship-centred and upholds the values of the African spirit of Ubuntu as sources of resilience, which is synonymous to interdependence and interconnectedness as seen in the bridging or linking social capital.

There are also researchers who have drawn their views from the foundational social work concept of the person-in-environment (PIE), to build a wholistic picture of processes of coping for building resilience (Headey and Wearing, 1988; Khachaturova, 2017). They argue that, the value of resilience is determined by the outcome, and it is the product of the interconnection between the individual and the environment (community) or social capital accumulated through interaction. Hence, coping processes can be viewed as the manner in which people faced with adversity relate or interact with their environment to become resilient. It is not just about the individual or just the environment, but the

combination of both. This school of thought also holds that, maintaining relationships is key and require social skills to produce the needed supportive responses from and for others, which leads to understanding individuals and the challenges they experience as results of adversity. That individuals and context relations are interconnected.

Furthermore, in relation to coping, Ungar et al (2015) argue that, while personal and environmental factors are important to note, achieving a positive outcome is more about individual's physical and social ecology, and capacity to enhance or push for positive outcome under stress, and not just the willingness to recover from adversity. Thus, more emphasis should be on family relations, social structures, services (welfare, health and education), and culture as the central and most powerful resources. Family can be a great support system when coping with adversities, especially where the shared bond is strong. Social structures are more like the social capitals categorised under the linking or even bridging capitals. Good examples are community development associations, religious support groups etc. These are platforms that enhance social interactions at different levels. Where health and education services are accessible and effective, people in adversity tend to cope more effectively, and recovery can also be speedy. All these contribute immensely to the quality of the social environment as determined by the different capacities they have in contributing to coping and building resilience (Wright, et al, 2013; Adobor, 2018).

According to the USAID framework of resilience in HoRN (2021), there are three basic types of capacities that emerge in every context of disturbance or adversities. At the event of every disturbance or adversity, people experience different forms of shocks that eventually lead to stress depending on the magnitude of the exposure to threats or vulnerability. The assets and resources at the disposal of these people (both internal and

external) and the strategies adopted to deal with immediate problems or meet immediate needs in reaction or response to the disturbance or adversity will determine whether they will bounce back better, just bounce back, recover but worse than they were or completely collapse. Whether they become more resilient or less resilient, that becomes the eventual outcome. These assets, resources and strategies are examples of capacities that reflect for instance at every stage of any violent conflict, and they include; absorptive/adoptive, adaptive and transformative capacities. The adoptive/absorptive capacity is the capacity that people have within them to help minimise the extent of exposure to shocks or stress, by managing stressors within a short time and recover fast. The adaptive capacity is reflected in the capacity of a community or household to take proactive steps and make informed decisions about other alternatives and livelihood strategies as determined by their changing conditions. This is also about the flexibility in responding to longer-term environmental, social or economic changes based on available human, social and economic capital or resources. It is also reflected in the ability or strategies appropriated to access or mobilise the resources required for coping. The transformative capacity is linked to control or governance mechanisms or instruments, policies/regulations, infrastructure, community networks and formal and informal safety nets that form the wider system that these communities are found (UNISDR, 2009). Note that, the external resources required is highly dependent on not just their capacity, but also on the accumulated social capital.

2.2 Context of the Violent Conflicts in Plateau State

Plateau State has suffered from recurring violent conflicts in the past two decades ranging from herders/farmers clashes, ethno-religious and socio-political, and these have exposed communities and hundreds of thousands of people to different forms of vulnerabilities including loss of lives, destruction of property, loss of means of livelihoods etc. Factors

that are deeply rooted in issues with bearings that are socio-economic, socio-religious, socio-political and in different dimensions have been seen to be responsible for these violent conflicts in Plateau State. These issues are interwoven and complex (Danfulani, 2006; ICG, 2012; Obaje, 2018; DMC, 2021).

Based on socio-economic factors and from the dimension of herders and farmers clashes, the violent conflicts can be linked to issues around global warming. One of the key effects of global warming in Nigeria is the movement of herders southward in search of good pasture for their herds, making them encroach on farmlands and consequently having farm produce destroyed. On the other hand, the increase in the demand for farm produce has made some farmers to encroach on pastureland, which usually results into clashes between farmers and herders. These experiences have been responsible for the deepening of violent conflicts between farmers and herders. From another perspective, Oghuvbu and Oghuvbu (2020) expound on the clashes between farmers and herders, as implications of population growth and on growing number of farmers, environmental degradation, rising issues around shared natural resources such as water, land, and the wide spread of Small Arms and Light Weapons (SALW) in the Sahel region and parts of West Africa. These have resulted to disputes, complicating the struggle for survival and security of economic livelihoods, with adverse effects on the connections between herders and farmers in different communities in Africa. The authors emphasise that the triggers of such conflicts are multi-causal factors, like scarce resources amidst high demand, counter- attacks, land disputes and global warming etc. In particular, they point that such conflicts in Nigeria have disintegrated the citizens and damaged the country's unity. Several scholars have also researched on how population explosion has increased food demand over the years, hence, the need to increase food production to meet the demand of the growing population (Olagunju, 2017; Gefu & Kolawole, 2002; Shettima

& Tar 2008; Ofuoku & Isife 2009; Odoh & Chigozie 2012; Adisa & Adekunle, 2010; Mwamfupe, 2015).

Outcries from helpless communities in Plateau State appear to be falling on deaf ears. For instance, a Vanguard newspaper report (Shobayo, 2017) raised concern about the continuous activities of herdsmen in *Jol of Riyom* and *Sho* in Barkin Ladi Local Government Areas of Plateau State, instigating conflicts between pastoralists and farmers in the areas. The report captures how these localities have become theatres of violent conflicts since 2008, between the migrant Fulani herdsmen and their Berom hosts who are mostly farmers. The report also recorded activities such as: the grazing of cattle in *Lambu* (farmers' dry season farm), grazing on reserved areas like ancestral graves/sacred sites of the community, frightening of farmers with violence and deaths, forceful evictions and taking over of native settlements by herdsmen who have now settled and built houses on native bush farms without considering those who were displaced from these areas, unlawful mining activities without regard for traditional institutions in place and also terrorising indigenous miners.

Bassey, et al (2021) examined how conflicts between farmers and herdsmen impact on food production, food accessibility, food stability, and food usage in the central region of Nigeria. Findings from the research (through in-depth interviews and direct observation) revealed that, clashes between farmers and herders have adversely affected food production as rural farmers cannot carry on with farming activities for fear of being attacked on farms. Consequently, there is food shortages and a looming food insecurity. The aggravating consequences overtime have been established as forced displacements, deepening poverty, lack of livelihood opportunities and an increasing rate of unemployment. These are clearly some of the characteristics of adversity.

According to Maduekwe (2018), the case in Plateau State reflects a lack of institutional capacity to regulate competing groups, and latent rivalries that spark widespread, systematic brutality. The basis of this view appears to have stemmed from the observed political and cultural dynamics, and the understanding of the roles of group concentration and conflict framing, a formulation that engenders what experts term as ‘territoriality and violence’ in the State. The Jos colonial history in tin mining, nature of migration, and the policy that defines the framework differentiating groups have modelled and intersected with the contemporary politics of ethnicity giving rise to delicate relations between Christians and Muslims.

A study (Krause, 2010) observed that there is no sincerity in the conflict resolution efforts in Plateau State, as a result, old grievances between aristocrats of the different ethnic groups have degenerated into prolonged communal squabble with strong religious dimensions. Following the violent conflicts in the urban centres, anxiety among rural dwellers and residents of small towns snowball beyond reparation. The cycles of violent conflicts in urban and rural areas of violence have strengthened different interest groups along dominant religious divide. Overtime, a lot of residents have come to appreciate these conflicts as religious contests associated with political and regional. The painful experiences of the citizens have left many highly traumatised. Inevitably, there is a deep gap in communication and loss of trust between religious communities. These tensions, accusations and counter-accusations, and segregation are hindrances to violence prevention, conflict management and peace-building efforts.

Further, Oghuvbu & Oghuvbu (2020), posit that, the government have not shown any political will to bring an end or manage the issues between herdsmen and farmers’ conflicts in Nigeria, that has made the issues to linger for too long. This is arguably a true reflection of the situation as there are records showing the negligence of government over

the implementation of recommendations from commissions of enquiry set previously to investigate the causes of the violent conflicts in Plateau State and give recommendations that will stall reoccurrence. According to Para-Mallam (2012), ‘We should note here that laudable as the Ajibola Report and its recommendations are, it is not certain if there is a Government White Paper on it yet.’

2.3 Significance of Processes and Capacities in Coping

Over the years a lot of interventions have been carried out by both state and non-state actors in Plateau State, as contributions to the processes towards recovery. Ojewale, (2021) however notes that, in spite of the numerous efforts by state and non-state actors geared at aiding households and communities to build resilience, there is no evidence of clearly supportive political effort to complement these efforts. He notes that, even with the establishment of the Plateau Peace Building Agency (PPBA) by law to respond to the challenges of peace and security in the State, in strategic partnership with state and non-state actors, there is an absence or inadequate support from government for communities affected by violent and armed conflicts, making efforts unsustainable. It is important to note here that the effectiveness of the processes determine the quality of outcome as determined by the capacity to access or mobilise required resources, not forgetting the value of the social capital of households and individuals. Strong and deliberate alliances between State and other non-state actors are crucial to these processes and will count in paving way for clarity of purpose by removing all sorts of ambiguity and duplicity for effective and quality outcomes.

The effectiveness of the processes is crucial to achieving desired and sustainable outcomes. The importance of this cannot be overstated as literature shows an overwhelming number of displaced persons in the State amidst a widening gap of poverty and unemployment where agrarian communities are being fled due to issues around

insecurity. This perhaps explains why the study of resilience is highly embraced and gaining momentum across the globe as studies show that the increasing number of black swan disasters challenging our systems across the globe and the capacity to respond has exposed how vulnerable communities can become at the snap of a finger. In recent times, development agencies and multilateral organizations like the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), North Atlantic Trade Organisation (NATO), European Union (EU), United State Agency for International Development (USAID) etc have to come to accept and recognize the importance of building resilience and making communities resilient in their approaches and strategies for development. For instance, in 2016, NATO agreed to adopt a resilience-focussed approach for building and ensuring a commendable effective system for the fulfilment of the core tasks of the alliance. The UN in a paper published in 2013, as well, described the concept of resilience as the zenith at which communities and households can endure or adapt to stress and shocks. Earlier, the UNDP in 2011 had discussed the role of resilience as key to ensuring sustainable economies in developing countries. The EU in 2016 adopted resilience as a guiding principle in its global strategy for external actions. The ideas behind these steps can be seen as opportunity to complete the picture for the management of crises and the accompanying risks, as spaces are suited for resilience. The overarching goal here is about developing robust systems and building platforms for awareness in a sustained manner. Where we are today, shows the need to begin to strengthen capacity; systems, organisations, communities and make serious commitments for fostering resilience and not just speculate or forecast risks or pay attention to drivers of adversities. It is also undeniable that that a lot have changed about the world and particularly our environment. Thus, there is a need to reflect on how we should advance. There is also a need to reflect on the required skills that would enable individuals and communities to stabilise at the

aftermath of dramatic incidences that create shocks and stresses, and strategize on ways to advance (OECD, 2014).

Building resilience means reinvigorating and invigorating international and domestic systems, and relations in ways that positive developments can be fostered. From developing transnational channels of sharing and supporting prevention and preparation strategies, communities will emerge stronger from complex crises. Development approaches that are inclusive, participatory, sustainable, transformative, and collaborative have proven over time to align well with the concept of resilience, and evidence abound in the different types of development programmes designed at different levels by state and non-state actors. When communities are able to cope, withstand, respond, and recover from a wide range of harmful and adverse situations, they are said to be resilient (OSCE, 2020). OSCE holds that achieving community resilience requires a trust-based partnership between state and non-state actors to strengthen capacity.

A trust-based approach in building partnership can provide a platform for inter-agency cooperation between service providers and communities, especially in areas that have been affected by violent and armed conflicts and also key to reducing tension and fostering healthy relationships. Areas for such cooperation can be identified in situation analysis, designing objectives and strategies, project implementation, monitoring and evaluating impact, strategic communication, advocacy and feedback mechanisms etc. It is also clear that the importance of strengthening capacity and structures to become resilient cannot be overstated. However, no meaningful outcome can be achieved without a good understanding the causes of the violent conflicts in Plateau State, impacts on households and the coping strategies adopted by these, to ascertain where the gaps are. The understanding of these gaps will be invaluable to designing and implementing future interventions.

