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**ETHNIC CONFLICT AND ITS IMPLICATIONS ON BASIC EDUCATION IN  
THE BUNKPURUGU YUNYOO DISTRICT OF THE NORTHERN REGION OF  
GHANA**

**COMFORT SAYETABIA KOEK**



**2018**

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**UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

**FACULTY OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

**DEPARTMENT OF SOCIO- POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL STUDIES**

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THE BUNKPURUGU YUNYOO DISTRICT OF THE NORTHERN REGION OF  
GHANA**

**BY**

**COMFORT SAYETABIA KOEK**

**[UDS/MSA/0207/15]**

**APRIL, 2018**



**DECLARATION**

**Candidate's declaration**

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere:

Candidate's Signature: ..... Date: .....

Name: Comfort Sayetabia Koek



**Supervisor's declaration**

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University for Development Studies.

Supervisor's Signature: ..... Date: .....

Name: Dr. Eliasu Alhassan

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to Almighty God and my family for their support, love and warmth that made the study worthwhile.

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to show immense appreciation to my supervisor, Dr. Eliasu Alhassan, who supervised this work in a passionate and an expeditious manner. My heartfelt gratitude goes to my parents, siblings and loved ones for their support in diverse forms. My sincere appreciation goes to my good friends and as well as my numerous course mates. Finally, to all interviewees in the sample schools, indigenes away and within the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District and the security personnel in the District who contributed much in marking this research possible.



## ABSTRACT

The Continuous ethnic conflicts within Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District have made it almost synonymous with the word “conflict”. This prompted the researcher to set out to ascertain the effects of these conflicts on basic education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. The study was conducted in three selected communities (Kpemale, Bunkpurugu and Sayoogu) in the District. A cross sectional survey was employed. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected using questionnaires and interview guides. The findings of the study revealed that the conflicts took the nature of violent attacks where people were killed and houses burnt. It was also revealed that the conflicts reduced basic school enrolment by 47% from 2013 to 2016. The study further revealed that the academic performance of students was reduced as teaching and learning activities were interrupted by the conflicts. Again school attendance also dropped as students and teachers absconded lessons for fear of being killed while other students were conscripted to fight the wars. The Traditional Council, the Police and Military, the Legal system and the Commission of Enquiry were revealed as the main conflict resolution mechanisms in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District. It was therefore recommended that the Regional and National Houses of Chiefs should engage the Nayiri and consult the people of Bunkpurugu so that the traditional mechanisms of conflict resolution will be employed to end the conflicts, the Government of Ghana should put mechanisms in place that would protect teachers and students in the district during conflicts, the District Education Directorate in Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo should engage teachers so that they can agree to offer extra classes that can cover the periods they missed during the conflicts and the Guidance and Counseling coordinator should assist students to come out from the trauma of wars.



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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADRA	Alternative Dispute Resolution and Adjudication
BECE	Basic Education Certificate Examination
BYD	Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District
CCEIR	Center for Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research
CNDP	Computer Network Defense Policy
CRPD	Center for Research on Peace and Development
CSOPNU	Civil Society Organization for Peace in Northern Uganda
D/A	District Assembly
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EFA	Education for All
GES	Ghana Education Service
GNA	Ghana New Agency
GSS	Ghana Statistical service
IADC	International Association of Defense Council
IANS	Indo-Asian News Service
IRIN	Integrated Regional Information Networks
JHS	Junior High School
KOYA	Konkomba Youth Association
LRA	Lord's Resistance Army
NADMO	National Disaster Management Organization
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
NHCs	National House of Chiefs
NPC	National Peace Council



RHCs	Regional House of chiefs
UNDESA	United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nation Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund





## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background to the Study

Wilmot and Hocker (2011) define conflict as “an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce resources, and interference from others in achieving their goals”. Ethnic conflicts are a form of group conflict in which at least one of the parties involved interprets the conflict, its causes, and potential remedies along an actually existing or perceived discriminating ethnic divide (Wolff, 2006). Ethnic conflicts have not just been between different ethnic groups but also between different factions of the same ethnic group or between two candidates of the same ethnic group within the same community.

Violent conflicts continue to be a source of worry to many well-meaning people in the world. The first and second world wars with their attendant huge devastation to life and property are still memorable. The Syrian crisis is a more current example which is also worthy to mention, not forgetting the Bosnia-Herzegovina and the Israeli-Palestinian Crises just to mention few. Rwantabagu (2001) indicates that intra-state group conflicts and violence have become a worldwide phenomenon and an important feature of political life. These wars have left behind deaths and misplaced people all over the



world.

According to Buckland (2005), conflict tragically results in the death or displacement of teachers, staff and students. For example, more than two-thirds of teachers in primary and secondary schools were killed or displaced as a result of the

Rwandan genocide, Cambodia and Somalia represent extreme cases. In the late 1970s, the Cambodian educational system was left in ruins with virtually no trained or experienced teaching professionals. State collapse in Somalia coupled with targeted attacks on educational infrastructure ground the country's educational system to a halt (Abdi, 1998). War and conflict also often destroy and damage schools and educational infrastructure.

There have been internal conflicts fought in many countries the world over in the last two decades, with Africa having the largest share of these conflicts (Kaldor, 2007). These conflicts have often been very violent. Violent conflicts pose serious threats to human security, peace, life, stability, social and economic activities; weaken institutions; break social cohesion; and cause humanitarian tragedies such as internal displacement, refugeeism and rape (Zezeza, 2008). Some of the countries that have been in the limelight over the past twenty years among others include; Liberia, Sudan, Mozambique, Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo, Somalia, Ethiopia and Ertrea war, Nigeria/Cameroun over Bakasi Peninsula, La Cote D'ivoire, Zimbabwe among others (Brukum, 2004).

According to Mahama and Longi (2013), Ghana, compared to many other African nations, has been described as a peaceful and stable country. They further noted that, there are several ethno-political and religious conflicts some of which have been

ongoing in the country for several years. In Ghana, these conflicts are generally inter-ethnic (mostly land and political power); or intra-ethnic (traditional political power struggle, religious conflicts and partisan inclinations). The conflicts in

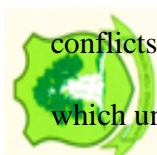
Northern Ghana are mostly inter and intra-ethnic conflicts and even though some of them do not assume national dimensions,



their destructive nature has become disturbing. In Ghana, the prominent inter- ethnic conflicts include the Mamprusi-Kusasi Conflicts in Bawku Area, the Konkomba against the majority groups of Dagomba, Nanumba and Gonja between 1981 and 1994, the conflict between the Nawari and Gonja, and the conflict between the minority groups consisting of the Konkomba, Nawari, Basare and Nchumuru against the Gonja in 1992 (Brukum, 2001).

The causes of ethnic conflicts in the Northern Region of Ghana are varied. They include competition for chieftaincy positions and litigation over rights of land tenure (Tsikata and Seini 2004: 4). Other Scholars have explained inter-ethnic conflicts within the framework of the struggle for autonomy, litigation over land tenure system, chieftaincy disputes, competition for power and the demand for representation on local and national government bodies (Tonah 2005). Since 1980 the Northern Region of Ghana has witnessed intermittent eruptions of inter-ethnic conflicts and the tolls in terms of lives lost, injuries to residents, destruction of property including loss of critical social and economic infrastructure that the conflicts have caused have been staggering (Brukum 2001).

The issues of ethnic conflicts and their effects on education have indeed become a serious challenge to national, international communities and many other agencies that have engaged themselves in its prevention and management. These ethnic conflicts have become commonplace especially in the developing world with their accompanying implications on education, which undoubtedly tend to create negative effects on education.



Education is the most viable instrument by man to conquer his environment and chart a new course. Education develops human mind so that he/she may be able to enjoy the contemplation of supreme truth, goodness and beauty. As Ishumi (1974, 6) argues, “Education becomes an inevitable topic in discussions about development because it is an instrument, a prerequisite and an outcome of the development (or transformation) process in any given community.” Many of these localized conflicts in Ghana have assumed a protracted nature with occasional flaring up of violence, which has negative impact on local and general development (Akwetey, 1996). Most of the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District (BYD) conflicts are yet to be resolved and occasional violence in these areas pose grave danger to localized development efforts and many poor and marginalized people become the principal victims of the violence.

In November 2010, Ghana web reported that, a large number of schoolchildren in Primary and Junior High Schools in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District (BYD) in the Northern Region had abandoned the classrooms due to protracted ethnic conflicts in the past five years. It is observed that during conflicts, schools are always closed down in the District. Teachers and students in the District do not go to school, sometimes run away, and never come back. Considering these reports as obvious and too shallow, this research endeavours to assess in-depth knowledge on how the conflicts affect basic school education in

the District.



## 1.2 Problem Statement

Across many of the world's poorest countries, armed conflict continues to destroy not just school infrastructure, but also the hopes and ambitions of a whole generation of children (UNESCO, 2010). It is noted that 50% of children who do not attend school are estimated to live in countries in crisis or emerging from conflict. Such children are among the poorest in the world (EFA, 2002). According to NADMO (2015), Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District since 1985-2015 recorded 21 ethnic conflicts in different communities, which led to the loss of many lives as well as displacement of some members to other communities. Communities such as Jimbale, Kambatiak, Kpemale and Bunkpurugu recorded over 50 dead victims, 857 houses burnt and 13768 people migrated to other neighbouring communities, regions and nearby communities such as Nankpanduri, Tamale, Bong-Ahafo, Accra, Togo and Burkina Faso to save their lives (GNA, 2007, 2010, 2012, and 2015).

According to GES in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District, the conflict between Bimobas and Komkobas in Kpemale resulted in the death of two students and a teacher and led to the closure of the only primary school in the community for two years (GES, BYD, 2015). However, before the conflict that was from 2010-2011 in the community, the Kpemale D/A Primary School had a total enrolment of 394 pupils. In 2012- 2013 the school was closed down and reopened with only 79 pupils in 2014- 2015.

Government's efforts to bring peace to the district are always by the means of military intervention, which deals with de-escalation. Other institutions such as the West Africa Network of Peace Building, Navrongo - Balgatanga Catholic Diocesan Development Office, the traditional authorities in collaboration with political parties among others have assisted in the reduction of the effects of ethnic conflicts in the area. It is however, worrying to note that these conflicts keep recurring and

their attendant effects on basic education in The Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District are claimed to be far reaching. Hence the need to investigate the causes, the effects and the mechanisms resolving the conflict for the purpose of this study; enrolment entails the number of children of school going age having access to education, performance deals with the academic progression of children in school and attendance refers to the regularity of children to school.

## **1.3 Research Questions**

### **1.3.1 Main Research Question**

What are the implications of ethnic conflict on basic education in The Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District in The Northern Region of Ghana?

### **1.3.2 Specific Research Questions**

The study seeks to provide answers to the following questions:

1. What is the Nature of ethnic conflicts in The Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District?
2. How do ethnic conflicts affect student's enrolment and retention in basic schools in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District?
3. What are the implications of ethnic conflict on pupils' attendance and performance in The BYD?
4. How can the conflict be resolved in The Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District?



## **1.4 Research Objectives**

### **1.4.1 Main Research Objective**

The main objective of the study is to investigate the implication of ethnic conflicts on basic education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District in the Northern Region of Ghana.

### **1.4.2 Specific Research Objectives**

The specific objectives the study seeks to meet are as follows:

1. To investigate the Nature of ethnic conflict in The Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District.
2. To assess how ethnic conflict affects students enrolment and retention in basic schools in The District.
3. To assess how ethnic conflict affects academic attendance & performance of pupils in The Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District.
4. To assess how the conflict can be resolved in The Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District.



### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

The significance of this study resides in the contribution it is likely to make in the specific discipline of study and to life in general. The research will create a platform that will offer suggestions on policy alternatives, programs and strategies for enhancing ethnic conflict prevention and management in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District and Ghana as a whole. The study might be useful for national development, as it investigated and find answers to the underlying effects of ethnic conflict on basic education leading to the underdevelopment of the educational sector in the District.

The study is significant in that; it is expected to bring out in-depth knowledge on the effects of ethnic conflicts on basic education in Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District and the Nation as a whole. Given the recognition that education is key to the development of their children's future and their community, in-depth knowledge of the effects of the conflict on the education of their children will transform the behaviour of the warring faction to want to cease fire for the good of their children's future in particular and their community at large. This will likely contribute to the resolution of the conflict in the area.

The study is also expected to serve not only as a reference material for future researches but also as a springboard from which many more researches will emanate. Through this research, it will inform people in the conflict areas and those who are actually involved in the conflict to know and appreciate how their lives are being affected by the conflict.



### 1.6 Study Limitations

The study did not go smoothly throughout without some setbacks. A number of factors and circumstances hindered the processes and methods employed by the Researcher thereby threatening the achievement of the objectives of the study. This section discusses the limitations the Researcher faced during the study. It goes further to uncover how the limitations were overcome or managed in order not to have the purpose of the study thwarted.