Some capacities that can be considered in resilience building are effective systems in place. According to GFDDR (2015), robust, coordinated, redundant and reflective systems are important characteristics of capacities for resilience building, as identified under the City Strength Resilience Programme, for enhancing urban resilience. Coordinated systems and agencies can be referred to as platforms or networks for information/knowledge sharing that require strategic and collaborative planning for effective management and decision-making, anchored on investments that are mutually supportive towards a common goal/outcome.

Where there is an existing feedback loop/mechanism, the exchange of information allows for collective functioning and immediate response. The UNISDR (2012) holds that resilient is not limited to emergency preparedness and response, but that it involves the consideration of sustainability concerns of the development of communities. In this regard, the processes can be anchored on inter-agency cooperation while identifying the contributions that different actors in the humanitarian and development aid sectors can make to ensure that outcomes are sustainable and beyond the short and medium terms. This will stimulate the creation of an enabling environment, characterized by a coordinated system alongside committed leadership and strong political-will that is key for effectiveness and sustainability in helping households cope well, as there would be engagement of individuals and a stimulation of active participation of multiple stakeholders.

A redundant system also referred to as reserved capacity can serve as a back-up to accommodate extreme pressure or an increase in demand in the event of any disruption in a system. It is an interconnected system designed to increase reliability (Clarke and Holister, 2016). Hence, a redundant system aids in ensuring efficiency in periods of adversity when a belt-and-brace approach is adopted. An example of a redundant system

in this regard, is the Plateau State Contingency Plan; 2015-2019. Using a multi-sectoral approach, the Plateau State Emergency Management Agency (SEMA) in collaboration with Christian Aid (UK) and other actors in 2015 developed a contingency plan for the coordination of effective humanitarian and emergency response. The plan was developed using a multi-hazard model to accommodate predictable hazards, anchored on the mandate of the establishment of SEMA; to coordinate disaster management in Plateau State (CAID, 2019).

The reflective capacity enables communities to leverage on past experiences for learning and making informed decisions in a way that will be most beneficial to all. Studies show that resilient communities are outcomes of examination, learning, and evolution, grounded on previous experiences from coping over time. When merged with new information based on emerging evidence from what people experience, solutions are sought based on new standards or norms to reflect the present and not the status quo. To affirm these characteristics of resilience, Spilg (ND) posits that, ‘resilience is a journey and not a destination.’ Hence, be regarded as a process that should not be forced or rushed, rather, be aided.

As their contribution towards resilience building in communities and help households to cope better in times of adversity, different state and non- state actors at different levels continue to engage with communities towards meeting the targets of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), using local communities as start points. This supports the views of Vinyeta, et al (2015), that achieving resilience should start at the margins because the greatest vulnerabilities are found there, and are the most difficult to address. Resilience building is most beneficial when a bottom-up approach is adopted; from the local communities where, basic infrastructure is lacking.

Reviewing capacities, assets and resources of local communities should be a focus when designing development plans before outlining strategies for developmental plans. This way, plans will target development deficits and reduce vulnerabilities in time of disruptions or adversities. When local communities are engaged, they become empowered through the sharing and exchange of information. The possibility of these is connected to reciprocal support, information sharing, coping skills and empathy that contribute to resilience building. The emphasis here is that self-help empowers individuals to have control over themselves, their mental health, self-esteem and confidence as they journey towards recovery.

However, it is worthy of note that, self-help works with supportive environments provided by Local Government and Community assets. Thus, it is crucial to continually develop and nurture local resources. On the other hand, self-help groups should be seen as a form of social capital that contribute in creating a sense of community and interconnectedness. In all of these, the importance of strengthening links and collaboration between local communities, state and non-state actors cannot be overstated (Ziglio and Ziglio, 2018). Indeed, partnership between government and Community Based Organisations is mutually beneficial and can be scaled-up when focussing on adoptive, absorptive, and anticipatory capacities to build resilient communities.

This study builds on the ideologies of the stress coping theory and social capital theory to provide a foundation for understanding the issues and concepts in this study. The coping strategies adopted by households in the face of violent conflicts, helps them in the recovery process to build resilience. The speed of recovery or the quality of resilience, built overtime is determined by the nature or type of capacity, resources, and social capital networks available to households.

Thousands of households in Plateau State have been forcefully displaced out of their homes, as results of violent conflicts that has ravaged the state in the past two decades. A lot of interventions have been carried over the years, with so much resources seemingly going down the drain with no significant impact to show. The nature of support households require in the short, medium and long terms are not understood, and the gaps in different interventions have not been paid attention to, because empirical studies on household coping strategies that will push for policy actions are limited. A proper understanding of the experiences and impacts of the violent conflicts in Plateau State is crucial to the appreciation of the coping strategies adopted by households and key to designing and implementing effective interventions that will serve the short-, medium- and long-term development needs of the State.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

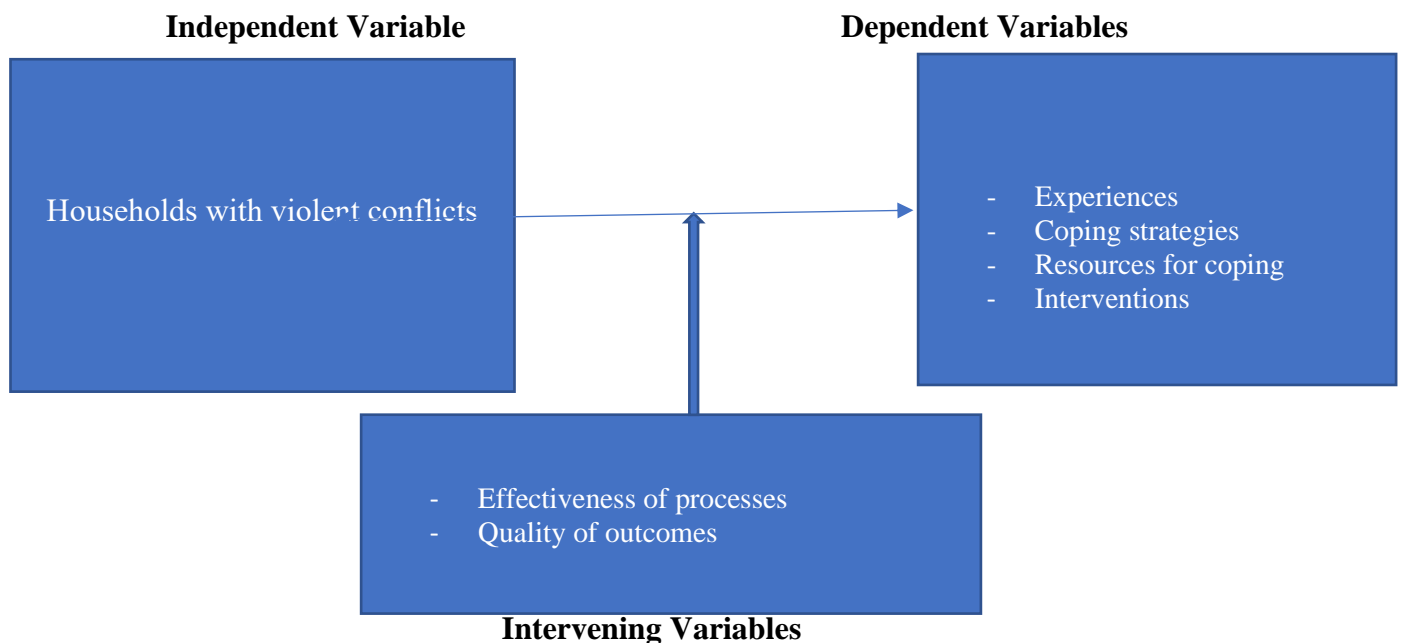


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the research methodology adopted for this study. It describes the research design, study site, population of study, sampling method used, sources of data, data collection method, data analysis method and ethical considerations followed for this study.

3.2 Research Design

This research work was built on the case study qualitative research method. A case study qualitative research is described as an empirical investigation through the examination of evidence of a person, group or unit (Given, 2008). Using the qualitative research method, the interpretivism paradigm was followed, based on the social constructivism archetype to understand the reality of the nature that is socially constructed (Bryman, 2008, Cresswell, 2009; Cresswell and Pott, 2018; Bryman and Bell, 2019). Hence, this study examined the experiences of households in relation to coping strategies adopted overtime amidst the recurring violent conflicts in Plateau State. It also examined how resources for coping are accessed or mobilised by displaced households, and the gaps impeding the effectiveness and quality of outcomes of interventions done by both state and non-state actors.

3.3 Study Site

Plateau State, Nigeria is the study site for this work. It is situated in the Central Region of Nigeria and occupies about 26,899 square km, lying at an altitude of 1,280m above sea level, between latitude 8° 24 and longitude 8°32 north and 10°32 east. The State is the 12th largest in the country, with a tropical climate and temperature of between 18°C

and 22°C. The population is about 3.5million people in 17 Local Government Areas (LGAs), with over 40 ethnic groups of people that are predominantly farmers sharing similar cultural and traditional values (Majekodunmi, et al, 2014; Plateau State Profile).

Higazi (2011) describes Jos as a pear-shaped Plateau, composed of undulating hills known as the Jos Plateau, characterised by spectacular elevations of isolated rocky-hills separated by extensive plains. The State takes its name from the high plateau that dominates its topography. Further, the author points out that, the Jos Plateau exhibits a variety of land forms possessing beautiful landscapes and enjoys a temperate climate.



Figure 3.1: Map of Plateau State showing the 17 LGAs- Source: Gyengdeng, 2020.

The enchanting scenic beauty and alluring cool weather accounts for the concentration of Westerners outside Lagos, according to the 1993 national population census figures (Danfulani, 2006). The State is one of the thirty-six States in Nigeria, situated at the geographical centre of the country, about 288km from the Federal Capital Territory of Nigeria. Jos is the capital of Plateau State, founded in 1915 as camp for tin transportation. According to the 1952 census figures, the population had 84.5% Christians, 12% Muslims

and 3.5% Traditionalists. This figure has not changed much as Jos city is about 95% Christians. However, current data shows that Plateau State as a whole is religiously mixed (Nwankwo, 2019). In a study carried out by Obaje and Okeke-Uzidike (2013), they noted that, Plateau State gained prominence in the 1940's as the 6th largest producer of tin and this drew a lot of Europeans to the State. Till date, the State enjoys a cosmopolitan outlook, and the only State that connects the southern to the northern parts of the country, hence, the inflow of immigrants from across the country.

According to Danfulani (2006), the pluralistic nature of Plateau State, coupled with the complex diversities that characterises the State are what have given rise to clashes between different ethnic and religious groups, resulting into recurring violent conflicts. He observes that, though the northerners are more inclined towards religious identification, southerners by ethnicity. Hence, identity markers in Plateau State, like other parts of Nigeria are determined by religious and ethnic affiliations.

Higazi (2011) also notes that, another factor that characterises the pluralistic nature of Plateau State is the ethno-linguistic diversity that makes this area distinctive, coupled with the process of the social development of the Plateau people and historical position in relation to other parts of northern Nigeria. This is reflected in the social attitudes, politics and life patterns, with effects on the trajectories of contemporary conflict in Plateau State. Plateau State has been largely peaceful between 1980-2000. Early warning signs of the manifestations of contentious issues between Muslim settlers and Christian indigens started emerging in the 1990s. However, the first open clash was over chieftaincy titles and farmlands in 1994. The first violent and armed conflict was registered on 7th September, 2001. Since then, Plateau State has witnessed pockets of violent conflicts. Studies reveal that socio-economic, socio-cultural, socio-political and socio-religious factors have formed both proximate and immediate causes of the violent

and armed conflicts in Plateau State (HRW, 2006; Krause, 2010). Obaje and Okeke-Uzidike (2013) argue that, though the violent and armed conflicts in Plateau State have often been attributed to religious crises, a critical and in-depth review reflects otherwise. The interplay of identity politics, religious intolerance, ethnic rivalry, unhealthy competition over economic and shared natural resources have been identified as conflict drivers in the State and these account for the recurring clashes, loss of lives, property, and means of livelihoods sustenance.

3.4 Population of the Study

The study population for this research were internally displaced persons in Plateau State. Thus, 36 heads of households in 3 Local Government Areas (Bassa, Barkin-Ladi and Riyom). The number for the representation is based on scholarly recommendations given for qualitative data collection like in-depth interviews factoring the manageability of data during analysis (Seale, et al, 2004; Choudrie and Dwivedi, 2005; Yin, 2009). The choice for the three LGAs is based on the premise that these LGAs are the hardest hit in terms of violent conflicts in Plateau State and have most of the internally displaced persons in the State. The unit of analysis are Heads of households targeting displaced persons.

3.5 Sampling Method

This constitutes the basis or standard that qualifies a sample to be studied or chosen. In qualitative studies, different types of sampling criterion can be adopted (Given, 2008). Hence, this study adopted a non-probability sampling strategy, using the purposive sampling technique to meet with the predetermined criterion relevant for this study, research questions and objectives (Oates, 2006). Thus, heads of households as captured on the database of internally displaced persons in the State was a predetermined criterion for sample selection of this study. Their participation in the study was based on their

convenience. The justification for the sample size is tied to the features of qualitative studies, hence, the purposive sampling technique. Using the snowball technique of sampling, new participants were recruited in the course of the study as the need arose, based on referral to get potential participants.

These categories of persons were specifically selected because they have been displaced as results of the recurring violent conflicts in the State. The key informants for the interviews were experts within the development and humanitarian aid sectors, Local Government officials, religious and Community leaders. The inputs of these categories of people are considered to be invaluable and crucial to the study because of their experiences and the perceptions they have developed as a result of their engagements with different communities. The choice of the chosen techniques enabled the researcher to explore and engage the part of the population that appear elusive (Given, 2008). It is also to ensure that the most relevant data for the study is not left out but properly captured and not left to chance, in meeting the objectives set for this study.

3.6 Data Source

Data sources for this study were both primary and secondary sources, given the data needs as reflected in the research questions. The secondary data source provided the background facts through a careful review of existing literature that set the tone for the primary research as determined by the knowledge gaps in the existing literature. The secondary data also provided a focus for the study and determined the nature of data to be collected primarily for the study (Hewitt and Craner, 2007).

This research work also generated secondary data from journal articles, scholarly books, reports from newspapers, seminal and conference papers, and data bases of different organizations working in the development and humanitarian aid sectors, in relation to

humanitarian crises; violent conflicts, and building of resilient communities. Primary data was collected from the study participants in the selected study sites using qualitative data collection techniques.

3.7 Data Collection

The importance of data collection in every research cannot be overstated, as it forms the basis and gives a focus for addressing knowledge gap that the study intended to fill. According to Bryman (2011), 'it is the gathering of data from the sample so that research question can be answered. 'Best and Khan (2009), aver that, when data collected is not accurate, the study will be negatively affected and efforts and resources put into it will amount to waste. Hence, it is very important that researchers are meticulous with the process of data gathering. It is also worth noting that qualitative data collection methods are usually characterized by an exchange between people; the researcher and the research participants (Given, 2008). This means that qualitative data collection methods take the form of conversation between the researcher and the participants of the study to elicit important points or information. Example of such methods include in-depth interviews, focus group discussions or key informant interviews.

Granted, generation of data in qualitative study is depth-oriented. Accordingly, the nature of inquiry here follows a methodological, epistemological, theoretical and ideological pluralism, as a guarantee for efficiency of data. Qualitative studies involve inductive and emergent processes in seeking to comprehend the phenomenon under study. Thus, the focus on the use of 'what', 'why' and 'how'. Therefore, a consideration of a smaller sample (compared to quantitative study), to ease and enhance the manageability, credibility and validity of data during analysis (Seale, et al, 2004; Choudrie and Dwivedi, 2005; Yin, 2009).

Putting into consideration factors like social, cultural and physical contexts within which these participants live or work, the researcher focused on the meaning and behaviours as conveyed by the participants in such settings. It is against this background that both primary and secondary data was sourced, using the interview technique of data collection to explore the research questions, through in-depth interviews and supported by focused group discussions and key informant interviews, using interview schedule guides and semi-structured questionnaires. The interview technique of data collection gave room for face-to-face interaction with respondents/study participants, using open-ended questions that allowed for free flow of conversation where participants spoke about lived experiences and coping strategies adopted over time (Oates, 2006; Given, 2008; Bryman, 2012). This was made possible through in-person conversation or cellular calls and immediate responses gotten and recorded. Hanson (2008), in support of this technique avers that it is one of the most effective ways of gathering or collecting descriptive and comprehensive data, because questions were be reframed and repeated for clearer understanding of the research participant.

Furthermore, since the understanding of this study is critical to meeting the study objectives, an interview schedule was developed prior to the interviews (Oates, 2006; Saunders et al, 2009; Pandey and Pandey, 2015). The schedule aided in eliciting detailed responses based on the research questions drawn. Data was collected through in-depth interviews, focused group discussions (FGDs) and key informant interviews (KIIs).

In-depth interview is defined as a qualitative research strategy that involves carrying out intensive interviews with individuals to explore their perspectives on specific issues based on lived experiences. Also referred to as ‘qualitative interview’, this strategy helped the researcher explore the thoughts of the respondent and the contextual depths of

the issues under study to confirm other data collected (Mac, et al, 2005; Boyce and Neale, 2006). Hence, this study held 12 in-depth interviews in each of the selected LGA, bringing the total to 36 in-depth interviews, targeting heads of households in the study areas.

To supplement the data from the in-depth interviews, participants were drawn from the general adult population for Focused Group Discussions (FGDs) within each of the study areas. This is a qualitative data collection technique of interview that allowed the researcher to serve as a facilitator of the conversation/dialogue with a group of purposively selected study participants, using open questions from unstructured interview guide. According to Bryman (2008), group-based settings make study participants feel at ease and comfortable to freely share their view and experiences. The setting made it possible to have people with similar experiences and interests grouped together. This gave an understanding of varied perspectives simultaneously on same theme. It also helped in identifying contrasting views, receiving acknowledgements and confirming or seeking clarification on specific themes. The strategy adopted the use of open questions to seek from participants in a group, information or understanding about specific situations or events experienced by them in relation to the issue under study (Bryman, 2012). This research had three sessions of focused group discussions, with 6-15 persons in each session. The decision on this number is borne from the suggestion of Morgan, cited in Bryman (2012), for a typical sample size for a group, as the average or mean observed from several studies. Also, each of the group is a representation of the population size from each of the study site selected.

To supplement data received from the other techniques of qualitative data collection, KIIs were also used to gather perspectives and contributions from experts. KIIs means Key

Informant Interviews. This is also a qualitative research strategy or technique that aids in exploring the depth of a subject or issue being studied. Outcomes of KIIs often lead to the discovery of new information that would not have been gotten through other sources or strategies. This form of interview can be a less structured (semi-structured) conversation with people who have unique or expert or specialized knowledge about the issue or subject under study (Marshall, 1996; Ibeh, 2018). Key informants for this study were drawn from the humanitarian and development aid sectors, religious leaders, government officials at different levels. According to Bryman (2012) the concept of the semi-structured interview covers a wide range of instances, typically referring to contexts where the researcher has a number of questions captured in the form of general interview guide without necessarily following the sequence of questions. Here, the researcher usually may have other scopes or flexibility to ask further or follow-up questions as feedbacks from important responses.

Following the blue-print designed for this study's paradigm, methods and process described previously and using the instruments designed for this study, research participants were duly informed and dates, time and venues were collectively agreed on. At the beginning of each session, research participants were duly informed about of the study objectives. Their consents were secured for interview and recording before starting each interview/discussion.

3.8 Data Analysis

This study adopted the thematic analysis type of qualitative data analysis method by generating codes, based on the themes identified from the secondary data in the literature review (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Subsequently, the identified themes were extracted

through comparison within the themes that emerged from the literature review and also across the collected data until analytic codes relevant to the whole data set emerged.

Using analytic framework, (Yin, 2009), common themes were brought together to form a general code. These were created based on their relevance to study objectives. Synthesizing the literature was done in relation to the theoretical background of the study. Hence, the significance of each theme identified was tied to the literature review and how it is linked to the area of study. The strategy used included coding, categorization and then comparison for the generation of themes. The process commenced with highlighting specific relevant information, identifying the patterns that emerged, contextualizing with literature framework and displaying findings (Wolcott, cited in Bryman and Bell, 2019).

The qualitative analysis process followed is the thematic method, based on participants experiences, processes and resources for coping, and the gaps observed in the processes, using the study's frameworks; theoretical and conceptual. The emergent themes from the data set strengthened the features that are noteworthy, though not considered at the initial stages of the study. Previous works (Pope, et al, 2006; Burnard, 2008; McGrath and Pistrang, 2007; and McMillan, 2009) categorised the thematic analytical methods as deductive and inductive approaches, and the application of these were done differently. However, this study referred to and followed the thematic analytical process identified in the works of Cassell et al, 2006; McGrath and Pistrang, 2007; Braun and Clarke, 2006; and Alammar, 2016. The generation of themes followed a deductive approach, grounded on the predetermined framework of the study, theoretical and structural concepts to analyse the transcripts from the interviews conducted. The justification for the adopted approach is to seek to understand the reasons responsible for the responses received (Burnard, et al, 2008). The transcripts for the interviews were analysed following the

principles and techniques of qualitative analysis, thus; transcription of interviews, translating the parts in Hausa and Berom languages, reading to make meaning out of the texts, and attempts aimed at reducing errors to enhance understanding of expressed views of interviewees were made. These was followed by the generation of themes, categorised and aggregated as ideas or codes.

The operationalisation and measurement of variables ensured that all concepts or variables were reduced to recognisable terms or concepts. Thus, State actors and non-State actors in this study refers to government and non-governmental bodies responsible for developmental and humanitarian projects or interventions in the State. While interventions are projects, strategies or activities (distribution of food items, finance, toiletries, rebuilding of destroyed house, scholarship, livelihood support, capacity building etc), planned and carried out by different actors (State and non-state) at different levels to reduce the vulnerability of households displaced by the recurring violent conflicts in the State. Interventions are designed with the aim of enhancing coping capacity, through processes that contribute to building resilience in communities. The study adopted the research instrument from previously validated scale of Mohajan (2017) and Elias, (2023), for control of biases in qualitative studies, and ensuring reliability and validity. For the responses from the 4th item on the instrument, a scale of 1 -5 was adopted, with 5 being the highest and 1 the lowest; ‘how would you rate the effectiveness of interventions by various actors in supporting internally displaced persons?’ The responses were structured on a five-point Likert scale; 1 represented strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-somewhat agree, 4 -agree, and 5- strongly agree.

		Frequency	Percent
Gender:	Male	20	55.6

	Female	16	44.4
	Total	36	100.0
Educational Qualification:	Basic	4	11.1
	Secondary	19	52.8
	Tertiary	12	33.3
	Others	1	2.8
	Total	36	100.0
Occupation:	Teaching	4	11.1
	Carpentry	1	2.8
	Farming	17	47.2
	Nursing	1	2.8
	Hairdressing	2	5.6
	Tailoring	3	8.3
	Business	5	13.9
	Civil Servant	2	5.6
	Technician	1	2.8
	Total	36	100.0
Local Government	Bassa	12	33.3
	B/Ladi	9	25.0
	Riyom	12	33.3
	No Response	3	8.3
Total	36	100.0	
Religion:	Christianity	36	100.0
	Total	36	100

Table 3.1: Demographic Data Gender, Education, Occupation, LGA, & Religion

Table 1 reveals the profile of the respondents who took part in the in-depth interviews. As table 1 shows, 55.6% of the respondents were male. While female respondents accounted for 44.4%. Also, the respondents in the study were mostly (52.8%) secondary school certificate holders, followed by those with tertiary qualifications at 33.3%.

	Age	Size of Household
N (Valid)	36	36
Mean	46.4444	7.1111
Median	46.5000	7.0000
Mode	32.00 ^a	5.00 ^a
Range	35.00	14.00
Minimum	32.00	3.00
Maximum	67.00	17.00

Table 3.2: Age and Household- Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Average age of the respondents is 46 years which corresponds with the median age. Similarly, the most frequent age of the respondents is 32 years

3.9 Ethical Considerations

There was strict adherence to all ethical protocols through all the stages of the study. Study participants were informed prior to the meetings and their consent and approval sought before publicising the content of the study. They were also made to understand that they are free to withdraw when they do not feel comfortable any longer.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is about the presentation of the findings and the discussion of the same. The first part is the introduction, followed by the presentation of the findings. The presentation of findings is guided by the three research questions of the study: how have households been impacted by the violent conflicts in Plateau State? how have households been able to access or mobilise resources for coping from State and non-state actors? and, what are the gaps in the different types of interventions implemented by state and non-state actors?