Some of the respondents for the interviews were very busy and could not give feedback to the researcher on time. This delayed the collection, collation and analysis of the data that the study needed. Some respondents were visited too many times before their responses were collected while some never yielded to either interview or the questionnaires. This in a way deprived the study some information. The researcher had to resort to seeking the information from different respondents of like experience or status on individual basis or in the institutions and agencies from which information was sought.

The other impediment of this study was the fact that some of the vital information that interviews and questionnaires were seeking were considered so confidential and delicate by the respondents. Issues of conflicts especially those that had loss of lives and properties lost were mostly scornful to be reminded on especially at the community level. Some respondents


thought the Researcher could be gathering information on those conflicts for legal actions to be taken particularly, respondents at the community level. The researcher had to constantly reiterate on the purpose of the study and the anonymity of respondents.



The data sought was voluminous and was collated from different sources and from different communities, this brought the need for the Researcher to travel far and wide in search of the data making the collation time consuming and tedious. This coupled with the fact that some target respondents at community levels who could not read and write had to be followed on a one-on-one interview which delayed the collation, aggregation and analysis of the data. The study needed the responses of all target respondents necessitating the prudence and commitment of the researcher.

### **1.7 Organisation of the Study**

The thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction which defines conflict, ethnic conflicts and basic education and explains the causes of conflicts and its effects in global, African and Ghanaian contexts and the problem statement on which the objectives of the study are built. It explains the focus of the study as well as the gaps that are to be filled by the current study. The chapter further outlines the general and specific objectives of the study. The chapter again justifies the study by explaining reasons why the study is needed and how the study will contribute to academia and to the nation at large. Lastly, the chapter ends with the organization of the study.

 Chapter two is solely a review of the literature relevant to the study. This chapter examines the various literatures from published theses, journals and books that are relevant to the study. It includes a review of literature on the concepts of ethnicity and conflicts, causes of conflicts, effects of ethnic conflicts, the impact of ethnic conflict on education, effects of



conflicts on enrolment, attendance and academic performance. The study employed the relative deprivation theory to examine the effects of ethnic conflict on basic education. Conceptual framework was also constructed to establish the relationships that exist on causes and effects of conflicts on education and society at large.

Chapter three describes the study area by explaining the geographical location of Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. The Chapter also explains the methodology, the design technique, sample and sampling techniques, population, the research instruments used for the study, operational definitions of variables and limitations of the work. The chapter examined the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Chapter four covers data presentation, interpretation of the results of the study through an analysis of the data collected from the field. It is in this chapter that the Researcher makes deductions based on available data and further puts the results in the form of graphs, tables and figures for further for clearer meaning. It is from the output of this chapter that the Researcher's findings can be made obvious and conclusions drawn from.

Chapter five deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations from the study. It summarizes the main findings of the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the major causes of ethnic conflicts in the BYD, the effects of conflicts in the society, enrolment, attendance and performance of basic school's students in the district and how some of the conflicts were managed. The chapter further draws a conclusion on the findings and recommended that Lands Commission should



liaise with the Traditional Council, The Regional and National Houses of chief should engage the Nayiri so that land and chieftaincy in the district will be well taken cared.

The Government of Ghana and the District Education Directorate in Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo should put mechanisms in place that would protect teachers and students in the district during conflicts,

The Guidance and Counseling coordinator should also be encouraged to engage students who have suffered the brunt of the war so that they can be brought rehabilitated the trauma of the war.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a literature review is performed on the concepts, theories and frameworks relevant to conflict and its effects on education. This serves as a means by which to exploit fully the implicit as well as explicit premises beneath the study and also help explain the factors that cause conflicts. Areas of focus are, the concept of ethnicity and conflict, causes of conflicts, effects of ethnic conflicts, the impact of ethnic conflicts on education, theoretical framework, conflict management strategies, ethnic conflicts in Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District, conflicts in other sub-Saharan countries and the conceptual framework adopted for the study.

#### 2.2 Operational Definition of Key Concepts

There is the need to elucidate and operationalize the concepts used in this study so as to avoid ambiguity.

**2.2.1 Conflict/Crisis:** refers to the underlying issues in a dispute and crisis to refer to the outbreak of armed hostilities (Frempong, 1999).

**2.2.2 Violence:** connotes the use of force to effect decision against the will or desires of others. It constitutes a violation of the basic human rights and employed with the intent of injuring, damaging or destroying opponents (Marck & Snyder, 2009).

It is the manifestation of conflict or conflict behaviour at the highest point. In this study, violence is used to qualify all acts that resulted in physical injury, destruction of property, loss of lives and any other form of human sufferings.

**2.2.3 Ethnicity:** refers to the condition of belonging to an ethnic group, the sense of ethnic identity is felt by members of an ethnic community (Davies and Rothschild, 1996).

**2.2.4 Chieftaincy:** Article 277 of the 1992 Fourth Republican constitution of Ghana defines a chief as a person, who, hailing from the appropriate family and lineage, has been validly nominated, elected or selected and enstooled, enskined or installed as a chief or queen mother in accordance with the relevant customary law and usage. According to (Awedoba, nd), the term chieftaincy derives from the word chief and refers to the office and the institution of which the chief is the principal operator and stakeholder. Chieftaincy may comprise among other things: the personnel holding offices such as chiefs, queenmothers, counsellors and staff; rituals, symbol and other paraphernalia. Chieftaincy, in this study, is used to mean the law, custom, practice and process of electing or selecting and installing chiefs in Ghana as well as the legitimacy and exercise of power of the chief so installed.

**2.2.5 Conflict resolution:** Conflict resolution in this work essentially refers to a set of mechanisms adopted to bring the conflict situation in Bunkpurugu District to an end. These range from such peaceful means as negotiation, mediation, arbitration, adjudication or litigation to violent confrontations.



**2.2.6 Basic Education:** In this work basic education comprises the two stages primary education and the lower secondary education.

**2.2.7 Enrolment:** Enrolment entails the number of children of school going age having access to education.

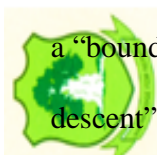
**2.2.8 Performance:** Performance deals with the academic progression of children in school.

**2.2.9 Attendance:** Attendance refers to the regularity of children to school.

### **2.3 The concept of Ethnicity and conflict**

To fully understand the concept of ethnicity, there is the need to consider the concept of the ethnic group. Cohen (cited in Salawu et al., 2011) sees ethnic group as an informal interest group whose members are distinct from the members of other ethnic groups within the larger society because they share kingship, religious and linguistics ties. Thomson (2000: 58) described an ethnic group as “a community of people who have the conviction that they have a common identity and common face based on their history, origin, tradition, kinship ties, cultural uniqueness, and a common language”. Ethnic groups in this sense are a community of people who share cultural and linguistic characteristics including language, history, tradition, myth, and origin. Causes of ethnic conflicts do not involve ethnicity alone but also other related social factors such as economic and political. Alternatively, Hale (2004) sees ethnic group as a set of people who perceive that they have things (social, political and economy) in common and that their similarities are captured by a label. It is for this reason Calhoun (1993: 231) sees it as

a “bounded set of individuals, not necessarily characterized by any internal pattern of relationship much less one of kinship or descent”, hence the construction of ethnic groups as nationalities (King, 2002). Members of ethnic groups tend to support



each other in conflict situations, explaining why many types of interest conflicts tend to become directed along ethnic lines in multi-ethnic states (Vanhanen, 2004).

Notwithstanding this, the above definitions give an insight into some important variables of the ethnic group, having a shared culture/language and the recognition as belonging to the same socio-political group. Thus, ethnic group can also assert and maintain its socio-political and economic identity. Each ethnic group has its own constituted features which do not change and are consistently distributed within this group. It is for these reasons that Hale (2004: 482) observed that “ethnicity serves to structure such actions, by providing people with social radar that they use to efficiently identify or impose social possibilities and potential constraints in a world of immense uncertainty and complexity”.

The term ethnicity indicates that groups and identities have different mutual contacts. Ethnicity according to Egwu (2007) is thus, an abstraction of the ethnic group because it has no independent existence of its own, being always driven by the political class interest or the quest for power. Hence, ethnicity is seen as a significant obstacle to development policies in a multi-ethnic state (Thorne, 2007). King (2002) posits that ethnic identity may be narrowed or broadened in boundary terms and in relation to the specific socio-political and economic needs of the group; hence the assertion that ethnicity refers both to aspect of gain and loss in interaction (Ericksen, 1993). According to Davies and Rothschild (1996), ethnicity is the condition of belonging to an ethnic group, and the sense of ethnic identity is felt by members of an ethnic community. From the



foregoing, these definitions of ethnicity largely coincide with the concept of an ethnic group and as such ethnicity can be viewed as social organization. As indicated by Thorne (2007) ethnicity plays critical role in the emergence of conflict.

Smith (1992) defined ethnic conflict to a continuum of events which range from the articulation of dissatisfaction, protest, mobilisation, confrontation, sporadic violence, and civil war. Once conflict has emerged, it develops further with certain dynamic and intensity. Considering the impacts of conflicts, their categorisation is crucial because it may provide indications to facilitate its management.

Evidently, there have been many ethnic conflicts in northern Ghana in recent times (Brukum, 1999). The very explosive ones are those of 1980 (Konkonbas against Nanumbas) and the Guinea fowl war of 1994 (between the Konkombas on one hand and Nanumbas, Dagombas and Gonjas on the other hand). In 1980/86 and 2000, Mamprusi's and Kusasi's went to war in Bawku. Dagombas also fought among themselves at Vogu and Zabzugu (Alhassan, 1978). The most recent of this intertribal conflict were the Dagbon clashes between the Andani and Abudu gate in Yendi fought in 2002. There has also been much similar communal violence among the Gonjas and other ethnic groups in the Northern Region of Ghana (Brukum, 1999).

Notwithstanding the forms that these conflicts took, Horowitz (1985) contends that ethnic conflict generally fall into one of three schools of thought: primordialist, instrumentalist and constructivist. Proponents of primordialist see ethnic conflict as inborn and that its characteristics are not only psychological but biological as they are passed on from generation to generation. Horowitz (1985: 57) argues that this kinship "makes it possible for ethnic groups to think in terms of family

resemblances”. Primordialists like Brown and Boswell (1997: 111), Scott and Edward (1990) contend that the characteristics of a particular group of people stems from the ‘givens’ of being born into for example a particular religious community, speaking a similar language, behave in a similar manner, with bonds of blood relationship. As pointed out by Scott;

*“As one thought about the strengths of tensions in family attachments, it became apparent that the attachment was not only to the other family member merely as a person but as a possessor of certain especially ‘significant relational’ qualities which could only be described as primordial. The attachment of one member to one’s kinship group is not just a function of interaction... It is because a certain ineffable significance is attributed to the tie of blood”* (Scott, 1990: 150).

Critics of the primordialist’s approach or school of thought point at a number of flaws. First, the explanation of ethnicity tends to be in absolute terms and static in the sense that the ‘givens’, blood relations, language, and common history can never change. Contrary to this view, however, Phinny and Ong (2007: 273) assert that ethnicity is not static but dynamic as cultural attributes are fluid, contextual and depend on relationships. In other words, ethnic identity varies overtime and across





individuals. Second, ethnicity is a social construct and an invention by the colonial masters. Hence, it is not true that it is in blood and cannot change.

However, what is important is the role it plays in the contemporary society and politics. Thus the tendency by politicians to manipulate and mobilize people on the basis of ethnicity for selfish ends has continued in the same way as it was used by colonial masters. Third, primordialists attribute the seriousness of the ethnic conflict to intense emotional power of an individual's attachment to his ethnic belonging. Because of the above shortcomings of primordialism, failure to take into account the social changes, and inability to encompass political and economic influences, it cannot sufficiently explain the ethnic phenomena.

The Instrumentalist approach on the other hand emphasizes socio-economic and political factors as the main motivators and causes of ethnic conflict. They point out that (unfair) competition among ethnic groups for access to and use of scarce resources and political power is the problem and that the process of modernization invigorates conflict. In fact, "renewed ethno-tension and conflict are not the result of any primordial need to belong, but are due to the conscious efforts of individuals and groups mobilizing ethnic symbols in order to obtain access to social, political and material resources"

(McKey, 1982: 399), an argument supported by Brown and Boswell (1997). Viewed in this light therefore, it is not ethnicity that is the cause of ethnic violence but the political actors.



According to Pul (2003), the disposition of an ethnic group to violence is highest when the structures and systems exclude some ethnic groups from access to power and economic resources. Sen (2006) contends that identity can be a potential source of conflict. The presumption that people are inherently different on account of religion or culture leads to formation of identity around one category. Identity with one group leads to the exclusion of others and forms the basis for deprivation, marginalisation and poverty which ignites latent conflicts. Conflicts within the Bunkpurugu-Yonyoo District can be attributed to this approach due to its socio- economic and political undertones.

For the constructivists, it is worth noting that ethnicity per se is not a problem as people enjoy collective cultural and identity pride of where they belong and who they are. It becomes an important political tool if membership of a society is mobilized on the basis of common values such as culture, social support, language, territory, and security (Kasfir, 1976: 48). In this case ethnicity becomes an important factor in galvanizing people and increasing the intensity of their participation in political activities as they will feel and see themselves as members of the same community with equal treatment and opportunities not only in politics, but also in economic, security, education, welfare and development (Constructivist).

Understanding the role of ethnicity in educational development is therefore important because educating the citizenry is imperative for nation building. Deducing from this approach, conflicts within the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District can partly be attributed to the diverse cultural settings in the area, as some argue that most of the conflicts in Africa are based on ethnicity.



Though not all these elements are present in ethnic conflicts in Ghana, these conflicts are largely caused and fuelled by religious fanaticism, tribalism, competition for power (chieftaincy), boundary disputes, among others and often protracted.

## **2.4 Conflicts in Other Sub-Saharan Countries**

For the sake of appraisal and comparison, other conflict areas in Africa such as the Uganda, Rwanda, Congo and Burundi are discussed.

Uganda has been plagued by conflict for the last two decades. This conflict had hugely detrimental impacts on the Acholi population, who are the primary ethnic group in northern Uganda. In late 2005, about 90% of the Acholi people, and more than 1.5 million of the total population in northern Uganda, were internally displaced” (Finnström, 2006: 203). Children have faced the brunt of this war; tactics by the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) include rampant abduction of children for use as soldiers or sex slaves. This precarious situation led former UNICEF Executive Director Carol Bellamy to declare Northern Uganda “pretty much the worst place on earth to be a child” (CSOPNU, 2007: 2).

Where children can still attend school, infrastructure and teaching staff face major strains, school days are shortened, schools lack enough teachers and basic materials, and insecurity hampers access to school for many children. This finding corroborates citifmonline.com (March, 2016) revelation on the negative impact of the conflict in Bukpurugu-Yunyoo District on educational infrastructure. Furthermore, NGOs reported in 2007 that in most learning centres in the country the ratio of

teacher to pupil was approximately 1:300 to 1:400 (CSOPNU, 2007: 31). Educational attainment for the generations who were around 15 years old during the LRA conflict was affected.

Like Uganda, Rwanda also experienced a turbulent ethnic conflict, thus the Rwandan genocide. Rwanda's education system was not spared from the disastrous consequences of the genocide. The World Bank reports that more than two thirds of primary and secondary teachers either died or fled the conflict (Buckland, 2005: 13). Unlike Uganda, teachers were targets of the attacks and educated adults were more likely to die in the conflict (de Walque and Verwimp, 2009). However, Rwanda is being hailed as a post-conflict success story in education, as enrolment levels returned to their pre-conflict levels by 1999, five years after the genocide (Buckland, 2005).

Again, Akresh and de Walque (2008) show through regression analysis that genocide-affected children completed one-half fewer years of education, 18% less than children that were not affected by the genocide. The genocide affected progression through the educational system, rather than participation in school (Akresh and de Walque, 2008).

In particular, the educational attainment of some groups was more negatively affected by the genocide than others. For instance, boys were more affected by the genocide than girls (de Walque and Verwimp 2009). This implies that there is the

need for an assessment on the effects of ethnic conflict on basic education to consider gender as a major dimension. Rwanda therefore represents a complex but important case to study the impact of ethnic conflict on basic education.

The Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) has also been plagued by instability throughout its history as an independent nation. Amongst the five notable conflicts that erupted in the DRC, the 1998 war was very pronounced. This war started when forces mounted against the new President Kabila. It lasted from 1998 to 2003, and had a horrific impact on the lives of the Congolese. In 2005, the DRC was again plunged into war, leading to further destruction and displacement of lives in the country. Children were particular targets in the war. UNICEF ranks the DRC as the country with the highest number of children used as soldiers, sexual slaves and labourers (Bell 2006).

In these conflicts, schools are no safe haven for children. Many were abducted on their way to school by rebel groups to serve as child soldiers, and schools were ransacked by police and rebels and occupied by the army and the rebel group CNDP (UNESCO 2010: 61). One of the most tragic aspects of the war is the sexual abuse of women, especially girls. UNESCO reports that rape as a weapon of war is an extremely widespread problem in the country. For example, in 2005 there were 25,000 reported cases of rape in eastern DRC alone (Bell, 2006: 3). Contrary to conflicts in Uganda and Rwanda, this conflict is independent of ethnic factors or sentiments but had great negative impact on women and girls who are of school going age. Also, the conflict suggests the need to direct attention to systems of rehabilitation for victims particularly girls.



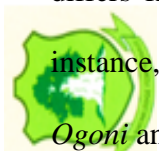
Burundi has had five civil wars after independence. The longest-running and most recent of which began in 1993 and continues to the present. The cause of this conflict is the disparities between the Hutus residing in the Bururi region and the rest of the country (Collier and Sambanis, 2005: 35). In terms of education, prior to the outbreak of the 1993 civil war, the

Bururi region had a nearly universal primary school enrolment (99%), while other regions such as Kayanza, Kirundo and Muyinga have never achieved enrolment levels greater than 60% (Nkurunziza and Ngaruko 2002: 28).

Most importantly, the conflict often targeted the educated. Nkurunziza and Ngaruko (2002) noted that, in 1972 about 18% of the Hutu population died as part of a reprisal for a massacre of Tutsis that had occurred earlier: Shockingly, almost all educated Hutus with secondary or university education were physically eliminated. Surprisingly, although scholars have documented the socio-economic effects of this civil war (Collier and Sambanis 2005: 54), no literature exists on the quantitative impact of conflict on educational attainment in Burundi. As the educated are targets in these conflicts one can deduce the impact on the vulnerable that are in rural areas without education. This is because for those in these areas, it is the educated teachers that will provide them with the education that they need.

## **2. Chieftaincy conflicts and their sources in Ghana**

Many argue that most of the conflicts in African are based on ethnicity, which is because of pluralism or the multi-ethnic nature of post-colonial Africa states (Tonah 2007:14, Braathen et al 2000: 3). However, the core behind the ethnic conflicts differs from place to place; it can be political, economic, socio-cultural, religious or resources (Horowitz 1985:12). For instance, the 1993 presidential elections in Nigeria created intense ethnic conflicts between the *Hausa* and the *Mambilla*, *Ogoni* and *Andoni*, *Tiv* and *Jukun* (Nnoli 1998:2), which was also the case in Liberia and Kenya.

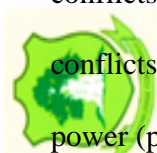


In Algeria, the *Berbers* have engaged in violent ethnic conflicts because of cultural marginalization in the country (Nnoli 1998:2). These different dimensions of ethnic conflicts in other parts of Africa are not different from the case of Ghana and the study area in particular. Chieftaincy which is a traditional political position based on ethnicity has been identified by some scholars as the root cause of most conflict in Ghana (Tsikata and Seini 2004: 25, Brukum 2007: 107).

In Ghana, as in many other African countries, the perspective of ethnicity was not used until the 1960's (Bayart 1993:41, Tonah 2007:6). According to Tonah, 'tribe' was used, instead, in referring to acephalous people such as the *Kusasi*, *Kasena* and *Konkomba* in Northern Ghana. Later ethnicity came to be applied to centralized societies such as the '*Mamprusi*' and the *Ashanti* people (Tonah 2007:6).

The colonial factor is one of the major sources of Chieftaincy and ethnic conflicts in Ghana As noted by Bayart "although it would be too much to maintain that all contemporary ethnic groups are the product of the colonial period, the precipitation of ethnic identities become incomprehensible if it is divorced from colonial rule" (1993:51).

The colonialist reduced identity of people to their ethnicity (Braathen 2000:8). While discussing chieftaincy and ethnic conflicts in the Northern region of Ghana, Brukum argued that the British colonialism and indirect rule partly contributed to conflicts in the country (Tonah 2007). He further argued that the introduction of indirect rule increased and enhanced chiefly power (p: 105). 07:207).



Another source is the Land Tenure System (Land Disputes). Adams (2001), defines land tenure as “the system of rights and institutions that governs access to and use of land”. Atteh and Tonah (2007:150) notes that; “The appreciation of the value of land has made it a lucrative and an inevitable property and hence the scramble by persons, both royals and non-royals, for the position of a chief, which will give them access and control over lands belonging to the communities”.

Also, the media is yet another source. There is reason to believe that the media has had high impact on conflicts. Hoijer et al., (2004: 16) pointed out that;

*“There can hardly be any doubts about the late-modern society being marked by globalisation processes in many respects. The media and new information and communication technologies are of great importance to development – most globalisation theorists agree that new media, like satellite television and the internet, are the decisive agents in these processes. The news industry is of key importance here and the total transnational flow of news has increased substantially over the last decades. As media consumers, we are simply offered more information than ever before about what is happening in foreign countries”.*





According to Acheampong (2010) other sources where chieftaincy conflicts emanate are the Celebration of Festival and one's Political Affiliation However, political influence on chieftaincy was portrayed as the major cause of conflict in places like Bowku in Ghana.

One factor for the large political influence on chieftaincy was ascribed to the change in the definition of a chief during the colonial period. Another factor also attributed to ethicised party based politics. It was also noted that some corrupt police personnel and politicians as well as others who have interest in the conflict might perhaps be supplying weapons to the volatile area.

## 2.5 Types of Conflict in Ghana

Some types of conflicts in Ghana are chieftaincy issues, land litigation, ethnic or tribal conflicts and political clashes among others. The causes of conflict on land use are multifaceted and so are its effects. The driving forces of conflict are diverse ranging from single to several (Brukum, 1999; Kusimi *et al.*, 2006). Depending on the context, land use programmes may spark, sustain, or be interrupted by conflict (Hammill *et al.*, 2009). It is also believed that, people living in conflict areas have indigenous strategies (copping strategy) that make them cope with conflict situation in terms of land use (Hammill *et al.*,



2009). Another major source of conflict is scarcity of resources such as water and land. One of the best examples of strong and direct relationship between resource scarcity and conflict has been observed in water scarcity and resultant conflict around the

world, (JHPIP, 1998). According to a report from the Johns Hopkins Population Information Programme (JHPIP), nearly half a billion people worldwide are currently facing water shortages (JHPIP, 1998; Upreti, 2004).

By 2025, one in every three people will live in short of water. At present, thirty-one countries are facing water stress or water scarcity and by 2025 the number will explode fivefold. The World Water Forum (2000) also stresses that more than one billion people in the world have no access to water of sufficient quantity and quality to meet even a minimum level of health, income, safety and freedom from drudgery.

The competition between industrial, urban, and agricultural use for natural resources is mounting and per capital consumption of natural resources is increasing (JHPIP, 1998). However, conflicts emanate from many sources; examples are chieftaincy disputes, land litigation, ethnic and tribal wars, political clashes among others (Brukum, 1999; Kusimi *et al.*, 2006).

### **2.6.1 Chieftaincy Disputes**



One of the major threats to sustainable land use is chieftaincy disputes (Brukum, 1999). In Ghana, most of our lands are stool lands; these lands are abandoned whenever there is a chieftaincy dispute. People who use the land for commercial purpose

become greatly affected by chieftaincy disputes. Some unscrupulous people harass land users by behaviors which are anachronistic to land users (Boafo-Athur, 2000).

Some of the policies prevent land users from planting permanent tree crops and unfriendly division of farm proceeds, among others. Asumadu (2003) noted that traditional land-owning authorities (stool chiefs, clan heads and skins) hold allodia absolute ownership title to land on behalf of their people. In this case outright ownership of land is still a rare form of land tenure system in Ghana. A land user can only lease the land over a satisfactory period of time for his/her commercial activity from the allodia title holder.

The land user is obliged to revert the land to the allodia land owner or the community at the end of the lease. The major problem associated with this is that the variety of customary arrangements coupled with some inconsistencies in the procedure for deeds and title registration makes it difficult for investors to acquire a large parcel of land for large -scale economic activity (Asumadu, 2003).

### **2.6.2 Land Litigation**

Another major source of conflict in land use is land litigation. Agyapong (2006) identifies that the unwarranted behavior of some land owners especially about the sale of land can trigger litigation. People buy land in Accra and Kumasi that have already been sold to so many other people; the practice is well embedded even in the minor towns. Agyapong (2006) again

suggests the following as a way of addressing this challenge. Firstly, the private agencies in various communities should be licensed to be the sole authority required to sell land to the public, whether new allocations or resale of existing plot.