4.2 Impact of Violent Conflicts on Households

To explore the impact of violent conflicts on households in Plateau State, the study sought to understand the experiences of households with violent conflicts. The findings reveal that, most incidences of the violent conflicts experienced occur at the wee hours of the day. Often, households are taken unawares and unguarded. Hence, the level of havoc wreaked is always high. This suffices that, the recurring and devastating nature of the violent conflicts in Plateau State has negatively impacted on households in affected communities in lots of ways. Evidences abound on the killings, and destruction of houses, leading to displacements of people fleeing for safety. Specifically, these displacements have negatively affected family life, health, education, livelihoods, social cohesion, and government development plans. What follows is an overview of some of the impacts of violent conflicts as documented by the study.

4.2.1. Loss of lives and property

The recurring violent conflicts in Plateau State has led to loss of lives of thousands of people. According to a key informant:

‘It is difficult to get the actual statistics of lives lost, displaced households and destroyed properties because of the recurrent nature of the violence. For example, there is hardly a week that passes without killings and destruction of properties in Riyom LGA, making locals count losses of assets; both material and social resources, almost daily. These are the reflections in all the districts’.¹

This affirms a newspaper report by Shobayo (2017), about concerns raised on violent clashes in Riyom and Barkin- Ladi LGAs of Plateau State, between pastoralists and farmers. The report reveals how communities have turned into theatres of violent conflicts since 2008, resulting to forceful displacements and land-grabbing of native settlements by herdsmen who have now taken over the space, engaging in unlawful mining activities without regard for traditional institutions in place and also terrorising indigenous farmers and miners.

4.2.2. Impact on family life, children’s growth and development

As a result of displacements, a lot families in the affected communities are separated due to the unfavourable conditions households have found themselves over the years. During a focus group discussion in Riyom, responses from participants reveal that children have

¹ Key Informant 06, interviewed on 12th July, 2023

been at the receiving end of these conflicts, as they continue to grow without parental love, bonding, and family values.² A respondent in this study who is a teacher by profession and farmer, from *Jol*, now resident in *Farin Lamba* of Jos South LGA, narrates that:

‘My wife and I had to resolve to send our four kids to different relatives in the metropolitan city of Jos. It was a difficult situation, but the only solution to securing the future of our children, due to the uncertainties we were faced with. The youngest of the 4 kids was barely 11 years old at the time and just started secondary school. Painfully, he was just starting the puberty stage and needed all forms of support and guidance at that complex stage of life. Even after the violence subsided, it was difficult for us to reunite and continue living as a family as most teachers did not want to continue working in the community schools since there was no guaranteed security. My children have spent most part of their lives with foster parents to be able to acquire good and quality education.’³

The story of this man is just one, among many similar experiences. Empirical studies around family life in relation to the violent conflicts in Plateau State is limited. Children need proper nurturing to grow into healthy and confident adults. The family provides all that, and where such is lacking, the society ends up with weak and demoralised adults,

² Focus Group Discussion, Riyom, on 21st July, 2023

³ Head of household RY07, interviewed on 19th July, 2023

with no motivation to live to full potential and enablement to meaningfully contribute to societal growth and development. According to a key informant:

‘Incidences of violent conflicts have turned a lot of children into orphans, some have turned street-children, there are also a lot of children becoming burden bearers for the younger ones where both parents have been killed. They drop out of school to engage in menial jobs to cater for their well-being and make ends meet. Others end up in drug and substance abuse, a menace eating deep into the fabric of our society. They are the ones being used by politicians and conflict merchants as thugs and miscreants in our communities. Because they grow lacking of parental care and love, they become so unruly. Such people have nothing to lose, so they do not care about the pains or injuries they inflict on others’.⁴

Empirical studies have found a strong link between the violence conflicts in Plateau State and drug use among young people (Adama, 2022; MCN, 2022).

4.2.3. Dealing with trauma

The study also found that the level of trauma among displaced households is significantly high. Most households in the IDP camps or host communities have lost a biological relation or next-door neighbour. Some have witnessed the gruesome killing of someone or at least seen a mutilated human body of someone they know or related with closely. A survivor in Nghar recounts that: ‘as a result of all the frightening things I have

⁴ Key Informant 01, interviewed on 30th May, 2022

experienced, I keep having nightmares and flashes of all the scenes I have witnessed. Sometimes, I find myself crying for no reason.’⁵ Stories of losses are often traumatising, how much more for a person who experiences these directly. A farmer in Gashish, shared that:

‘A week before my scheduled harvest activities in 2018, my 10 hectares of maize farm was destroyed into complete ruins by herdsmen. I still struggle with flashes from that incident, and find it difficult to believe it actually happened. I had invested so much and just when we planned the harvest, the enemy struck and everything just went down the drain. Thinking about this causes me so much pain. For a while, I lost myself, I couldn’t eat or do anything, and felt it was better I just die. Because of all these, I became hypertensive. Life has never been the same. I have not been able to access my farm since 2018 due to insecurity. Most of the lands around there have turned to grazing fields. In fact, it is by grace that I am still living.’⁶

The above also reflects the report (Shobayo, 2017) about grazing activities by pastoralists on farms (Lambu), reserved areas like ancestral graves/sacred sites of host communities, frightening of farmers with violence and deaths; forceful evictions and taking over of local settlements. Krause (2010) points out on how the violent conflicts in Plateau State have left residents traumatised.

⁵ Head of household BL01, interviewed on 15th June, 2023

⁶ Head of household BL09, interviewed on 16th June, 2023

4.2.4. Strained relationships between the parties of interest

This study found how relationships got strained between parties of interest in the recurring violent conflicts in Plateau State even as economic activities in communities are adversely affected. A Key Informant observed that:

‘Prior to the conflicts, citizens were engaged in different forms of economic activities that were mutually beneficial to the parties of interest in these conflicts without barriers. Now with loss of access to certain areas, these engagements have ceased. For instance, herders usually go up to certain areas with very rich vegetation to graze their cattle, and farming activities were carried out without hitches. In fact, the relationship between herders and farmers was symbiotic; farmers get cattle dung from herders to enrich the soil on their farms. In turn, herders get field residues (stalks and stubble) to feed their cattle. They also depended on the farmers for the millet used in preparing *fura* (millet dough) that is usually mixed with *nono* (fermented cow milk). *Fura da nono* (*fura and nono*) is a common meal among the Fulani nomads; an ethnic group dominant in the Sahel region of Africa. However, due to the violent conflicts, trust and confidence have been lost and parties now live in perpetual suspicion of each

other. The animosity between these groups only worsens by the day and several mediation efforts appear futile'.⁷

Empirical studies corroborate the above, with authors pointing that though the triggers of the violent conflicts are multi-causal factors such as scarce resources amidst high demand, counter- attacks, land disputes and global warming etc. The resultant effects are disintegration, negatively impacting the fabric of social cohesion among citizens, and damaging the country's unity (Olagunju, 2017; Gefu & Kolawole, 2002; Shettima & Tar 2008; Ofuoku & Isife 2009; Odoh & Chigozie 2012; Adisa & Adekunle, 2010; Mwamfupe, 2015). A study by Krause (2010) also points how the cycles of violence continue to strengthen different interest groups along dominant religious divide.

4.2.5 Dealing with displacements

Due to the recurring nature of the conflicts, there have been series of displacements. A farmer and business man in Riyom recalls that:

'The first set of displaced households in Riyom were registered in January 2002, an aftermath of the September 2001 violent conflicts in Jos. From that time, with every incidence of violent attack on local communities, resulting in the destruction of houses and other sources of livelihoods, a record of displacement follows. Communities like *Attakad* and *Rakweng*, are still deserted because of the magnitude of such attacks. Others like Rim, Jol, Kwi, have households who live in perpetual fear of

⁷ Key Informant 08, interviewed on 13th July, 2023

being attacked by ‘unknown gunmen’, even as most households remain displaced and scattered within Riyom town, Jos North and South LGAs’.⁸

The highlight here is that those who end up victims or survivors of violence around the study sites, are often unconnected or oblivious of the proximate cause of the violence. For instance, a participant in this study said:

‘The violent attacks in *Attakad* community, started as a result of cattle rustling in Kaura LGA⁹, and escalated into the *Attakad* community in March, 2013. Though the security swayed into action immediately, and ensured that the criminals were apprehended, normalcy returned, but life never remained the same for residents’.¹⁰

Another survivor recounts that:

‘Though the police apprehended the culprits of the cattle rustled, we continued to live in fear as rumours about impending attacks kept flying. In late March 2014, we learnt that we had been ambushed, so the security addressed us and created an exit route for us, through the hills to Manchok (a small town in Kaduna State). They assisted some of our women and children to safety, while

⁸ Head of household RY01, interviewed on 19th July, 2023

⁹ Kaura LGA is located in Kaduna State, it borders Plateau State, by the West. For more details see: https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Map-of-Kaura-Local-Government-Area-showing-the-districts-location-of-the-sampling-sites_fig2_41834455

¹⁰ Head of household RY12, interviewed on 20th July, 2023

some us (mostly men) remained to watch over the community. Eventually, the community was hit by an attack that had some houses destroyed, we had to leave on foot, through the hills to Manchok on 2nd April 2014 as security forces left our community. Till date, our people are still scattered around Manchok, Kaura, and Kuru, Bukuru and Jos metropolis.’¹¹

In Miango district of Bassa LGA, data gathered through FGDs reveal that: there are households that got displaced in Dundu, Nkiedonwhro, Te’egbe, Ancha, Nkedorong, and Zirshe villages on 14th March, 2018; 8th August, 2021; 26th November, 2021; 13th January and 22nd February 2022, accordingly. Most of these households are still displaced; living with host families or rented spaces in Jebbu Miango or parts of Jos North LGA.¹²

An FGD in Barkin Ladi show that between 23rd and 24th June 2018, there was an attack that claimed over 200 lives and property worth hundreds of millions of naira destroyed, in over 20 communities of Barkin Ladi LGA.¹³ The issue of displacements as result of violent conflicts is further amplified by data from a key informant:

‘All the districts in my domain have been affected by the recurring violent conflicts, with Gashish district being the most affected, where households in over 20 communities are still displaced. People in Gana Ropp, Kwi, Dorowan Babuje, Lobiring etc cannot return to their homes, as their

¹¹ Head of household RY08, interviewed on 20th July, 2023

¹² Focused Group Discussion Bassa, on 1st June, 2023

¹³ Focused Group Discussion Barkin-Ladi, 17th June, 2023

houses have been completely burnt, including mine, that is why you found me here'.¹⁴

Some households have experienced multiple displacements, as a respondent recalls how they got displaced on 7th July, 2012 in Ratatis, then moved to Nghar, until they were violently attacked again on 28th June 2018. According to him:

'We were attacked in the night by unknown gunmen who killed quite a number of persons, set our homes ablaze and ensured that all cars belonging to locals were equally burnt. Everything happened so fast, and mobility was very difficult for us. We hid in the bushes and travelled on foot for days until we found ourselves in the IDP camp in Ban¹⁵ where we met other survivors of the attacks from other villages camping'.¹⁶

A key Informant noted that:

'Survivors of these attacks were displaced and camped in about 17 different camps within Barkin-Ladi town and Jos South LGA. These camps were set up through joint efforts of the search and rescue teams of both State and non-State Actors; NEMA, SEMA, Red Cross society, EPRT etc. The actors were instrumental in evacuating households stuck in bushes and hills, where they were hiding for safety, assessing the immediate needs of the displaced persons,

¹⁴ Key Informant 04, interviewed on 3rd July, 2023

¹⁵ Ban is an outskirt settlement in Barkin Ladi, for more details see:

<https://nga.postcodebase.com/node/50719>

¹⁶ Head of household BL03, interviewed on 16th June, 2023

and attending to the medical needs of the injured. Rapid assessments were also carried out to determine the kind of aid or resources to be mobilised. In spite of all these efforts across board, the facilities and provisions at the camps got overwhelmed in no time, by the large number of displaced households, as mobilised resources were grossly inadequate. Over time, the facilities at the camp started deteriorating, subjecting households to different forms of health concerns. Those who had the means moved out of the camps after a few days, others weeks and even months, to rent homes whilst others moved in with relations and friends within the different host communities, stretching into the urban centres and settlements such as Heipang, Ban, Kassa, Kuru, Mararaban Jama'a, Anguldi, etc. The majority of households remained in the camps until they were moved out by the government back to their communities in December 2019'.¹⁷

Confirmed reports by community sources however show that, no arrangement for security and shelter was made for these households, thus, they still found their way back to their host communities and families, as this respondent puts it:

'We were happy when the government said they were closing the IDP camps and resettling households. They got trucks to move us out to our homes, but we could not

¹⁷ Key Informant 06, interviewed on 12th July, 2023

remain there because there were no clear plans for rebuilding our homes that are still in ruins and our security was not guaranteed. We are still renting houses in this community'.¹⁸

There are a lot of empirical studies on displacements, and the above outcries by displaced households only confirms the situation. For instance, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC, 2021), records that there were about one hundred and sixty-nine thousand displacements in Nigeria at the end of 2020, bringing the total to two million, seven hundred and thirty thousand (2,730,000) people, and about fifty-five million people worldwide. Danfulani (2006) and Higazi (2011) in separate studies have captured how clashes between farmers and herders have led to the destruction of homes in Plateau State, rendering thousands of people in the affected locations homeless and internally displaced in different camps and communities, where host communities and families bear the brunt amidst harsh economic realities.