This will reduce the incidence of multiple sales of plots. Secondly, in a situation where a chief has a land to sell to the public, he must employ his surveyors to do the demarcations, which must be approved by the Town and Country Planning Department. Resale of existing plot/ land must be the sole duty of the agencies to sell on behalf of the existing owners for a commission. Land litigation causes damage to properties and can even claim lives (Agyapong, 2006).

### **2.6.3 Ethnic and Tribal Wars**

There have been many ethnic conflicts in Ghana in recent times (Brukun, 1999). The very explosive ones are those of 1980 (Konkombas against Nanumbas) and the Guinea fowl war of 1994 (between the Konkombas on one hand Nanumbas, Dagombas and Gonjas on the other hand). In 1980/86 and 2000, Mamprusi's and Kusasi's went to war in Bawku.

Dagombas also fought among themselves at Vogu and Zabzugu (Alhassan, 1978). The most recent of this intertribal conflict were the Dagbon clashes between the Andani and Abudu gate in Yendi fought in 2002. There has been much similar communal violence among the Gonjas and other ethnic groups in the northern Region of Ghana (Brukun, 1999).



In regional Africa and especially Africa south of the Sahara, ethnic based violence or civil strives are very common and continues to threaten the stability of the region (Brukun, 1999). Civil war has rolled back over 100 years in history, the development success made in both colonial and post-colonial era in several Africa countries. Some political commentators

however, are of the view that the nation's leadership must acknowledge the existence of the problem of the ethnic factions in Ghanaian politics and address it, instead of under – estimating it. According to Boafo-Arthur (2000), the relationship between the various ethnic groups in the Northern region has not been continuously stable.

A cursory look at all the conflicts on the African continent reveals tremendous ethnic and religious inclinations, albeit many of them also have causal relationship with environmental degradation, land and the use of other resources. The inevitable tendency of this phenomenon is that most national policies by government turned to be ethnocentric which creates suspicion, rivalry, discontent, mistrust and enmity among different ethnic groups resulting in ethnic conflict and civil wars in extreme cases.

Focusing on Northern Ghana, a critical assessment of the causes of most of these conflicts can be traced to colonial and post-colonial actions of the government (Brukum, 1999). Certain actions and inactions of government have led to the marginalization, deprivation, exploitation and the exclusion of minority groups in the decision making process (Kusimi, *et al.* 2006).

According to Brukum, (1999) in 1978 under the Acheampong regime, all lands were brought under the custody of the chiefs of some selected ethnic groups leaving most of the ethnic group landless. The Konkomba Youth Association (KOYA) contested the Alhassan report claiming that it was the root cause of the three major ethnic conflicts and the twenty minor ones between the chiefless and the chiefly people in the Northern Region (Brukum, 1999). Conflicts in the Northern Region are



also caused by bad governance in the form of selective administrative justice due to tribal based biases and stereotype by leaders.

Government due to fear of losing votes do not seek permanent solutions to conflicts, consequently recommendations of conflict committees are not acted upon. For instance, the justice Lennily committee constituted by the president of the third republic to find out the underlining causes of the 1980 Konkomba-Nanumba conflicts has not been implemented (Brukum, 1999).

According to Boafo-Arthur (2000; 2001), the Dagombas claimed that the Kokombas are landless, intruders and settlers so have no authority over land. The year 1994 experienced the worse ethnic conflict event in Ghana. It is note-worthy that the definition of a tribe as a group claiming or occupying a particular territory gives a clue as to one possible source of conflict with another group, (Boafo-Arthur, 2001). The attitude of a tribe, belief as defined in ethnocentrism constitute a potential source of conflict when one group interact with another (Boafo-Arthur, 2001).

However, it is generally believed that conflicts are always bad, but this is not always the case. According to Commonwealth of Learning (2003), functional or constructive conflicts enhance progress among individuals, groups and organization in diverse ways. For instance conflict foster creativity, clarify goals and ultimately improve team performance (Commonwealth of Learning, 2003).



According to Marfo (2006), forest conflicts positively provoke the formulation of some policies and regulations about the exploitation of forest resources by Timber Contractors. Marfo (2006) further asserted that the long standing conflict between forest fringing communities and Timber Companies about benefits provoked the introduction of the Social Responsibility Agreements.

### **2.7 Overview of Conflicts in Northern Ghana**

Ghana has also had a number of religious conflicts though not as many as in countries such as Nigeria, Sudan or Mali. The Northern Region is the largest and most sparsely populated region of Ghana. The 2010 population and housing census estimate the population of the three northern regions at four million, two hundred and twenty-eight thousand, one hundred and sixteen (2,228,116) (GSS, 2010). A disturbing phenomenon in the political landscape of Northern Ghana during the last several decades has been the intermittent eruption of either intra-ethnic or inter-ethnic conflicts. Indeed, there have been twenty-two such conflicts between 1980 and 2002. Within the period under review, Gonja attacked and destroyed a Battor village at Kafaba in 1980 and again destroyed Tuna in that same year. Gonja was involved in wars with the Nawuris and Nchumurus in 1991, 1992 and 1994. Gonjas fought among themselves at Yapei and Kusawgu in 1992 and at Daboya in 1994. Nanumbas fought against Konkombas in 1980, 1994 and 1995. In 1991, Dagombas fought among themselves at Voggu and Zabzugu and

fought Konkombas in 1995. Between 1980 and 1986 Mamprusis and Kusasis fought three times in the Bawku area. In 1988 and 1994 the Bimoba also went to war with the Kombas. Between 1999 and 2001, the Kombas fought twice among themselves.

In March 2002, Dagombas fought among themselves at Yendi during which Ya-Na Yakubu Andani II, the overlord of Dagbon, together with some 40 others, lost his life (Brukum, 2006). This conflict dates back to times of colonial rule. In pre-colonial days Northern Ghana was made up of several kingdoms, the Dagbon kingdom was ruled by a Ya-Na. Prior to the installing of a Ya-Na there were periods of succession disputes which brought instability and disorder. The English colonial rulers at that time thought these succession disputes should be regulated and they laid down a written constitution to solve the disputes limiting succession rights to two families: the Andani and the Abudu. The office of Ya-Na would rotate between these two families. The succession disputes declined but not completely and ahead of naming a Ya-Na there were still turbulent periods of political disorder and insecurity. Moreover, the colonial constitution failed to solve two structural problems; what to do with the family not in charge and what is the relationship between the colonial and the traditional state. The northern colonial state kept weak due to lack of economical investment and a general political disinterest in the region so the impact of the traditional leaders kept increasing (Weiss, 2005).



The colonial authorities invested more in the southern parts of Ghana because it had more economic value for them, creating inequalities within the country which are still visible today (Konadu-Agyemang, 2000; Sheperd et al, 2005; Tsikata and Seini,



2004). After the period of the slave trade Ghana was still economically interesting for the colonial rulers because of the presence of primary commodities such as gold, cocoa, other minerals and timber in the forest areas. The construction of a rail network and roads in these areas created an economically successful region resulting in a golden triangle between Accra, Kumasi and Takoradi. The regions outside the triangle were neglected for economic investments, social services and infrastructural development creating inequality within the country. The underlying cause of inequality in the case of northern Ghana however dated back from earlier merchant activities on the coast changing trading routes. The north was part of the trading route between the forest in central Ghana and the Sudan-Sahel zone and economic decline started when the trading routes northwards were reoriented towards the south (Tsikata and Seini, 2004). So while the North was lacking behind economically there were both stable and unstable political periods but due to the weak colonial state traditional power became strong so after independence a strong North state was likely to evolve. However this was not the case, after independence problems occurred when the opposing families tied alliances with different political parties leading to conflict and an unstable Northern region (Tsikata and Seini, 2004; Weiss, 2005).

However, after independence Ghana has been going through turbulent political times. Regimes changed ever since, the first government of Nkrumah was overthrown by a coup d'état and ever since there have been diverse kinds of rulers from military regimes to democratically chosen governments. President Nkrumah tried to improve the country's economy for all Ghanaian citizens. However, jobs were given to (un)skilled people who had been activists during the elections. In 2002 the latest conflict in northern Ghana occurred but the cause of this problem dates back to colonial times. The colonial rulers implemented a

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constitution which dealt with the succession rights of the following Ya-Na, failing in fulfilling the role of the family who did not deliver the Ya-Na. Conflict started to arise after independence whereas the Andani family supported the Convention People's Party (CPP) and later the National Democratic Congress (NDC) while the Abudu family supported the New Patriotic Party (NPP), Abrefa Busia's and John Kuffours governments. During the postcolonial period politicization and escalation of the succession crises in Dagbon could be witnessed. Where the colonial state was a relative neutral player due to lack of interest in the area, the postcolonial state was not, due to political support from the families (Weiss, 2005). Where the cause of the conflict dates back to colonial times the start of the conflict was in 1969. At that time the first postcolonial succession conflict occurred with state interference.

The delivering of a Ya-Na always has been contested by the other family trying to get one of their members to be king. In 1969 after Busia became Prime minister, which was supported by the Abudu family, a report came out which concluded that the Ya-Na from the Andani family was not entitled to the throne and he should immediately resign. Fighting broke out and the Ya-Na delivered from the Abudu family was installed with heavy military presence. In 1972 the Andani family delivered the next Ya-Na but still there was no stable situation (Tsikata and Seini, 2004). The rotational system failed with the ties of different families to different political parties. In 2002 a NPP being involved in the conflict but the escalation of political violence and the killing of the Ya-Na in March 2002 are still blurred with accusations from both sides against other's actions and political alliances (Weiss, 2005). These conflicts are illustrated in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: Conflicts in Northern Ghana between 1980 and 2002**

Ethnic Groups Fighting Another			Battle Field	Year
Gonja	Against	Battor	Kafaba	1980
Gonja	Against	Tuna	Tuna	1980
Gonja	Against	Nawuri, Nchumuru	1991 – 1994	
Gonja	Against	Gonja	Yapei, Kusawgu	1992
Nanumba	Against	Konkomba	1980,1994,1995	
Dagomba	Against	Dagomba	Voggu, Zabzugu	1991
Dagomba	Against	Konkomba	1995	
Mamprusi	Against	Kusasi	Bawku	1980 – 1986
Bimoba	Against	Konkomba		1988, 1994
Konkomba	Against	Konkomba		1999, 2001
Dagomba (Abudu)	Against	Dagomba (Andani)	Yendi	2002

Source: Adapted from Brukum, 2006

Even though the immediate causes of these conflicts differ, the remote ones are similar if not the same. Brukum (2006) remarks that they stem from several decades of relegation of certain ethnic groups, so called “minority groups” to second rate citizens in the traditional and political administration of the Region or attempts to by-pass some “gates” in the system of rotation to the chiefship. Furthermore, Awedoba (2009) points out that land and boundary disputes are other common source of conflict in the northern part of Ghana. They occur over the right of ownership to land on which a communal resource stands or is to be sited.

Further, Mbowura (2014) conducted a study on Inter-Ethnic Conflicts and their Impact on National Development, Integration and Social Cohesion on the Nawuri-Gonja Conflict in Northern Ghana and observed that the conflicting ethnic cultural and social structures in the region create an environment for constant engagement of rival ethnic interests. In addition, ethnic pluralism in the region creates a situation whereby ‘interactions between the state and society assume a constant engagement of rival interests in the contemporary political arena among various groups that have mobilized to secure public resources from those in authority at the political centre’ (Rothchild 1997: 3). The competing cultures, clash of identity, and ethnicity create conflict scenarios through which ethnic resources are mobilized for inter-group or inter-ethnic conflicts in the Northern Region of Ghana. The result is that the region has been enmeshed in inter-ethnic conflicts over the past three decades marked by phenomenal increases in mayhem and the destruction of lives and property.

The causes of ethnic conflicts in the Northern Region of Ghana are varied. Some are identified as competition for chieftaincy positions and litigation over rights of land tenure (Tsikata and Seini 2004: 4). Other Scholars have explained inter-ethnic conflicts within the framework of the struggle for autonomy, litigation over land tenure system, chieftaincy disputes, competition for power and the demand for representation on local and national government bodies (Tonah 2005: 101).

Nevertheless, international and local actors’ attention has been focused on dealing with conflicts in Africa. Conflict management and prevention are carried out by many actors in the international arena to deal with conflict issues in Africa.

Actors such as the United Nations Organization, African Union, Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS),

individual states or groups of states, Religious Organizations, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), among others, have been involved in conflict prevention in Africa. This was done in many ways including the use or deployment of security forces for peace-enforcement purposes. In the 1990s alone, “the United Nations Security Council has sent nine peacekeeping missions to Africa” (Zartman 2000: 2).

Unlike Africa, Ghana’s internal security experience shows that peacekeeping in conflict-torn areas has been the burden of the state. By and large, government’s response to conflicts in Northern Ghana took the form of the creation of a military and a police task force to maintain security, law and order, but in some instances it was done belatedly. For instance, in 1994 when inter-ethnic conflicts broke out in seven districts in the Northern Region of Ghana, Government intervention was made after ten days of fighting (Linde & Naylor 1998: 40). The Government declared a state of emergency and peacekeeping troops were deployed to the conflict districts (Linde & Naylor 1998: 40).

Based on the discussion above, (Kaye & Béland, 2009) assess state initiative from the role of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in resolving the Konkomba-Nanomba inter-ethnic conflict in the Northern Region of Ghana. They point out that once state troops had suppressed the initial violence, the local government set up camps for displaced persons in the region. Meanwhile, the Military Task Force collaborated with NGOs to facilitate the distribution of relief items. In particular, the Task Force provided security, information and escorts into volatile areas.

Besides, Kaye & Béland, (2009) note that in addition to its peacekeeping initiatives and relief efforts, the State also sought to engage in further peacebuilding activities. In April 1994, the Ghanaian government formed a Permanent Peace Negotiation Team (PPNT) whose mandate was 'to delve into the root causes' of the conflict and make recommendations to the government. Situating government efforts in resolving the 1994 Konkomba-Nanumba conflict in the normative theories of conflict management (that is, conflict settlement, resolution, and transformation), they argue that state-initiated peace-building efforts reflect conflict-settlement strategies. State strategies focused on the suppression of violence, targeted a limited number of actors, and sought to achieve a cease-fire agreement. However, state peace-building efforts, particularly the PPNT, adopted a top-down approach and thereby focused their initiatives on high-profile leaders in the region hence could not resolve the conflict.

Contrary to the State's approach, NGOs, caught up in the Konkomba-Nanomba inter-ethnic conflict, employed 'extraordinary measures to deal with the extraordinary circumstances' and formed the Inter-NGO Consortium. The consortium emerged as a loose network of NGOs that pooled resources, collectively requested funding assistance, oversaw the coordination of NGO relief efforts, and ultimately facilitated the mediation of a peace accord between the warring factions. By identifying 'ethnic-moderates', individual NGO representatives paved the way for the formal peace-building process that would take place under the guidance of the Kenya-based Nairobi Peace Initiative (NPI), an organisation committed to the principles of conflict transformation and reconciliation in Africa. As a result, NGO peace-building initiatives surpassed settlement approaches and



resembled conflict resolution and transformation strategies which seek to identify and address the underlying grievances of conflict communities in order to provide a catalyst for social change (Kaye & Béland, 2009).

## **2.8 Ethnic Conflicts in Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District**

According to the Ghana Statistical Service (2014) the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District is one of the 26 districts in the Northern Region with Bunkpurugu as its administrative capital. Aside Bunkpurugu, other major towns within the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District are Nakpanduri, Nasuan, Kpemale, Najong No.1, Najong No.2, Bende, Yunyoo and Bimbagu. The major ethnic groups in the Districts are the Bimobas, Konkonbas (Kombas) and Mamprusis. The Konkonbas and Mamprusis celebrate yam and fire festivals respectively while the Bimobas do not celebrate any major festival, but rather celebrate funerals of older persons during the dry seasons.

The Mamprusis see themselves as owners of the traditional areas and as such claim access to and control over the land. As indicated by the Ghana Statistical Service (2014: 3) a number of ethnic conflicts have occurred over the period in the District. For instance, there have been wars between the Nanumba and the Konkomba in 1981, 1994 and 1995; between the Bimoba and the Konkomba in 1984, 1986 and 1989. The ethnic conflict in Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District occurred in Nankpanduri, Kpamele, Teima, Jimbale.



The conflict between the Bimobas' and the Konkonbas' started in 1984 at Bimbagu, a town close to Nakpanduri. As reported by Brukum (2000) the conflict was triggered by a disagreement between a Bimoba man from the Tamong clan and a

Konkomba man from the Komba clan over the price of a mango fruit in a market. A second escalation of violence followed when the Konkombas considered the attitude of the Bimobas disrespectful towards the chieftaincy skin occupied by a Konkomba. This was seen as a reflection of their broader disregard for the Konkombas' claim to the land in the area. According to the UNDP (2012) this conflict claimed three lives.

The position of Brukum corroborates reports by UNDP that the immediate cause of this conflict was a misunderstanding between two individuals, a Konkomba man and a Bimoba man over a piece of land meant for the construction of a school. Both the Konkombas and the Bimobas rallied around their kinsman to claim ownership of the particular land that was meant for a communal project. The misunderstanding degenerated into violence, which was characterised by sporadic shootings and the burning down of houses.

The problem however, is the multiple claims made over the same piece of land (between a Bimoba and a Kokomaba) where property right is supported by oral history but not legal documents and have lasted a couple of generations. Such property rights over land have followed different forms over time and have shaped debate concerning authority over resources. Further insights into the dispute over the land meant for the construction of the school building revealed the different meanings that

were attached to the process as well as the wider implications for the outcome of social interaction. For each ethnic group letting the land go meant accepting that the other group was superior and owned the land in the area. Hence, for the UNDP, the disagreement was all about who had the right to allocate the land for the school project.



Again, the outbreak of violence in 1989 was driven by the chief of the Mamprusi Traditional Area when he requested that Jandan Toitor, a Bimoba chief, should hand over the chieftaincy regalia to Naabi Tam, a Konkomba and an older person than Jandan, so that Naabi Tam could be installed as chief of Bimbagu (Assimeng 1990). What triggered this violence were the relocation of Naabi Tam and his subjects to the Bimoba territory and the denial of the Bimoba's access to their farmlands which were located on the Konkomba side (Assimeng, 1990). The conflict extended to Jimbale during 1985 and 1986 (Pul, 2007), and again in 2007 and 2011 (GNA, 2007). There it became a conflict over interethnic chieftaincy and land; it expanded again to include Kpemale in 1995 and, in this instance, land was again the source of the conflict. Overall, it is estimated that 144 people died in the violence between 1984 and 1987 (Adjapawn, 2010) and that more than seven major incidents of violence occurred after 1995.

Though members of the Jamong and the Jakouk gates in Bunkpurugu finally agreed to unite after years of protracted conflict, the conflict keeps escalating with devastating effects (myjoyonline.com, March 20, 2016). Most importantly, the Bimoba chief urged for dialogue to end the Bunkpurugu conflict. According to him, "...*the brothers of Bunkpurugu cannot continue to shed blood while the area remains under-developed, adding that stakeholders must put all hands on deck to resolve the dispute*" (Citifmonline.com March 3, 2016).



Existing studies on the ethnic conflicts in the District have largely been ethnographic, evaluative of development programmes, or anthropological, and have failed to provide the kinds of empirical evidence that would illustrate the effects of

these conflicts on basic education. While the factions persist in carrying out this cycle of violence, little concrete research has been developed to unravel its root causes and to design appropriate strategies that would help to curtail its recurrence.

Assimeng (1990) conducted a study which focused on the causes of the conflict and the prevention of violence in the area from a sociological perspective. He made the case that there have been no conscious efforts to understand these armed conflicts, but his study was itself too brief in discussing the relationships and attitudes that exist between the Konkombas and the Bimobas.

Kendie *et al.* (2014) attempted a conflict mapping of Northern Ghana for the National Peace Council (NPC), and their report highlighted ethnic identity, and control over resources and territory, as some of the reasons for the general Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo conflicts. This study also acknowledged the complementary roles that state and non-state actors can play in addressing the immediate causes of the conflicts. Similarly, Awedoba (2009) presented a brief profile of the conflicts in the area, and offered some possible solutions. Although the discussions in these studies are insightful, these findings were written in rather brief and unsystematic styles and did not provide an empirical examination of either these conflicts or any related conflict resolution efforts as well as their linkages to education in the District.

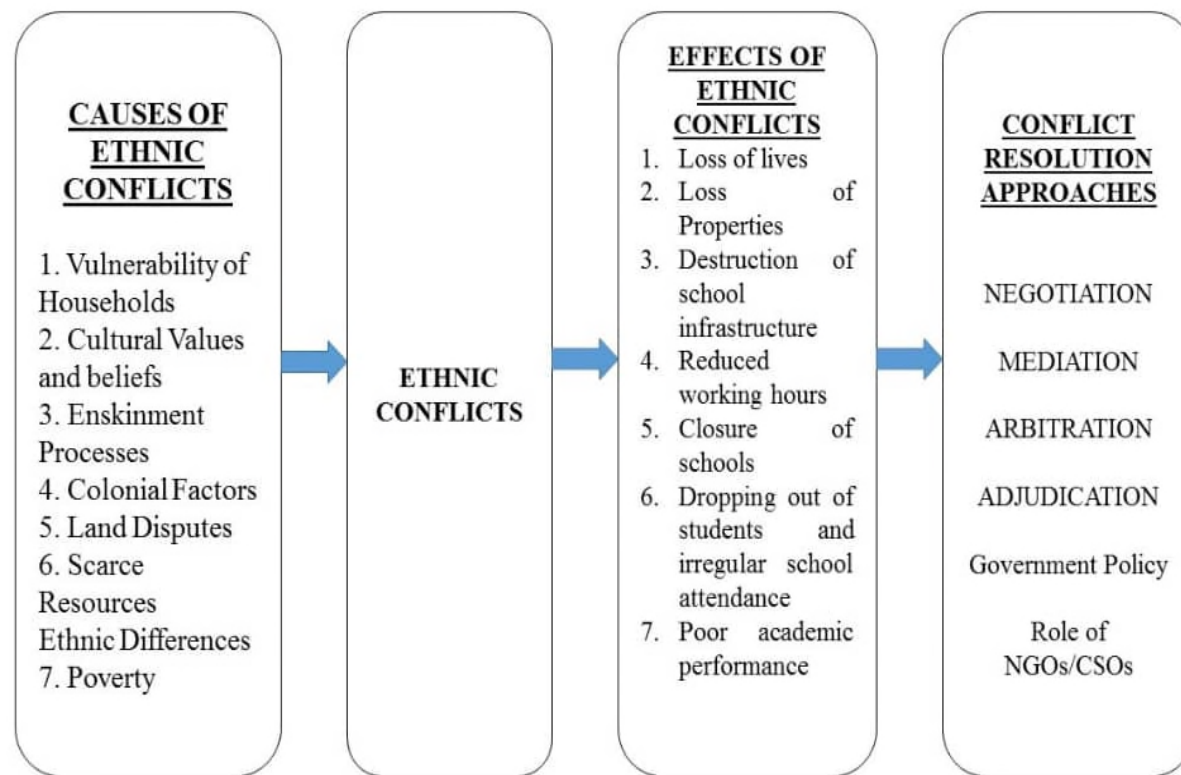


## 2.9 Conceptual Framework for Ethnic Conflict

A conceptual framework is a model that allows the researcher to explore the relationship among variables in a logical and prescribed fashion (Anderson, 1990). According to Anderson, it allows the researcher to explore the relationship among variables in a logical and a prescribed fashion. For the purpose of this study, a conceptual framework is presented. A sequentially ordered chain of causality among critical factors and the factors that contribute to ethnic conflict and their outcomes are illustrated in Figure 2.1. This conceptual framework is used to support the study.

**Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework**





Source: Author's Construct, 2017



### 2.10 Causes of Conflicts

Understanding the causes of conflict is important for determining appropriate strategies for conflict resolution. According to Diba (2015) a major cause of conflict is the vulnerability of households. Asymmetric power relations within and between

groups have made certain groups more vulnerable than the others. This vulnerability has extended to the household level. The relative abundance of resources among one household and its scarcity among the other is observed to result to a greater risk of conflict. When more and more households become vulnerable due to environmental shocks or conflict itself, the likelihood of violent conflicts increases. Increasing levels of poverty push some people to involve in conflicts (IADC, 2009).

Some cultural values and beliefs lead to conflicts. Activities such as raiding, cattle rustling, or killing members of groups viewed as enemies, have a long history and have continued to be aspects of traditional culture (Diba, 2015). To the Author, these activities have been part of the traditional conflicts that have existed in several parts of the world. These factors have eroded social capital, undermined customary rules, increased mistrust and mutual suspicion as well as weakened cultural ties of the communities. This has contributed to persistent conflicts in these areas (IADC, 2009).

In Ghana, studies have been conducted on the history and nature of conflicts in the Northern Region and attribute the causes of chieftaincy conflicts particularly in the Dagbon Kingdom to enskinment process (Mahama, 1986; Brukum, 2004; Tonah, 2005). Recent studies also made reference not only to enskinment process but also whether the chief designate has gone through the appropriate rituals (Awedoba, 2006; Mahama, 2009; Ahorsu & Gebe, 2011; Tonah, 2012) as potential causes of

conflicts. This process must also be done by the appropriate traditional king makers because they determine the best qualified candidate to occupy a particular chieftaincy and help prevent the escalation of conflicts.