4.2.6. Impact on education

Data generated from the experiences of households show how it has become increasingly difficult for households to cope well, especially for those whose means of livelihoods have been completely destroyed. Several study participants observed that education in their communities have suffered great setbacks due to the recurring violent conflicts. A lot of school children have stopped schooling. Parents become more focused in meeting the immediate household needs such as food, water, shelter, clothing etc. Funding children/wards' education has become luxury, hence a secondary need. Even health is

¹⁸ Head of household BL06, interviewed on 15th June, 2023

prioritised over education to take care of the different health challenges that come with displacements. Households who were once comfortable have turned squatters and completely dependents on host families/communities. Farmers who were commercial farmers hitherto the eruptions of the violent conflicts have turned into subsistence farmers on loaned or rented farmlands, having barely what can take care of their needs, as their farms remain inaccessible.¹⁹

Responses from different study participants reveal that the high level of insecurity has turned most of communities such as *Rakweng* and *Attakad* into Ghost towns, as they remain inhabitable. Where there are a fewer people still left in places such as Gana Ropp, Nghar, Kwi, Jol, educational institutions do not thrive well.²⁰ A study participant in Barkin- Ladi avers that:

‘There is a very low morale among teachers in most affected communities due to the security concerns. A lot of them have sought to be transferred to safer areas. Hence, most of the school structures have deteriorated, and in dilapidated state due to long periods of non-use. Consequently, the school enrolment and retention rate has drastically dropped as reflected in the rising number of out of school children’.²¹

¹⁹ Head of household BL07, interviewed on 16th June, 2023

¹⁹ Head of household BS12, interviewed on 31st May, 2023

¹⁹ Head of household RY05, interviewed on 19th July, 2023

²⁰ Head of household RY01, interviewed on 19th July, 2023

²⁰ Head of household RY04, interviewed on 19th July, 2023

²⁰ Head of household RY08, interviewed on 20th July, 2023

²⁰ Head of household RY12, interviewed on 20th July, 2023

²¹ Head of household BL02, interviewed on 15th June, 2023

Empirical evidence around the impact of the violent conflict in Plateau State on education confirms the above. All the factors responsible for the recurring violent conflicts in Plateau State continue to serve as hindrance to the development of education in the State. In 2018, the University of Jos was shut twice as a result of violent conflicts (Adetayo, 2022; Kenter, 2023). According to Agas (2022), affected children are lagging behind their peers, due to setbacks in access to education, with about 335,865 out of school children in Plateau state.

4.3 Accessing and Mobilizing Resources

To understand how households have been able to access or mobilise resources for coping, the study examined the capacity of households, nature of support received from both state and non-state actors, adaptation and transformative capacity to determine the level of coping. As theorised by Lazarus and Folkman, findings here reflect what the second stage of the transactional/interactional model depicts. Interaction with study participants reveal that coping strategies adopted by households amidst violent conflict is greatly determined by the resources available to them to move from adversity to resilience or increased vulnerability. This confirms the postulation of the theorists that individuals at the secondary stage, evaluate and consider the best strategies to adopt in coping with the adversity, their coping capacities and resources available to them, internally or externally. What remains critical however, is the general expectation to have better outcomes that are effectively sustainable in cushioning the effects of the adversity, ameliorating the plight of those affected, particularly the most vulnerable households. Interviews with research participants in respect to mobilising resources for enhancing coping generated several themes.

4.3.1. Capacity for coping

Findings in this study reveal that, in considering strategies for coping, households come together as a community to identify and evaluate the losses, areas of strengths and weaknesses and how to leverage on opportunities found during these adverse moments. For instance, in Shunong, a house that was not badly destroyed housed a number of persons for a period of time until the families were able to find safer spaces within Riyom town or rebuild their homes. Retrospectively, a study participant in Riyom observed that: ‘over the years, the experiences of households in volatile communities have developed their appraisal skills to be able to understand certain early warning signs and how to respond to these accordingly using available resources in their immediate environment.’²² This shows that, over time households have learnt a lot from their experiences. Another participant noted that, they have adapted different strategies for coping depending on what happens at any given time. For example, communities use non-verbal cues in sending signals about impending attacks. Decisions on whether to escape or defend selves are determined by the outcome of appraisal, details of which are often left discrete. The agrarian backgrounds of locals too cannot be overlooked. They understand and can easily identify what plants can be consumed even as raw food.²³

The process in developing this coping capacity reflects the work of Fletcher et al (2013), in the Pacific Islands countries, through a qualitative study exploring the adaptive capacity of communities, and how the concept of the person-in-environment (PIE) in social works aims at building a holistic picture, through processes of coping, contributing to resilience building in communities (Headey and Wearing, 1988; Khachaturova, 2017). These appear in the different types of strategies adopted by households in ensuring that a

²² Head of household RY02, interviewed on 19th July, 2023

²³ Head of household BL08, interviewed on 17th June, 2023

holistic outcome is achieved in the long run, by adopting different forms strategies periodically, as determined by the situation.

4.3.2. The role of the Church

From this theme, findings reflect the postulation in the concept of social capital as promoted in the works of several scholars, (Robert Putnam, 1993, 2008; Coleman, 1988; Bourdieu, 1994; Bourdieu, 2001) in research and policy. The social capital theory promotes the notion that social networks are valuable resources of great advantage to households where platforms built over the years (in this case the Church) are used to produce certain benefits to households based on the relationships built over time.

Data generated through in-depth interviews shows that, in Barkin-Ladi, most of the camps that existed were located within Church premises (Ban, Heipang, Kassa, Rawurung, Pwomol, Kworos), because the households affected by the violent conflicts are households in Christian strongholds that the Church recognises as part of them. A number of study participants observed that, the Church have been instrumental in mobilising different forms of supports for households displaced in their domains. Water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH), food non-food items, and psychosocial support are the different forms of resources mobilised to enhance coping by displaced households. Other forms of resources mobilised for support include food, shelter for displaced households during difficult moments.²⁴ This goes to show how the two concepts; stress coping and social capital theory complement each other in enhancing resilience among displaced

²⁴ Head of household RY01, interviewed on 19th July, 2023

²⁴ Head of household RY09, interviewed on 20th July, 2023

²⁴ Head of household BS03, interviewed on 30th May, 2023

communities. It further justifies how integrated approaches to interventions can yield effective and sustainable outcomes.

4.3.3. Beliefs and ideologies

In this theme, the Person-in-environment (PIE) concept, promoted in social works that brings into account one's immediate environment and the individual being a major factor in the building of resilience. It is argued here that, the outcome of any coping strategy adopted is the product of the relationship between the individual (households) and the environment, through interaction (built social capital). Here, the emphasis remains in the individual (households) and everything surrounding households (Headey and Wearing, 1988; Khachaturova, 2017).

Through in-depth interviews, the study finds that, the local culture and traditions of communities (environment) play a role in the manner in which resources are mobilised to enhance coping. For instance, a Key Informant points that:

‘The beliefs and ideologies of a people always have a way of imparting their lives. Hence, the understanding of the immediate surroundings and meanings attached to certain concepts, ideologies and locations within the local settings and the cultural underpinnings, contribute to shaping certain values and attributes among households in local communities which have immensely contributed in enhancing coping capacity of households’.²⁵

To corroborate this, a respondent explained that:

²⁵ Key Informant 09, interviewed on 26th July, 2023

‘From our history, it is strongly believed that (particularly among the traditionalists), there are caves and rocks that are protective spaces in our community, because the spirits of the fathers reside there or they are worship sites. During attacks, we make our women and children run into such spaces for safety, while the *Suga* (the men/warriors) watch over the community. We also believe strongly that there are bodies of water that an enemy never crosses, but locals or people of goodwill have nothing to fear about such. All these have helped us in coping and reducing our vulnerabilities as a community, perhaps our communities would have been completely wiped out by now’.²⁶

In similar manner, participants affirm that, faith and believe in God, and the fellowship spirit shared as Christians have eased the pains and burdens of losing loved ones, means of livelihoods etc. These have also helped them stay united and remain part of each other’s burdens, pains and hopes. These reveal the strong complementary roles played by both social capital and stress coping theories, in enhancing the coping capacities of households displaced by the violent conflicts in Plateau State.²⁷

²⁶ Head of household BL09, interviewed on 17th July, 2023

²⁷ Head of household BS08, interviewed on 31st May, 2023

²⁷ Head of household BS11, interviewed on 19th July, 2023

²⁷ Head of household BL04, interviewed on 16th June, 2023

²⁷ Head of household BL11, interviewed on 17th June, 2023

²⁷ Head of household RY03, interviewed on 19th July, 2023

²⁷ Head of household RY09, interviewed on 20th July, 2023

4.3.4. Traditional Institutions

This study found a very good picture of the social capital theory; bridging and linking at play in this theme of traditional institutions, which is very strong in rural Plateau communities, strengthened by the centralised leadership systems, within which it operates to contribute to the processes of coping. For instance, there is the District Head, followed by the Village Head and then the Ward Head in that order, responsible for not only leading and taking decisions on behalf of the people, but also reaching out to benefactors and benefactresses, systems and structures to mobilise different forms of resources. In view of this, a Key Informant explained that:

‘In the event of any breakdown of law and order or emergency situations, the Ward Heads report to the Village Heads, who in turn report to the District Head. The District Head who has direct link and access to different authorities acts accordingly. Where he needs to summon his subjects, he does that to manage the situation. This makes coordination and administration inclusive and seamless. In the same manner, the traditional institutions plan and coordinate humanitarian activities at their own level and seek ways of managing emergency situations and stand in solidarity with displaced households in times of such emergencies. They play different kinds of supportive roles; mobilising resources both internally and externally such as

food, shelter, clothing, toiletries etc and mobilise external resources that will enhance coping’.²⁸

Another informant noted that, ‘in times of emergencies, those who have relations in urban centres move in with them’.²⁹ This infers that, within the traditional institutions in Plateau State, social capital and theory of stress coping, play complementary roles in the processes that contribute to coping and eventually resilience.