Again, in Ghana, Mahama and Longi (2013) also conducted a study on the conflicts in Northern Ghana and found that the origin of the Konkomba/Dagomba, Mamprusi/Kusasi and Chuchuliga conflicts can be traced to the colonial policy of indirect rule with its attendant practice of giving power to chiefly groups to control the non-chiefly ones without recourse to the traditional jurisprudence. The authors further noted that the excessive use of power by chiefs was another cause. For instance, the Chuchuliga Affair and the Konkomba-Dagbamba case are similar cases where the Sandem-Nab interfered in succession disputes between the royals of Chuchuliga by over-stepping his traditional powers. His decision to move the contest from Chuchuliga to Sandema escalated crisis and even defamed his elected candidate.

Another major cause of conflict is land use or land litigation (Chieftaincy). In Ghana, most lands are stool lands; these lands are abandoned whenever there is a chieftaincy dispute. For instance, Asumadu (2003) noted that traditional land-owning authorities (stool chiefs, clan heads and skins) hold allodia absolute ownership title to land on behalf of their people. In this case outright ownership of land is still a rare form of land tenure system in Ghana.

A land user can only lease the land over a satisfactory period of time for his/her commercial activity from the allodia title holder. The land user is obliged to revert the land to the allodia land owner or the community at the end of the lease. The

major problem associated with this is that the variety of customary arrangements coupled with some inconsistencies in the procedure for deeds and title registration makes it difficult for investors to acquire a large parcel of land for large-scale economic activity (Asumadu, 2003).

In the Northern Region, since certain rights have become associated with the traditional sphere, traditional discourse with its different constructs such as chiefs is invoked to justify access to these, even if the competition involves only groups who have historically been without leaders and traditions of this type. As Drucker-Brown puts it:

*“Chiefship in the Ghanaian north is an institution of long duration and its idiom is in many ways closer to that of chiefless peoples than is the idiom of modern political rhetoric. It is also true that in general, for chiefly and chiefless groups alike, all politics in the Ghanaian north is influenced if not directly mediated by leaders whose authority stems from the values and organization characteristic of pre-colonial politics” (1988-89, 94).*

Drucker-Brown points to the combination of modern political and traditional power, justified through continuity of chiefs. While versions of the community leadership roles now regarded as chiefly have existed for a long time, from an alternative perspective, this may be seen as less significant to contemporary inter-ethnic ‘chieftaincy’ struggles than their current importance.



For Agyapong (2006) the unwarranted behavior of some land owners especially about the sale of land can trigger litigation. The author pointed out the following as ways of addressing this challenge. Firstly, the private agencies in various communities should be licensed to be the sole authority required to sell land to the public, whether new allocations or resale

of existing plot. This will reduce the incidence of multiple sales of plots. Secondly, in a situation where a chief has a land to sell to the public, he must employ his surveyors to do the demarcations, which must be approved by the Town and Country Planning Department. Resale of existing land must be the sole duty of the agencies to sell on behalf of the existing owners for a commission.

Land litigation causes damage to properties and can even claim lives (Agyapong, 2006). Depending on the context, land use programmes may spark, sustain, or be interrupted by conflict (Hammill *et al.*, 2009). It is also believed that, people living in conflict areas have indigenous strategies that make them cope with conflict situation in terms of land use (Hammill *et al.*, 2009). For instance, Bofo-Arthur (2001) maintained that the Dagombas claimed the Konkombas are landless, intruders and sellers so have no authority over land.

Meanwhile, in 1978 under the Acheampong regime, all lands were brought under the custody of the chiefs of some selected ethnic groups leaving most of the ethnic groups landless (Brukum, 1999). This was the reason why the Konkomba Youth Association (KOYA) contested the Alhassan report claiming that it was the root cause of the three major ethnic conflicts and the twenty minor ones between the chiefless and the chiefly people in the Northern Region (Brukum, 1999).



Consequently, Mahama and Longi (2013) contend that the Dagbamba chiefs were accused of taking decisions about the Konkomba land without consulting them. The Dagbambas did not think that it was necessary to consult their “subjects,” even when the Ya-Naa was assigned the duty to settle the case on the Konkomba request, he made the decision of rejecting their



request with consultations. Atteh and Tonah (2007: 150) notes that, “the appreciation of the value of land has made it a lucrative and an inevitable property and hence the scramble by persons, both royals and non-royals, for the position of a chief, which will give them access and control over lands belonging to the communities”.

Tekata and Seini (2004) also identified litigation over rights of land tenure while scholars like Tonah (2005) pointed to competition for power and the demand for representation on local and national government bodies. Hence, land disputes or land tenure systems are yet other causes of conflicts.

Furthermore, research by Bogner (2009) indicates that incidents of conflict in Northern Ghana are political in nature, arising from elites who associate local issues with national politics. As such political change at the national level has ripple effects in local politics leading to violent confrontations. They point out that these political alliance and disagreements are manifested in the polarization of the people resulting in the conflict. Importantly, conflicts in the northern region are also caused by bad governance in the form of selective administrative justice due to tribal based biases and stereotypical attitudes by leaders. Government due to fear of losing votes do not seek permanent solutions to conflicts, consequently recommendations of conflict committees are not acted upon. For instance, the Justice Lennily committee constituted by the president of the third republic to find out the underlining causes of the 1980 Konkomba-Nanumba conflicts was not implemented (Brukum, 1999).

Also, Joshua (1998) dealt with ethnic conflict as it relates to the distribution of resources in Ghana and indicated that the rivalry of ethnic groups is sparked by competition over scarce resources. He reported that the determination of ethnic groups

to secure their interest brings about economic upheavals in varying magnitude. Besides, neglect of the area as well as low education resulting to widespread poverty and collapse of socio-economic infrastructure are other factors (Bening, 1990).

Although the causes of conflicts differ from place to place, authors like Schilling, et al., (2010) and Gabiro (2006) asserted that the root causes of most ethnic conflicts are attributed to ethnical differences and poverty which have claimed millions of lives in the past years. Others view it as a defence over the identity of peoples' lineage and family and therefore see conflicts in the light of ethnic boundary maintenance (Gurr, 1993). With reference to the ethnic conflicts in the Northern Region of Ghana, these views are contrary to that of Kendie and Akudugu (2010) who observed that most of the chieftaincy and ethnic disputes in Ghana's rural areas are about access to land and traditional political power.

The colonial factor is another cause of ethnic conflicts in Ghana. As noted by Bayart (1993: 51) that, "although it would be too much to maintain that all contemporary ethnic groups are the product of the colonial period, the precipitation of ethnic identities become incomprehensible if it is divorced from colonial rule". The colonialists reduced identity of people to their ethnicity (Braathen 2000: 8). For Tonah (2007), British colonialism and indirect rule partly contributed to conflicts in the country. Focusing on Northern Ghana, a critical assessment of the causes of most of these conflicts can be traced to colonial and post-colonial actions of the government (Brukum, 1999). Conversely, Kusimi et al (2006) pointed to certain actions and inactions of government that have led to the marginalization, deprivation, exploitation and the exclusion of minority groups in the decision making process rather than actions of colonialists.

For Acheampong (2010), other sources where chieftaincy conflicts emanate are the Celebration of Festivals and one's Political Affiliation. In Ghana, Bawku is one of such areas where festival celebrations and one's political affiliation played a critical role in the conflict. Another factor also attributed to ethnicised party based politics. According to Acheampong, some corrupt police personnel and politicians as well as others who have interest in the conflict might perhaps be supplying weapons to the volatile area.

### **2.11 Effects of Ethnic Conflicts**

Research by Goodhand (2001) revealed that conflict may lead to underdevelopment and poverty, because it affects human capital by causing physical and mental impairment. It leads to decline in health and nutritional status, as well as in education and training opportunities which in turn drive individuals and households into poverty. Declines in health and well-being can hinder an individual's capacity to work, thus constraining the ability to earn an income in both the short-term and long-term.

In northern Kenya, armed violence has largely contributed to long-term deterioration of pastoralism. This has greatly contributed to a high rate of impoverishment among the pastoralists in that area (Buchanan and Jeremy, 2000). In the worst

case scenario, the affected families are displaced and forced into destitution. The assets bases are depleted and the necessity for money to purchase food is also increased. This leads to increased poverty levels, especially when there are no alternative economic opportunities.

Ethnic conflicts negatively affect the provision of social and public services. Ethnic violence leads to destruction of schools which is likely to have a long-term negative impact on the poor and vulnerable people who are dependent on state provisions (Birch and Shuria, 2001). In countries like Southern Sudan, two decades of armed conflict involving ethnic groups have led several generations growing up with little or no access to formal education (Deng, 2003). Financial cost of armed violence means that the governments' expenditures on security increased at the expense of provision of social services.

In her thesis on traditional leadership and ethnic conflicts in northern Ghana, Jonsson (2007) claims that there is a link between development and conflict in the region, and this link exist on different practical levels. The author maintained that conflicts have disrupted the development of places where they occurred by destroying its resources and development projects.

The author also found that conflicts affect market prices, alternative economic activities as well as social and educational expenditure.

In Ghana, there were loss of lives and property, sour relationships between the Kusasi and Mamprusi, Dagomba and Konkomba, and Abudu and Andani (Awedoba, 2009). These sour relationships have since created suspicion between them.

There is generally slow socio-economic development and low productivity in all their livelihood endeavours due to fear hence people on both sides are unable to go back to their normal duties fully. Further, government workers were afraid to accept postings to Bawku and Yendi. A good part of the monies that could have been used by the government to develop the



areas has been spent on security. Sadly, it is estimated that about one million Ghana cedis has been spent on security annually to maintain peace in Northern Ghana alone (Awedoba, 2009).

However, it is generally believed that conflicts are always bad, but this is not always the case. According to Commonwealth of Learning (2003), functional or constructive conflicts enhance progress among individuals, groups and organizations in diverse ways. For instance conflict foster creativity, clarify goals and ultimately improve team performance (Commonwealth of Learning, 2003). According to Marfo (2006), forest conflicts positively provoke the formulation of some policies and regulations about the exploitation of forest resources by timber contractors. Marfo (2006) further asserted that the long standing conflict between forest fringing communities and timber companies about benefits provoked the introduction of the social responsibility agreements.

## **2.12 The impact of Ethnic Conflict on Education**

Education is regarded by economists as both a consumer and capital good, as it offers utility to a consumer, while also serving as input into production of other goods and services (Olanyin and Okemakinde, 2008). Access to education is seen as part of the definition of chronic poverty, for instance, in terms of capability deprivation; chronically poor people have less access to productive assets and low capability in terms of health, education and social capital (Rose and Dyer, 2008).



Ethnic conflicts may also lead to important distributional effects along gender, ethnic, religious, economic or geographical dimensions that may affect not only the overall supply of education, but also shape inequalities in educational access. In times of conflict, individuals or households may be prevented from accessing schooling due to restrictions to population movements. In many post-conflict settings, the winning side has been known to restrict access to education for the losers by limiting school enrolments for some population groups or by segregating schools along language, racial (South Africa), ethnic (pre-1994 Rwanda) and religious lines (Northern Ireland) (Bush and Saltarelli, 2000).

Additionally, poor individual health and the loss of family members may also create serious restraints on access to schooling. For instance, Evans and Miguel (2004) found that young children in rural Kenya are more likely to drop out of school after the parent's death. This effect is likely to be worsened by violent conflict.

Bush and Saltarelli (2000) identified the positive and negative faces of education in relation to ethnicity and conflict. They observed that school education strengthens social divisions and causes political violence. Thus, destructive educational practices when combined with casual factors such as economic tensions, poor governance and perceived threats to cultural identity potentially fuels suspicion, hostility and ethnic intolerance and subsequent violence. However, within the context of

this study, it is imperative to view the impact of ethnic conflicts from the perspective of enrolment, attendance, academic performance and school infrastructure.



### **2.13 Effects of conflicts on Enrolment**

Nyukuri (1997) noted that conflicts have an adverse effect on educational enrolment. To the author, children cannot leave normal lives and their chances of getting education and being employed afterwards are also affected negatively. Insecurity affects formal education directly. Teachers may abandon conflict prone areas due to lack of security. Schools are also closed during conflicts. These have implication on the enrolment of school children. For instance, Berstecher and Carr-Hill (1990) associated the decline of the enrolment patterns observed in Kenya and other developing countries with political instability and armed conflict.