4.3.5. The African spirit

This study found certain cultural attributes in Plateau communities reflecting ‘the African Spirit of *Ubuntu*’ (I am because you are), enhancing the coping capacity of displaced households. Once displaced, households coping capacity in communities become generally hinged on culture and environment. In the view of a Key Informant, individuals and groups in host families/communities understand the nobility of helping those in need or coping with grief and loss, hence they are always willing to help with resources that enhance coping, this gesture has helped a lot of displaced households to remain with the host communities they found themselves after the exodus from their local communities.³⁰

A respondent confirmed that:

‘When we came from *Gashish* to *Heipang*, some of the people in our host community decided to provide shelter for pregnant women, lactating mothers and children because of their vulnerability. They fed us for some days before we started receiving relief materials from

²⁸ Key Informant 02, interviewed on 3rd June, 2023

²⁹ Key Informant 03, interviewed on 23rd June, 2023

³⁰ Key Informant 09, interviewed on 26th July, 2023

organisations that came to the camp. Sincerely, we cannot thank them enough'.³¹

Another respondent also shared that:

'A lot of households in host communities opened their doors to displaced households by offering us shelter and food. There were situations where landlords offered their property at no cost to accommodate displaced households. Some of us have been given farms from our hosts to farm on temporarily. We sell some of the farm produce to cater for our needs and use most as food'.³²

In contrast, the displaced households in *Attakad* have a different experience. According to a participant in this study,

'After our displacement, we moved through Manchok (Kaduna State) and found ourselves here in Kaura LGA. Our hosts are good people, they have been good to us, and we understand that we cannot continue to depend on them for our needs. A typical *Attakad* man is independent in nature and has a resilient spirit, this explains why we have never stayed in IDP camps as a people. To support us here, some community people gave us land to till and support ourselves. However, the person who gave me the land I used since we came here in 2015 returned after two years

³¹ Head of Household BL08, interviewed on 17th June, 2023

³² Head of Household BL05, interviewed on 17th June, 2023

requesting to have his land back. He offered me another virgin land which I tilled for almost 3 years, before he re-surfaced again to ask me to give him the land back, with a pledge to give me another. I felt used, so I declined the offer. I know I do not have many options, but I wish I have the means to purchase a farm here. Meanwhile, our farms are lying fallow back home. We want the government to act by facilitating our return home, life here is becoming really unbearable'.³³

A respondent disclosed that, in some instances, individuals and groups used their influence and social networks to reach out to State and Non-State actors at different levels to mobilise resources that contributed to the reduction of vulnerabilities among affected households.³⁴ The FGD in Bassa revealed that, the absorption of displaced households into host communities fastens the building of resilience because they eventually start to feel the need to equally contribute and complement the different efforts that enhance their coping. Their agricultural backgrounds enable them understand what plants/vegetables thrive well in specific settings, thus, they engage in these for food and commercial purposes on nearby farms or backyards for subsistence. They also take turns to carry out joint- efforts farming on farms. This way, they keep the bond strong, sharing in each other's pains, despair and hope, and remain formidable even in the face of difficulties. Others have opted to mining activities sites as a means of surviving the harsh realities of life and adapting to the new lease of life, since the hope of going back to their homes still appears bleak.³⁵

³³ Head of Household RY07, interviewed on 20th July, 2023

³⁴ Head of Household BS06, interviewed on 30th May, 2023

³⁵ Focused Group Discussion BS, on 1st June, 2023

The highlight of the different experiences captured from the different interviews shows that, the displaced persons living in border towns and communities outside Plateau State are becoming increasingly vulnerable compared to those within the State, who seem to be faring better because they are within 'home'. Interestingly, in spite of the fact that *Attakad* community has been displaced since 2015, they always mobilise themselves during elections to cast their votes, since *Attakar* is one of the 10 wards in Riyom LGA, with 7 polling units. But they seem to be forgotten by the government.

4.3.6. Interventions by State and Non-State Actors

Noting that the stress coping theory involves cognitive processes that contribute to responding or managing pressures towards responding or managing specific external and or internal pressures, several interventions have been carried out by state and non-state actors to address issues around the recurring violent conflicts in Plateau State, while cushioning the effects on those affected. These actors, work within stipulated mandates, roles and responsibilities to intervene. Through desk reviews and interviews, the study found that, the different actors through different strategies using different approaches have made efforts to contribute to the processes of coping on households.

State actors championing some of these interventions include the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), State Emergency Management Agency (SEMA) and the Plateau Peace Building Agency (PPBA). These agencies have developed different intervention strategies, working within certain frameworks. While the roles of SEMA and NEMA are basically humanitarian, the PPBA is development oriented. NEMA was established in 1999 under Act 12 as amended by Act 50 to manage all forms of disaster in Nigeria in a timely manner through structures that detect, respond and combat disasters. The agency has the primary responsibility of coordinating emergency

preparedness, planning, and management and disaster functions at the national level, with SEMA as a State structure with the same responsibility at the State level. In responding to emergencies within the country, the agency has been active in providing relief materials and the resettlement of IDPs since inception. The agency works with other emergency agencies such as the Nigerian Armed Forces, Nigerian Police, Federal Road Maintenance Agency (FERMA) and Federal Road Safety Corps.³⁶

PPBA functions directly under the office of the Governor with the mandate to coordinate conflict prevention and peace-building interventions, promote the culture of peace and harmonious coexistence among the diverse ethnic groups, mitigate conflict triggers, ensure coordination and cooperation between non-state actors, facilitate constructive dialogues and mediation to strengthen reconciliation and communal harmony, champion peace education engagements, research and formulate policies on peace and security issues.³⁷ As a response to some of the issues raised and recommendations by PPBA and other actors, an ad-hoc committee for the resettlement of IDPs has been constituted by the new Government with a pledge to return displaced households to their ancestral homes. Prior to this period, a bill was sponsored by a House of Assembly Member, Hon. Timothy Dantong, on displaced persons property protection bill. The bill aims at protecting property of displaced persons affected by the ethno-religious conflicts to ‘disabuse the minds of citizens of the State from seeing the resultant effects as conquest, criminalise the acts of forceful occupation and misappropriating the property of victims, and prescribing punishment for doing so. This was harmonised with an executive bill and passed into law on 24th December 2020. The harmonised bill now – Anti-land Grabbing,

³⁶ website <https://nema.gov.ng/>

³⁷ website <https://www.plateaupeacebuilding.org/>

Cultism and Anti-Violence Related matters Law will enforce prosecution of those engaged in the mentioned offences.³⁸

Responding to questions in this study, a key informant disclosed that:

‘We are not oblivious of the situation, there are efforts towards alleviating the plights of households. Considering the magnitude of the impacts of the recurring violent conflicts on my constituency, at our level we have continued to beckon on illustrious sons and daughters of the land to use their different offices, networks and platforms to mobilise resources to help displaced persons and advocate for the issues around the conflicts to bring lasting solution. On my part as a legislator, I have sponsored a bill that will look into the protection of properties of displaced households, and will continue to push and ensure that the needful is done. As a contribution to education, I started an education trust fund to support students in tertiary institutions of learning, through the provision of scholarship fund to contribute the educational development of the youth in the constituency’.³⁹

With these, the nature and form of support received from state actors has been established and supported by the theories in this study playing complementary roles.

³⁸ <https://viewpointnigeria.org/hon-dantongs-bill-on-a-law-to-protect-property-of-displaced-persons-harmonized-and-passed-into-law/>

³⁹ Key Informant 07, interviewed on 16th July, 2023

Likewise, the study also looked at the different non-state actors who have contributed in the processes of coping through their different interventions, ranging from development to humanitarian. Such actors include Faith-Based Organisations (FBOs), Civil Society Organisations (CSOs), local, national and international Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), and spirited individuals. Some of these include organisations such as Social Justice and Human Development for Peace Initiatives (JDPC), Nigerian Red Cross Society (NRCS), TEKAN Peace Desk (TPD), Catholic Agency for Overseas Development (CAFOD), Mission 21, Mennonite Central Committee (MCC), Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC), Nigeria Stability and Reconciliation Programme (NSRP), Tear Fund, Start Fund etc.

The study found that, the specific humanitarian interventions carried out include relief distribution of food and non-food items, Water Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH), rebuilding and reconstruction of destroyed homes, provision of livelihoods and psychosocial support for the most vulnerable persons and communities. All these aimed at cushioning the effects of vulnerabilities caused, facilitating return, reintegration and or resettlement of displaced households. Specific development interventions include different forms of capacity building and strengthening trainings, conflict mediation and mitigation activities, setting up of early warning and early response structures in communities, facilitating the setting up of community led initiatives such as Dialogue Committees (DCs), Community Peace Partnerships (CPP), Emergency Preparedness and Response Team (EPRT), provision of improved basic social services and economic opportunities to help communities build resilience. Most of these were achieved through inclusive engagements, adopting different forms of development approaches and models, at different levels, using strategies and methodologies that fit into context and issues being addressed.

The findings reveal that, the different interventions have contributed and still contribute to processes of not just coping amidst the recurring violent conflicts, but to the long-term goal of ensuring that households build resilience, as households move through the different stages of recovery. This is evident in the shared experiences of households during violent conflicts over time and the series of capacity building trainings that have greatly fostered social cohesion, making communities become proactive while adopting different types of strategies to build resilience amidst the recurring violent conflicts in the State. Outcomes of community efforts have improved the culture of surveillance, and periodic review of community peace architecture. Through some of the activities that aimed at promoting good governance and democracy, the capacity of community stakeholders has been built to enable them demand for improved service delivery, quality governance and leadership from their duty bearers at different levels. These have contributed to improve the quality of life and living conditions.

4.4. GAPS IN INTERVENTIONS

The third objective of the study was to analyse the gaps in the different types of interventions implemented by state and non-state actors. The study adopted a 5-point Likert scale to measure the ratings of all participants (36 in-depth interviewees) in the study and determining the gaps in the different types of interventions done by both state and non-state actors. The responses by the interviewees are based on their perceptions of the effectiveness of the processes and outcomes of interventions carried out. For these ratings, 1 represents strongly disagree; 2- disagree; 3-somewhat agree; 4- agree and 5 strongly agree.

Participants’ responses on their perception of the effectiveness of interventions done by State Actors

Likert Scale	Number	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	23	64%
Disagree	9	25%
Somewhat Agree	4	11%
Agree	0	0%
Strongly Agree	0	0%
Total	36	100%

Table 4.1: Showing analysis of responses in simple percentage

The analysis above show that, 23 out of 36, accounting for 64% of the in-depth interviewees strongly disagree with the issue of effectiveness of the interventions carried out by State actors, in responding to the humanitarian and development needs of displaced households in the State. 25% disagree (9 respondents), 11% somewhat agree, and there were no respondents agreeing or strongly agreeing with the effectiveness of the processes or outcomes of the interventions. This suggests poor performance of government or state actors as the case may be, in that regard.

Participants’ responses on their perception of the effectiveness of interventions done by Non- State Actors

Likert Scale	Number	Percentage
Strongly disagree	0	0%
Disagree	0	0%
Somewhat agree	5	14%
Agree	14	39%
Strongly agree	17	47%
Total	36	100%

Table 4.2: Showing analysis of responses in simple percentage

In respect to the interventions carried out by non-state actors, 47% (17 out of the 36 respondents) of those interviewed strongly agree that the processes and outcomes of interventions have been effective. While 39% (14 respondents) agree and only 14% somewhat agree. There were no ratings disagreeing or strongly disagreeing. This also

suggests that the performance of non-state actors, though rated above state actors, still leaves so much to be desired. The justifications for the ratings generated themes from data collected and thematically analysed below.

4.4.1. Poor synergy and inter-agency cooperation

Due to the experiences of households amidst the recurring violent conflicts in Plateau communities, it became very important to focus on reducing the impacts on households, one of the approaches adopted as an intervention strategy was developing early warning systems in communities. According to a Key Informant:

‘We have structures in the 17 LGAs of the State. They work as teams, monitoring early warning signs of conflicts in the communities, and reporting to appropriate authorities to nip any violence in the bud before it escalates. What makes an early warning system effective is the early response system in place’.⁴⁰

Some of the study participants reported how helpful the EWER has been in averting very serious violent conflicts over time, but admitted the gaps as observed by this respondent in Barkin-Ladi:

‘Through our experiences and the capacity building trainings we have received on security, early warning and early response, we understand very well that security is everybody’s business. This has made us to see our security first as our responsibility as a community. Hence, we

⁴⁰ Key Informant 10, interviewed on 28th July, 2023

continue to review our community peace architecture and ensure that sustainable peace is achieved through collaborative efforts. In this regard and to a large extent, our early warning mechanisms have become effective. However, there is so much to be desired with regards to our early response. The system is weak. A lot of times, the responses we get are slow. At the end we are told that government is on-top of the situation, after lives are lost and properties destroyed. But we never see concrete actions taken or the perpetrators being brought to book. Because of these, killings and destructions, especially on farmlands continue unabated'.⁴¹

It is understood that the different actors within the developmental and humanitarian aid sectors, work under different mandates. However, gaps within one will largely affect another. This key informant notes that:

'NEMA is only a coordinating organ, we work with other agencies to meet emergency needs. For instance, we may have relief materials here, but will need to work with SEMA who is responsible for logistics that will facilitate the distribution of these relief materials during emergencies. When we receive distress calls from communities, we connect to agencies responsible for

⁴¹ Head of Household BL09, interviewed on 17th June, 2023

responding etc. Where any of these defaults, it affects our work and not just the communities'.⁴²

There are views that suggest that the gaps in these systems are deliberate due to some conflicting interests and personal gains. For instance, a key informant said that:

'There are people 'cashing-out' from these, and until the conflict merchants are fished out and the system sanitised, the killings and destruction will continue. How do you explain a situation where communities receive intelligent reports, while the security apparatus in the State with all the resources at their disposal will be unaware? How can a community within a kilometre from a military check-point get attacked without any security intervention for hours? Something is definitely not adding up. Actors have been compromised. Where there is laxity at the side of the state, the non-state actors are busy paying lip services instead of speaking for the vulnerable. We should be seen collaborating and not competing. People are dying every day in communities while thousands are displaced and we find it difficult to speak out or do the needful? Indeed, we have been compromised'.⁴³

The responses above shows that, delay in responding to security emergencies by security forces who are responsible for responding, has created a gap between the early warning

⁴² Key Informant 07, interviewed on 16th July, 2023

⁴³ Key Informant 10, interviewed on 28th July, 2023

and response systems due to inefficiencies. Humanitarian experts have over time, stressed the importance of interconnectedness in systems as best practice for positive outcomes and increased reliability (Clarke and Holister, 2016). This suggests that, inter-agency cooperation is key for sustainable and effective outcomes especially in communities ravaged by recurring violent conflicts. A well-coordinated, multi-sectoral approach to dealing with the insecurity in Plateau State will be a great contribution for households coping from the negative impacts of the recurring violent conflicts in Plateau State. Thus, an effective collaboration between actors at all levels and building of synergy is required. Actors should consider focusing on building or strengthening relationships to build synergy aiming at effective collaboration to improve on early response mechanisms in Plateau communities.