According to UNESCO (2010), conflicts of all nature affect greatly the educational system of the conflict area. The study demonstrated the multidimensional effect of conflict on education, from access to school, progress through the educational system, destruction of facilities, teacher's absenteeism, and children insecurity while commuting to school or attending class, which influence enrolment. This is anchored by Sany (2010), who asserts that in such conflict areas, education is relegated to the bottom in terms of national priorities to the extent that stakeholders are more concerned with finding a lasting solution to the conflicts rather than school enrolment. In such situations, education, which is seen as the bedrock of every country's development, is affected significantly which, in turn, impacts on the social development within the area of conflict.

Furthermore, research has highlighted in particular the causal adverse impact of conflict exposure in terms of reducing the number of years children spend in school (UNESCO 2010), and restricting grade progression (Justino, Leone and Salardi,

2013). These effects have been shown in turn to affect considerably future life prospects of affected children, which may aggravate risks associated with the outbreak or renewal of violent conflicts (Justino, Leone and Salardi, 2013).

### **2.13.1 Effects of conflicts on school Attendance**

According to (UNESCO, 2013) the likelihood of young children dropping out of school is significantly higher in conflict-affected countries than elsewhere in the world with only 65% of children in these countries attend the last primary school grade, in comparison to 86% across low-income countries. Hence, conflicts affect school attendance of pupils.

Reports from several conflict-affected countries show that schools, teachers and students are often targeted by violent attacks (O'Malley, 2010; UNESCO, 2011). Schools are visible symbols of state presence and teachers are often perceived as leaders in their community, making them easy and visible targets of violence by armed groups intended on controlling populations and territories. As a result, the decision is often made to close down schools in areas likely to be affected by violence (IANS, 2009). This may negatively affect pupils who attend school either in the short or long term. In addition, heightened perceptions of violence and insecurity may disrupt exam systems, the supply of teaching materials and the development and

update of curricula (UNESCO, 2011). These effects have been observed in several conflict-affected countries including DR Congo, Iraq, Nepal, Niger, Pakistan, Palestine, Somalia, Sudan and Zimbabwe, and severely constrain the supply of schooling and the recovery of education systems in conflict-affected areas (O'Malley, 2010; UNESCO, 2011).



Poverty further diminishes the possibility of parents to even afford the costs of primary education, thereby influencing school attendance. In other cases school going children join their parents as they migrate to other areas in search of physical security.

In the situations of conflict, schooling is frequently disrupted through the closures, curfews and displacement. Very often schools are destroyed during conflict (Pkalya *et al.*, 2003). Disruption of school leads to low levels of education, confining more and more children to remain in the household. The resulting lack of educated professionals will ultimately lead to underdevelopment.

### **2.3.2 Effects of conflicts on Academic Performance**

Attacks to schools, teachers and students are common across conflict-affected areas. These result in parents removing their children from schools, for fear of violence, as well as rape and other sexual violence (IRIN, 2004). Perceptions of fear may remain high for several years after the end of the conflicts, particular in contexts where conflict has lasted a long time and is expected to reignite (Justino, 2012). They may aggravate gender inequalities when perceptions of fear due to the conflict align to society attitudes to gender roles (UNICEF, 2011).



Related to increases in fear and insecurity, exposure to violent conflict may also result in deep psychological trauma and stress among children due to direct exposure to violence, and greater stress and insecurity among adult family members.

These factors can have long-lasting effects on children's mental health and cognitive abilities, thereby limiting not only

school attendance but also school performance and, consequently, future human development. These dangers can be particularly damaging in conflict-affected settings because of the lack of or the weak state of child protection systems within and outside the family.

The disruption of schools and teaching is compounded in many conflict-affected contexts by the displacement of households from violence affected areas, which severely disrupts the supply of education. While education is possible in some conflict-prone areas, it is often disorganised, temporary, under-resourced, overcrowded and limited to primary education (Watkins, 2013). Accessing schools outside the camps or conflict-prone areas may not be possible for reasons of security and restrictions to the movement of certain population groups.

In addition to difficulties in the supply of schooling to displaced populations, displaced children may not attend school because their labour is needed to contribute to household income (Justino, Leone and Salardi, 2013). Situations of displacement are sometimes temporary, but can last decades (as in DR Congo) leaving whole generations without access to education and the important social structures provided by schools and teachers (Watkins, 2013).

In Ghana, myjoyonline.com, (March 20, 2016) and citifmonline.com (March 3, 2016) all reported that due to the protracted conflicts in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District academic performance of pupils were affected. Most importantly, 3news.comgh (2016) also indicated that not only are people losing their lives but the schools in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District are recording low rates in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE).

### **2.13.3 Effects of conflicts on School Infrastructure**

Some of the most visible impacts of violent conflicts include the destruction of infrastructure, as well as the collapse of government provision of goods and services, including schooling, due to lack of financial resources or the diversion of finances to military efforts (Stewart et al., 2001). Violent conflicts have severe adverse effects on the education system overall and the supply of education in particular in three important ways. First, armed fighting is associated with the destruction of infrastructure and resources needed to maintain functioning education systems.

Second, violent conflicts lead to the breakdown of communities as a result of people fleeing areas of violence, which affects how children are educated and under which circumstances. Third, violent conflicts often lead to distributional and equity effects in terms of who accesses which type of education that may prevent many from attending school. Owing to these, it is necessary to investigate the effects of conflicts in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District on enrolment, attendance, performance and infrastructure.


### **2.14 Theoretical Framework**

According to Crotty (2010) a theoretical perspective refers to “the philosophical stance informing the methodology and thus providing a context for the research process and grounding its logic and criteria”. It is therefore necessary to guide the

research analysis with a body of theory (ies). The study employed the relative deprivation theory as main theory and the ethnic conflict theory to provide support to the relative deprivation theory to examine the effects of ethnic conflict on basic education.

#### **2.14.1 Relative Deprivation Theory**

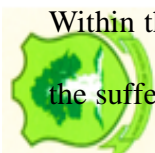
Relative deprivation is the experience of being deprived of something to which one believes oneself to be entitled to have (Walker & Smith, 2001). It refers to the discontent people feel when they compare their positions to others and realise that they have less than them (Bayertz, 1999). Schaefer (2008) defines it as “the conscious experience of a negative discrepancy between legitimate expectations and present actualities”. Relative deprivation is a concept employed within the realm of social science that relates not to overall deprivation but relative social, political or economic deprivation. According to Runciman (1966), early definition of relative deprivation, there are four preconditions of relative deprivation:

- i. Person A does not have X
- ii. Person A knows of other persons that have X
- iii.  Person A wants to have X
- iv. Person A believes obtaining X is realistic

Relative deprivation carries significant attitudinal and behavioural impacts such as engagement in group action, the adoption of a certain political attitude and the experience of stress. Thus, when expectations do not meet attainment, there is a high tendency for people to confront those, who they hold responsible for depriving them of their ambition. The concept of relative deprivation applies to various areas of social science. As Merton (1938) and Gurr (1970) explain, relative deprivation has been noted by sociologists, political scientists and social scientists as being the possible reason for social rebellion and the uprising that, in some cases, result in crime, civil war, terrorist attacks, riots and other forms of political violence. In that light, Rose (1982) proposes that it is the idea of deprivation from entitled outcomes that causes the rise of social movements, while Merton (1938) also suggests that individuals engage in deviant behaviours when their means do not match their goals. In the case of political deprivation, the right to vote can be presented as a key example of the potential outcome of deprivation.

The salience of the relative deprivation theory lies in the presumption that state actions promote intergroup disharmony, rivalry and violence through ethnic manipulation and deprivation. This is because both concepts are shaped, nurtured and influenced by the state, which paradoxically becomes the core arena and contested terrain where ethnic conflict takes place.

Within this nexus, the focus has been centred on establishing and explaining the impact of ethnic conflict on education. It is the suffering that a particular group of people unjustifiably undergoes as a result of being deprived of the goods and services which they are justifiably entitled to and which they think they can get and keep (Gurr, 1970: 24). Value expectation which



are expressed in present and future terms are the goods and services which people think they are justifiably entitled to in relation to others in society. These include for example, food, shelter, health services, power values and social development.

Value capabilities on the other hand refer to the goods and conditions in life that people believe they can get and maintain through their skills and collective abilities. It therefore follows that if people feel discontented about the manner in which they are treated, for example suppression of political expression, repression or marginalization from access to and consumption of collective goods and services as compared to others, then the likelihood of precipitating feelings of relative deprivation will be high.

Horowitz argues that ethnic conflict is an event with a cause and natural history whereby members of one ethnic group search out with considerable care and attack disliked members of the target group, often settling old scores in the process. He further points out that “like the willingness to die for a cause, the willingness to kill for a cause constitutes a kind of statement about the cause, the killer, the victim and the act of killing” (Horowitz, 2001: 2).

Although he tends to stress hostile outburst which results from the confrontation that pit for example ‘protesters’ against ‘authorities’, which may manifest into different categories of violent phenomena, he however shares common assumptions of the basic characteristic of collective rationality of the participants in violence. In actual fact, he acknowledges the underlying proposition that people behave violently because they feel aggrieved and that the “discontent arising from the perception of relative deprivation is the basic, instigating condition for participants in collective violence”.

Other scholars have also contributed to the literature of ethnic violence and its causes. Although their explanation tends to come from different perspectives, they however commonly agree on the salience of relative deprivation. Thandika for example argues that in many developing countries, increased income inequality, growing poverty and in formalisation of the economy have created social structures that are “politically dangerous” (Mkandawire, 2002), and have intensified the sense of relative deprivation.

Relative deprivation is a potent source of resentment, aggression and conflict. The link between it and education is based on the fact that, when young people within communities are deprived of their education either through lack of infrastructure or school shut downs, they have no option than to engage in social vices that are against societal norms. Thus, applying relative deprivation theory to Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo chieftaincy conflict suggests that the conflict erupts when one faction feels deprived of the skin.

#### **2.4.3 Ethnic conflict theory**

Ethnic conflict theory was employed to provide support for the relative deprivation theory due to the nature of this study.

Ethnic conflict theory maintains that control of the state is the main purpose of ethnic conflict (Horowitz, 1985). Here, groups

attempt to meet their needs (often at the expense of opponents’ needs, thus becoming a zero-sum conflict) by controlling the state. The author further adds that ethnicity is a core issue in societies that are highly segregated. Therefore, ethnicity and the

issues that stem from it become highly important to these societies and become intertwined with broader conflict as the



conflict deepens. Consequently, conflict can be extremely persistent and complicated. For this reason, both educational development and conflict resolution are significantly limited by conflict.

Horowitz (1985) also explains that social groups do not tend to strive for social change in the face of conflict but, instead, the eradication of other ethnic groups from gaining equal access to power. Various tangible elements, including economic inequality, customs, religion and language, provide a starting point from which ethnic conflict can grow. However, as Connor (1994: 46) explains, it is the “us-them” issue stemming from identity differences that forms the main basis for conflict. Thus, the theory suggests that ethnic groups are largely inactive in the realm of social reform, preferring instead to focus on eradicating the power of other ethnic groups.

However, the researcher also believes that the “us-them” issue can be resolved when ethnic groups’ identities, customs, languages, values and among others are treated with tolerance and respect. This theory enabled the author to perceive the conflicts within the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District to be linked to ethnic lines particularly considering the pluralistic nature of ethnic groups in the area.



### **2.15 Conflict Management Strategies**

Throughout the history of Africa, there have been conflicts between competing groups which necessitated the development of various techniques of conflict management. According to Luling (2002), managing ethnic conflicts in Africa requires



individuals, communities and nations to reconsider using the traditional African techniques of conflict management which may prove more useful in the current African situation than Western models of conflict management. Pre-colonial methods of conflict management have often been disregarded in attempts to resolve contemporary ethnic conflicts in Africa (Ihonvbere, 1994: 53).

Yet the history of Africa tells us of many circumstances where people of different ethnic groups lived together in relative peace, and even when there were conflicts, there were ways to resolve the conflict and peace prevailed, meaning that there were successful ethnic conflict management processes in existence years ago. However, Emeka (1999) espoused that mostly the techniques employed to resolve the conflict do not resolve but instead only mitigate the situation for a short time. Long term measures should be devised so as to achieve better results.

The United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) (2001) maintains that a conflict is resolved when the root causes of that particular conflict are identified and addressed. Thus, successful resolution of a conflict will ensure sustainable peace which would lead to improved security and good relations among people which could lead to human well-being and general development. Conflict resolution brings an end to a conflict where the disputing parties are satisfied and the conflict is genuinely and truly resolved.

Many approaches and methods could be used in conflict resolution. These include mediation through a third party intervention, negotiation, alternative dispute resolution, collaboration, arbitration and conciliation. According to Best (2006)

although these methods of conflict resolution are usually a process in that each requires a certain procedure and time and not just a one way approach. To the author, the appropriate method may depend to a large extent on the nature and type of conflict involved. However, Godongs (2006) maintains that mediation by a third party (institutions) helps to identify the root causes of conflicts in order to address them. Godongs believes that mediations are collaborative and reconciliatory to help to design solutions through a joint problem-solving approach to conflicts.