4.4.2. Development Deficits

Development gaps such as non-functional and ineffective systems, continue to keep communities ravaged by the incessant violent conflicts far from modern civilisation as a key informant observes that, ‘rural communities are still backward in terms of development. Thus, they continue to encounter difficulties accessing required emergency aid in difficult moments’.⁴⁴ In agreement to that, another participant in the study said, ‘our poor road networks disconnect us from civilisation. Government development plans have suffered several setbacks due to the recurring violent conflicts in our communities’.⁴⁵ A business man in Riyom decried the state of infrastructure in the locality, that:

⁴⁴ Head of Household BL08, interviewed on 17th June, 2023

⁴⁵ Head of Household BS11, interviewed on 31st May, 2023

‘The poor state of our infrastructures such as hospitals, schools, road networks, poor electricity supply and other social amenities and services in our communities amplify our vulnerable situation. I recall when a Senator and his entourage were attacked in 2012 at a funeral of victims of a violent attack, I believe that if we had functional hospitals within the community, their deaths would have been averted, but they had to travel with them all the way after sustaining bullet injuries and losing blood, they eventually died. What about the roads that are in deplorable state? A journey of 15 minutes is stretched into 45 minutes or more. It is glaring that our vulnerabilities are exacerbated by the poor infrastructure in our communities. If these things are put in place, our vulnerability will be reduced’.⁴⁶

However, one of the Key informants in the study holds the view that, ‘the recurring violent conflicts in communities have negatively affected government’s focus for development in the State. No meaningful development can thrive, until peace is restored in communities’.⁴⁷

Several other respondents also agree that, the poor structures and lack of social amenities have made communities to remain backward as government development plans continue to suffer several setbacks due to the recurring violent conflicts. The high level of insecurity in communities, has stalled development programmes that should improve the lives and living conditions of rural population in the State, even when done, the processes

⁴⁶ Head of Household RY04, interviewed on 19th July, 2023.

⁴⁷ Key Informant 09, interviewed on 26th, July, 2023

are haphazard and flawed by inefficiencies, thus, ineffective. Without social stability, government cannot even do anything.⁴⁸

These deficits in development are capable of impeding efforts in lots of ways. Even the contingency plans may not be able to manage emergency issues within ineffective systems. Development experts hold that development approaches that are inclusive, participatory, sustainable, transformative, and collaborative have proven over time to align well with the concept of resilience (an outcome of coping). These can be supported by evidence in the different types of development programmes designed at different levels by different actors. For instance, there will be no positive outcomes where communities have made community early warning mechanisms effective, while the response systems remain ineffective; Poor social services and amenities in communities will only increase the vulnerability of households in times of violent conflicts. Even the recognised framework of managing the aftermath of any violent conflict; preparedness, response, recovery and mitigation requires efficient and effective systems to be functional. Collaboration between state and non-state actors is critical to achieving sustainable positive outcomes of planned interventions. Interventions should be guided by government policies developed to serve developmental needs of communities in the short, medium and long-terms. Development partners should acknowledge their roles as complementary, hence, seek collaboration with government in their interventions.

⁴⁸ Head of Household BS04, interviewed on 30th May, 2023

⁴⁸ Head of Household BL12, interviewed on 17th June, 2023

⁴⁸ Head of Household RY09, interviewed on 20th July, 2023

4.4.3. Poor planning and coordination among actors

The recurring nature of the violent conflicts have pushed too many actors into different forms of intervention. This has resulted in the duplicity of efforts while certain areas are yet to get due attention. Though, the nature of support given to displaced households by most non-state actors, in Plateau State have been tied to donor intentions or as social responsibility of corporate bodies, responses from participants in this study suggest that, there are visible gaps in the planning and coordination of interventions, which eventually affected the efficiency, effectiveness of the processes and eventually. Hence, the expected outcomes remain poor. A participant in the FGD in Riyom observed that: ‘Humanitarian interventions carried out by State actors are poorly planned and coordinated, as compared to those carried out by the non-state actors. Thus, the outcomes are usually not sustainable nor effective’.⁴⁹ There are claims that relief items do not get to the most vulnerable as the process is usually marred by certain biases, where displaced households given aid have political ties with the party in power. For instance, a student participant said that: ‘I learnt that some relief materials were distributed to households captured during a political meeting, I am not a beneficiary because I do not belong to any political party’.⁵⁰ It is saddening that politics is placed above humanity and humanitarian concerns politicised. However, another respondent expressed deep appreciation over the scholarship of his children, ‘my two children benefited from the education support scheme of the Member, State House of Assembly, for undergraduates and I am very happy because it is relieving for me as a parent’.⁵¹ These contrasting points reveals that, communities will always respond or give feedbacks based on their personal experiences, and for some reason, such experiences differ. In a focused group discussion in Bassa LGA, participants confirmed

⁴⁹ Focused Group Discussion, Riyom, on 21st July, 2023

⁵⁰ Head of Household RY09, interviewed on 20th July, 2023

⁵¹ Head of Household RY05, interviewed on 19th July, 2023

that most of the people that got relief materials (non-food items) from NEMA/SEMA had some form of affiliation with the persons responsible for the distribution, hence the exercise lacked fairness and balance. In another turn of event, in the focus group discussion in Bassa, a participant was full of deep appreciation for non-state actors who made efforts to reduce the plight of displaced persons,

‘NGOs really tried for us; we understand that they have to mobilise resources from different sources to help us. For instance, JDPC first came to do assessment of the situation after the attack, they bought materials and hired people for the reconstruction and rebuilding of our homes’.⁵²

In Barkin Ladi, a respondent during an in-depth interview disclosed that, relief materials were gotten from SEMA/NEMA but did not meet their most pressing needs. According to him:

‘I got roofing sheets from the government but had to sell them off to meet my immediate needs at that time, because my community is still inaccessible due to the level of insecurity. I cannot start rebuilding my house yet until security is guaranteed’.⁵³

The selling of relief materials among displaced households has become a common practice as another respondent confirmed that, ‘we received food items and sold them because that was all we got, but had other pressing needs’.⁵⁴ This suggests that the needs

⁵² Focused Group Discussion, Bassa, on 1st June, 2023

⁵³ Head of Household BL11, interviewed on 17th June, 2023

⁵⁴ Head of Household BL08, interviewed on 17th June, 2023

of displaced households were not prioritised and factored into preparations and planning, to ensure that most pressing needs are addressed. ‘Non-state actors have done well, in terms of mobilisation of resources and implementation, however, there are obvious gaps that need to be paid attention to in terms of implementation and state actors must be seen to be responsive’.⁵⁵ A successful intervention should be preceded by a proper assessment of the real needs of the beneficiaries or those whom the intervention targets, while ensuring that the processes are effective. Outputs, expected outcomes and the indicators that contribute to the change process are key to sustainable outcomes.

4.4.4. Poor Political-will

Several participants in this study hold the view that, but for the timely interventions from non-state actors, the government has not only failed in her responsibility to provide security for communities, but also not shown a strong political-will in addressing the issues head-on and ensuring that households sacked by the recurring violent attacks get the required support to resettle and integrate.⁵⁶ A key informant said:

‘The government does not seem honest about tackling the root causes of the violence in communities, and until these are addressed, the end is far in sight. The 4 Rs- relief, rehabilitation, reconstruction and resettlement are not there yet, just bits and pieces. Non-state actors will do the much they can, but it is the government that can champion the

⁵⁵ Key Informant 09, interviewed on 26th July, 2023

⁵⁶ Key Informant 02, interviewed on 3rd June, 2023

⁵⁶ Key Informant 09, interviewed on 26th July, 2023

⁵⁶ Key Informant 10, interviewed on 28th July, 2023

⁵⁶ Head of Household BS04, interviewed on 30th May, 2023

⁵⁶ Head of Household BL07, interviewed on 17th June, 2023

⁵⁶ Head of Household RY09, interviewed on 20th July, 2023

restoration aspect. We seemed to have remained at the effect-level and yet to touch the issues at the cause-level. For example, what is the relationship at the interim leading us to the next? Fix insecurity issues with very high risks. If risk factors are still there, not much can be done at the next-level. In the mid-term, let's check, what laws have been made to curb emerging issues? We know the conflict is resource-based. Let's begin to ask then, first, who owns the land? Can communities be reinstated using the laws of the land? What does existing law says? We can pick lessons from the Rwanda genocide and the approach of restorative justice to prepare the atmosphere. There nothing concrete yet to show a strong political-will from the government'.⁵⁷

Another participant in the study said: 'Agreed, population growth and climate changes may be responsible for clashes between farmers and pastoralists, but there are best practices around ranching that the government can adopt. What is hindering the process?'⁵⁸ This finding confirms the positions of Oghuvbu & Oghuvbu (2020) and Para-Mallam (2012) about the attitude of government on issues that matter with respect to managing the issues between herdsmen and farmers conflicts that has lingered for a while, that also portrays lack of interest in the implementation of previous recommendations from commissions of enquiry that have looked into the causes of the violent conflicts in Plateau State. Maduekwe (2018), could also be right in his assertion

⁵⁷ Key Informant 09, interviewed on 26th July, 2023

⁵⁸ Key informant 01, interviewed on 30th May, 2023

that the case in Plateau State portrays a lack of institutional capacity to regulate competing groups, and silent rivalries that spark widespread, systematic brutality.

4.4.5 The Recurring nature of the violence

Participants in this study decried on the recurring nature of the violent conflicts, as a key informant highlights, thus:

‘One of our challenges as an agency is the fact that the conflict in Plateau State is recurring in nature. A lot of times before we finish responding to a particular call, there will be another emergency call from another locality. So, it gets so overwhelming that we find it difficult to respond speedily. This is something that communities do not understand, and the situation has placed us in bad light in the eyes of the public. Hence, we have also become targets for attacks. The other day in *Mangu*, I escaped narrowly’.⁵⁹

From this research, there are interesting insights on how conflicts impact households. Firstly, the impact on family life, children’s growth and development are factors that should be considered as focus when designing development peace-building programmes/projects to drive the required social change. Secondly, most effective coping takes place within familiar social environment or settings, and not in isolation, just as we see with displaced households within Plateau compared to those outside the State. Thirdly, for interventions to be effective, the right approaches and strategies should be adopted for sustainable and effective outcomes. Fourthly, poor synergy and interagency

⁵⁹ Key Informant 08, Interviewed on 16th July, 2023

cooperation among actors has adversely affected the quality of interventions in the study area.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes this research work. It gives the overall summary of findings, conclusion and recommendation both for policy and future studies.

5.2 Summary

With the rising concern around humanitarian issues stemming from different types of disasters, many households are being forcefully displaced out of their homes. In Plateau State, Nigeria, recurring violent conflicts have pushed thousands of people out of their communities into Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) Camps and host communities in the past two decades. Insufficient evidences on household coping strategies continue to affect the nature of support households need and to push for policy actions that will help to reintegrate and resettle IDPs. While majority of displaced households are from agrarian and pastoralist communities, there is an exacerbating growing concern on food insecurity as most of the interventions carried out by government, humanitarian and development aid agencies have been humanitarian in nature, thus, short termed.

The study was guided by three research questions: how have households been impacted by the violent conflicts in Plateau State? how have households been able to access or mobilise resources for coping? what are the gaps impeding the effectiveness of processes and outcomes of the different types of interventions implemented by state and non-state actors?

The study adopted a qualitative research methodology to examine the questions raised. Thus, an in-depth interview method of data collection was followed. To supplement data

generated from the in-depth interviews, the study also adopted focused group discussions and key informant interviews. Hence, 36 in-depth interviews (12 in each study site), 10 key informant interviews and 3 focus group discussions were carried out. Data generated were thematically analysed following the qualitative data analysis method. The findings from the study gave fairly new insights from shared experiences of households on how they have been impacted by the recurring violent conflicts.

The new insights revealed that, because environment and social setting contributes to the effectiveness of coping among displaced households, family life, children's growth and development have been adversely impacted, with grave consequence on the quality of adults being produced. Also, the IDPs in Bassa seem to be faring better than the ones in Barkin Ladi and Riyom, because of the quality of interventions done. The IDPs leaving in host communities outside the State are experiencing a very low rate to building resilience. On resources for coping, findings reveal that, internally or locally accessed or mobilised resources (local beliefs and ideologies, traditional institutions, the '*Ubuntu spirit*', when properly managed can yield sustainably effective outcomes that contribute to community resilience. Also, poor political-will, poor synergy and interagency cooperation (interagency-rivalry) are negatively affecting the effectiveness of processes and outcomes of interventions in the study area.

5.3 Conclusion

This research work studied the coping strategies of displaced households with the recurring violent conflict in Plateau State. It specifically examined the impacts of violent conflicts on households, the strategies for accessing and mobilising resources for coping, and the gaps that have impeded on the effectiveness of processes and outcomes of interventions by state and non-state actors.

The study confirms impacts of violence such as displacements of households, trauma, loss of means of livelihoods, deaths, drop in education level etc in the study areas from previous studies. However, there are a number of new insights to the findings in this study. From these we understand that the impact of violent conflicts on families, is affecting the quality of adults produced in the study areas as children get orphaned and turn up as burden bearers at tender ages. Consequently, the cycle of violence will continue where individuals transit from childhood into adulthood without any sense of value, becoming easy tools for conflict merchants and political thugs. The tilling of virgin lands for subsistence farming every now and then in host communities outside Plateau State, is negatively impacting the effectiveness of coping and slowing the rate of development of resilience among such households. Beliefs and ideologies, traditional institutions and the African spirit of '*ubuntu*' have been great sources for coping for households, thus can be targeted in developing intervention strategies with prospects for sustainable outcomes. Poor synergy and interagency cooperation (inter-agency rivalry), development deficits, poor planning and coordination, the recurring nature of the violent conflicts and poor political-will, are factors that continue to negatively affect the quality of processes in interventions by both State and non-state actors, and also continue to impede on the quality of outcomes of interventions.

The implication of these findings for both actors working towards sustainable peace, mean that for as long as these gaps exist, the issues will remain unaddressed and every cycle of violence takes communities back to the another starting point. Thus, a more holistic and deliberate approach of addressing the issues at the cause-levels should be adopted with clear focus on what is required in the long, medium and short terms, while strengthening partnership and collaboration among actors for increased efficiency and sustainable outcomes. This also means embracing evidenced-based programming in

developing peacebuilding or humanitarian interventions, while adopting inclusive and integrated approaches to implementation.

5.4 Recommendation

For policy:

- Government should develop a policy map that will serve as a compass for achieving the humanitarian and developmental goals of the State, in a manner that promotes sustainable development factoring the 4 Rs; relief, rehabilitation, reconstruction and resettlement.
- Legislators should formulate laws that prioritise the needs of displaced households in ways that accommodate the 4 Rs; relief, rehabilitation, reconstruction and resettlement.

For Development Partners:

- a. Humanitarian and development actors working towards addressing the issues of the recurring violent conflicts and displacements in Plateau State should be deliberate in adopting appropriate intervention approaches; for example, an integrated approach to a peacebuilding intervention can factor peacebuilding skills, livelihood support and environmental protection as strategies that will serve as pathways to addressing issues around displacements and community resilience in a sustainable and effective manner.
- b. Development and humanitarian actors should consider collaborative networks and platforms that will facilitate continuous engagements and interface for experience sharing and learning, to enhance synergy and cooperation between agencies.

- c. Feedback mechanisms should be considered as critical components of every intervention project/programme to enhance monitoring, manage unforeseen concerns, and improve service delivery, for effective and sustainable outcomes.

Future studies should consider exploring the new insights in the following areas:

- a. The impact of violent conflicts on the family, children's growth and development.
- b. The role of environment in building resilient communities in violent-prone areas.
- c. The nexus between processes and outcomes in humanitarian/development intervention programmes/projects.

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Appendix 1: In-depth Interview Guide

Interview Schedule/Data Collection Tool

Thank you for agreeing to meet with me today.

I am Lilian Lyop Pwol, a student researcher from the University of Nairobi, Kenya. I am doing a study on the coping strategies adopted by internally displaced persons in Plateau State, amidst the recurring violent conflicts over the years and would like to have insights to your experiences and perspective on the issues around this.

The study aims at generating data that will inform policies and focus for development interventions aimed at addressing the challenge of violent conflicts in Plateau State. This interview should take us about 30-45 minutes and I would be recording the session so I do not leave out any important point, even as I take my notes. Do not worry, your responses will be confidential and only be used for research purposes without identifying you as a respondent in the report. Also note that, you do not have to share anything you are not comfortable with and you can also end the interview if you get uncomfortable at any point.

Do you have any question or need any clarification about this?

Are you willing to go on with the interview?

.....

Interviewer

Interviewee

Date

1. BIO DATA

a. Age

b. What is your Local Government Area (LGA) of origin?

c. What is your highest educational qualification?

Basic	Secondary	Tertiary	Others
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

d. What religion do you practice?

Christianity	Islam	Traditionalist	Atheist
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

e. What is your occupation?

f. Gender:

Male	<input type="text"/>
Female	<input type="text"/>

g. Size of Household

2. IMPACT OF VIOLENT CONFLICTS

I would like us to talk briefly about how the conflict has impacted on your household.

a. When did you get displaced and moved to this place?

- Where were you originally from?

- How/in what ways did the movement to this place / IDP camp affect your household?
 - How have other households living here been affected?
 - How has your household coped with the situation?
 - How have the other households coped with the situation of displacement?
- b. Can you describe what your position/situation was before you got displaced? How do you find your current position/situation?
- c. What kind of help/aid would have made your current position/situation different and better?

3. MOBILIZING RESOURCES TO ENHANCE COPING

Ok. Let's talk about how you have been able to access help/aid for coping.

- a. How has your household been able to access or mobilize resources to help in coping within your locality, from State and non-state actors?
- b. What has been done to assist your household e.g. by the LGA, State, Federal government, humanitarian agencies etc
- c. How did you reach out to this persons/agency/institution?
- d. Who else/what else has been of help to you?
- e. What do you think about the help/aid you have received so far?
- f. What more would you have desired/requested from them or anyone in the position to help?

Now, let's talk about the support you have received so far.

4. GAPS IN INTERVENTIONS

- a. What do you think about the nature of support you have received?
- b. In a scale of 1 -5, with 5 being the highest and 1 the lowest, how would you rate the interventions by various actors in supporting internally displaced persons?

Actors	5	4	3	2	1	Reason for rating
State						
Non- State						

- c. What are/were your expectations and challenges?
- d. What recommendations do you have for future interventions?

Appendix 2: Key Informant Interview Guide

Interview Schedule/Data Collection Tool

Thank you for agreeing to meet with me today.

I am Lilian Lyop Pwol, a student researcher from the University of Nairobi, Kenya. I am doing a study on the coping strategies adopted by internally displaced persons in Plateau State, amidst the recurring violent conflicts over the years and would like to have insights to your experiences and perspective on the issues around this.

The study aims at generating data that will inform policies and focus for development interventions aimed at addressing the challenge of violent conflicts in Plateau State. This interview should take us about 30-45 minutes and I would be recording the session so I do not leave out any important point, even as I take my notes. Do not worry, your responses will be confidential and only be used for research purposes without identifying you as a respondent in the report. Also note that, you do not have to share anything you are not comfortable with and you can also end the interview if you get uncomfortable at any point.

Do you have any question or need any clarification about this?

Are you willing to go on with the interview?

.....

Interviewer	Interviewee	Date
-------------	-------------	------

1. Bio data

- a. Sex

Male	Female
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2. IMPACT OF VIOLENT CONFLICTS

I would like us to talk briefly about how the conflict has impacted households in Plateau State.

- a. How would you describe the impact of violent conflicts on households in Plateau State?
- b. In what ways has violent conflicts impacted on households in Plateau State?

3. MOBILIZING RESOURCES TO ENHANCE COPING

- a. What is your assessment of the level/type of capacity of communities to access or mobilize resources for coping?
- b. What exactly has been done or achieved with the capacity?
- c. How would you describe the nature of support received by internally displaced persons from the: i) State actors and ii) Non-state actors
- d. How has such support enabled them to adopt/adapt/transform the situation?
- e. What development deficits are there, affecting (favourably or adversely) the processes of coping?
- f. What would you recommend?

4. GAPS IN INTERVENTIONS

- a. What is your general assessment of interventions carried out by State and non-state actors?
- b. Briefly describe the kind of gaps/challenges you have observed in the different types of interventions carried out by state and non-state actors.

- c. What in your view, are the lessons learnt in all the interventions you have been involved in or observed?
- d. In a scale of 1 -5, with 5 being the highest and 1 the lowest, how would you rate the interventions by various actors in supporting internally displaced persons?

Actors	5	4	3	2	1	Reason for rating
State						
Non-State						

- e. What recommendations do you have for State and non-state actors in the humanitarian and development aid sectors in Plateau State?

Appendix 3: Focus Group Discussion Guide

Unstructured questionnaire /Data Collection Tool

Thank you for agreeing to meet with me today.

I am Lilian Pwol, a student researcher from the University of Nairobi, Kenya. I am doing a study on the coping strategies adopted by internally displaced persons over the years in Plateau State and would like to have insights to your experiences and perspective on the issues around this.

This discussion aims at generating data that will inform policies and focus for development interventions aimed at addressing the challenge of violent conflicts in Plateau State.

The discussion should take us about 30-45 minutes and I would be recording the session so I do not leave out any important point, even as I take my notes. Do not worry, your responses will be confidential and only be used for research purposes without identifying you as a respondent in the report. Also note that, you do not have to share anything you are not comfortable with and you do not have to agree with what anyone says, just listen respectfully. Every point made is valid, no wrong or right response.

My role here is to facilitate the process as your moderator to guide our discussion.

Do you have any question about what I just said?

Are you willing to go on with the discussion?

.....

Interviewer

Interviewee

Date

1. IMPACT OF VIOLENT CONFLICTS

Firstly, let's discuss how you have been impacted by the violent conflicts in Plateau State.

- a. How would you describe the impact of violent conflicts on households in your community?
- b. How have displacements affected sources/means of livelihood in households within your community?

2. MOBILIZING RESOURCES TO ENHANCE COPING

Ok. Let's discuss how you have been coping generally.

- a. Describe how you have been able to access or mobilize resources (internally and externally) to cope.
- b. How has your capacity enabled you to adopt/adapt/transform your situation?
- c. How have the resources/support received from state and non-state actors in the humanitarian and development aid sectors enabled household to adopt/adapt/transform the situation?

3. GAPS IN INTERVENTIONS

I want to know about the things that in your opinion affected the successes that would have been recorded.

- a. What development deficits are there, affecting (favourably or adversely) the processes of coping? What would you recommend?
- b. What are the gaps/challenges you have observed in the different types of interventions carried out by state and non-state actors.
- c. What recommendations do you have for State and non-state actors in the humanitarian and development aid sectors in Plateau State?