Conversely, indigenous conflict resolution mechanisms which comprise negotiations, mediations and reconciliation based on the knowledge, customs and history of the community are identified as more effective than their western counterparts (Newolise, 2005). The process is led by leaders of the community such as traditional chiefs, kings, priests, healers, elders and other tribal leaders and takes the forms of rituals in which the whole community takes part in it.

Wealth exchanges, prayers and sacrificing to the gods/ancestors are performed and there is often merry-making. According to Newolise, the use of traditional methods is preferred because the restoration of peace, its maintenance and social harmony are prime for the welfare of the entire society. For Pkalya, Adan and Masinde (2004), traditional social entities such as chiefs, elders of the community, local institutions and ethno-linguistic groups remain important in the resolution process of conflicts.



Awedoba (2009) also proposes the use of traditional methods and institutions employed for conflict resolution in Northern Ghana and other parts of Ghana. These institutions have been included as part of state governance and, therefore, do not function completely independently of the state. According to Awedoba (2009), Traditional Councils have the authority to

resolve chieftaincy conflicts under Section 12 of the Chieftaincy Act of 1971, Act 370. He also points out the role of Regional Houses of Chiefs (RHCs) in Ghanaian and Northern Ghanaian conflict resolution initiatives.

The RHCs in Ghana are run by paramount chiefs in all the regions as stipulated by law. The RHCs are in a prime position to deal with Northern chieftaincy disputes due to their proximity to the relevant chiefdoms. In a similar vein, Awedoba (2009) points out that some parties do not want certain RHCs to hear their cases due to the close relationships held between the parties and the RHCs. Thus, a number of cases have been referred to the National House of Chiefs and Ghana's superior courts.

Awedoba (2009) points out, this means that disputing parties are likely to agree on the role of these chiefs as mediators.

Awedoba (2009) is of the view that the ethnic diversity of members of the NHCs has a negative impact on its ability to resolve conflict effectively. In addition to the above institutions, Okrah (2003) notes a number of conflict resolution strategies adopted by traditional Ghanaian societies. For instance, oaths and other spiritual arbitrations are adopted across much of the North. This helps to uncover the guilty party and secure resolution.

Awedoba (2009) also highlights the role of the legal system in Ghana, stating that numerous Decrees, Acts and Instruments

have been applied by the government during conflict situations to restrict ability of parties to take violent action. However,

Yakubu (2010) points out that court settlement is becoming more common for chieftaincy disputes, although he believes that the community's rejection of court rulings is based on legal ignorance.

Conflict resolution helps people to talk to each other to see different factors contributing to the conflict, and come up with solutions that benefit everybody. Conflicts can be managed in ways such as: negotiation, mediation, arbitration and adjudication. These four methods of conflict resolution are also known as Alternative Dispute Resolution and Adjudication (ADRA).

### **2.15.1 Negotiation**

In negotiation, the people admit that there is some conflict between them and they prefer to look for agreement rather than fight openly, give in or break off. When parties decide to negotiate, they are usually expected to display a give-and-take attitude. Each disputant will either attempt to convince the other side to comply with his opinion, to modify the opposing wishes and move toward a settlement, or to create a solution that meets the needs of all sides (Adu-Yeboah, Obiri Yeboah, 2008: 97). As negotiation goes on, each side suggests changes to the other party's point of view and makes its own. Negotiation is a good first step for almost all types of disputes, including community or personal situations such as chieftaincy disputes.

### **2.15.2 Mediation**

The purpose of mediation is to find a peaceful resolution to a conflict situation as a non-coercive measure. Mediation has been defined as a key conflict resolution strategy in traditional society (Olaoba, 2005). Typically, mediators aim to ensure that all levels of mediation result in societal harmony and peace. As highlighted by Isurmona (2005), mediation also aims to

ensure that no party comes out of conflict more victorious than the other, nor does any party come out of conflict in an inferior position.

In mediation, every person involved in the dispute comes together for a face-to-face meeting. Each of the parties is allowed to explain its position in the dispute. The mediator then helps them identify issues or problems. The mediator does not decide the result of the dispute but helps the parties talk about their problems. The people in dispute therefore work out a solution with the help of the mediator. Mediators often use persuasion to get people to soften strong stance (Adu-Yeboah, Obiri Yeboah, 2008: 98). Most importantly, mediation may be very useful when parties have a relationship they want to preserve.

### 2.5.3 Arbitration

Arbitration is a process in which the people in dispute present their case to an independent person (the arbitrator) whose decision the parties to the dispute have agreed will be final and binding. Binding in arbitration means that, the parties surrender their rights to a trial and agree to accept the arbitrator's decision as final. The parties must agree to use arbitration, and on their choice of arbitrator, but more often one person will apply for arbitration and the other person is required to

participate. The people in disputes present their case to the arbitrator.

The arbitrator then makes the final decision. The people in the disputes are bound by the arbitrator's decision. Arbitration is used where the parties want another person to decide the results of their disputes for them. It may be appropriate for complex

matters where the parties want a decision maker who has training or experience in the issues of the disputes (Adu- Yeboah, Obiri Yeboa, 2008: 98). Drawing from this, all parties involved in the disputes in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District can resort to this method so as to get a lasting solution to the disputes in the area.

#### **2.15.4 Adjudication**

Olaoba (2005) explains that in traditional African society, adjudication focuses heavily on discussion and communication between all parties involved. Here, rulings are made in cases regarding property, land and other conflict at the chief's court. The chief's court deals with all land cases because the chief is the custodian of African land and land boundaries. Conflict resolution through the chief's court is conducted for all non-withdrawn cases forwarded to the chief. In the adjudication process, administrators and judges assigned to the relevant settlement authority are given responsibility for making the ultimate decision on cases. In adjudication, there is less flexibility, greater cost and less attention paid to the intricacies of local relationships (Gulliver, 1979).

From the foregoing discussion, the conflicts in Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District are inter-ethnic based hence, it is important to examine some of the conflict management strategies adopted in resolving the ethnic conflicts in Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District and establish whether they have yielded any positive results.



## 2.16 Conclusion

Concluding on the above review, it can be deduced that all the variables discussed are relevant to the current study. A conceptual framework has been developed from the review indicating possible variables to guide the analyses. Though some of the variables were tested outside Ghana they are still relevant to the current study. Importantly, education is critical to achieving stability in conflict-affected countries. Lack of education and economic opportunities may lead to long-term poverty traps among households adversely affected by ethnic conflicts. The following chapter presents the methodology adopted for the study.



## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the technical part of the study. It synthesizes procedures to be employed in collecting relevant data. It also closely examines the research design, study area, target population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection instrumentation, procedure, validation and analysis.

#### 3.2 Brief Background of the Study Area

The sections delve into the background of the study area; the educational background and the location and size of the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District.

##### 3.2.1 Location and Size

The study was carried out in some selected communities in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District. The District was established by Legislative Instrument (L.I) 1748 in August, 2004 as part of the government's efforts to further decentralize governance. The District is located at the north-eastern corner of the Northern Region of Ghana. It shares boundaries in the North with the Garu-Tempene, to the East with Togo, West with East Mamprusi and to the South with Gushiegu and Chereponi Districts.



Bunkpurugu is the administrative capital of the District. Other major towns in the District are Nakpanduri, Nasuan, Kpemale, Najong No.1, Najong No.2, Bende, Yunyoo and Bimbagu. The population of Bunkpurugu/Yunyo District, according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, is 122,591 representing 4.9 percent of the Northern region's total population of



2,479,461. Males constitute 49.1 percent and females represent 50.9 percent. Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District is a heterogeneous society with many ethnic groups and religions. The major ethnic groups in the District are Bimobas, Kokombas (Kombas) and Mamprusis who speak Moar, Komba and Mampruli respectively. The major religious groups are traditionalists and Christians.

Generally, individual family heads control land in Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo. Their village chiefs have allocated such lands to them or they have acquired it by virtue of being the first to farm on the land. Land purchase or leasing for agriculture is virtually unknown. However, building projects on new land need to be agreed upon by the Chief and landowners.

### **3.2 Educational Background**

The District is divided into nine circuits with total school enrolment of 41,433 pupils as the ending of the 2016 academic calendar. The District has with two Public Senior High Schools with the enrolment of 2,724 students and one private Presbyterian Senior High School in Nakpanduri. The District has about 37 junior high schools, one hundred and forty-nine (149) primary schools, and three (3) senior high schools (both public and private). The District has a total of 1,058 teachers in the basic school's level (public and private) and 257 teachers in the senior high schools (public and private).



### 3.3 Research Design

The Researcher used cross-sectional design and gathered data on the implications of ethnic conflicts on basic education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District of the Northern Region of Ghana. This research design employed in order to gain understanding on the enrolment rate, attendance and the performance level of pupils in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District during and after conflict. This design enabled the researcher to observe two or more variables at a point in time (Breakwell, Hammond & Fife-Schaw, 1995). According to Kuranchie (2014), cross-sectional survey gathers data about current conditions at a point in time. Data was collected within a given period which enables the researcher to describe the current phenomena under study using questionnaires and interview guide.

Although this design is more of quantitative in nature but the researcher gathered both quantitative and qualitative data (mixed approach method) and these helped to vividly describe the current status of the issues under study. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) argue that multiple methods are useful if they provide better opportunities for a researcher to answer research questions and where the methods allow a researcher to better evaluate the extent to which the research findings can be trusted and inferences to be made from them. The study essentially was to investigate and gather opinions on the effects of ethnic conflict on basic education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District within a given period; therefore, cross-section survey design

was appropriate for the study.



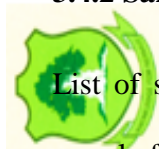
### **3.4 Sample and Sampling Procedures**

#### **3.4.1 Target Population**

The study collected data from pupils in Primary and JHS, Community members, Teachers, Opinion leaders, Security personnel and Staff of the Ghana Education Service in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. The choice of the district for the study was as a result of the observation that, the district is among one of the conflicts prone district in the region. Also, the communities were determined by the fact that they suffered directly and indirectly from the impact of ethnic conflict within the District.

Data from Ghana Statistical Service (2010) put the total population of the District at 122,591 with the total school enrolment of 41,433 pupils. The District has about 37 junior high schools with 278 teachers and one hundred and forty-nine (149) primary schools with six hundred and fifty-two (652) teachers in primary and one hundred and twenty-eight (128) teachers in kindergarten (both public and private). Since the target groups are many and varied, The Researcher will sample to enable get each group represented in the final sample.

#### **3.4.2 Sampling Frame**



List of students and teachers were obtained from Ghana Education service in Bunkprugu Yunyoo District to obtain the sample frame for the quantitative respondents. This enabled the researcher administered questionnaire to respondents who in

this case represented the teachers and pupils in upper primary and Junior High schools. The sample frame for the study was made up of total Teacher in the sample communities (194) and pupils (956) sum up to (1105).

### 3.4.3 Sample Size Determination

Schant and Dillman (1994) cited in Chuan and Penyelidikan (2006) explained that the size of the sample is determined by four factors: (1) how much sampling error can be tolerated; (2) population size; (3) how varied the population is with respect to the characteristics of interest; and (4) the smallest subgroup within the sample for which estimates are needed.

Based on the above explanation, sample size for quantitative data in this study was determined using Cochran's formular where 240 respondents were selected as follows;

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

Where:

e = margin of error = 5% and gives 0.05

p = estimated portion of the population which has attributes in common (half assumed to have believed there is correlation between job satisfaction and leadership style=0.5)

q=1-p



z=95% confidence level which gives 1.96 from the z score

Deducing the values  $n = \frac{(1.96)^2(0.5)(0.5)}{(0.5)^2} = 384$

Modification for smaller sample size:

$$n = \frac{n}{1 + \frac{n-1}{N}}$$

Where N=the target population (1105)

Therefore  $n = 384/2.33 = 240$

**Sampling Technique:**

A quota of 40% was apportioned to the student population and 30% each for both parents and teacher's population. Simple random sampling was used to select from each strata as shown in the table was **210**.

**Table 3.1 Sampling Distribution**

Stratum	Sample Frame	Sample Selected
Pupils	956	115
Teachers	194	95
Total	1105	210

Source: Field Survey, 2016

### 3.5 Sampling Procedures

Probability and non-probability sampling techniques were used in this study. Sekaranand Bougie, (2003) explained that, sampling is the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible to generalize such properties or characteristics to the population elements.

Stratified sampling and simple random sampling were used as probability sample techniques. The target population was stratified into three; pupils and teachers and security agencies. Simple random sampling was used to select 115 students and 90 teachers while convenient sampling was used to select 45 parents bringing the total sample to 240.

Purposive sampling was used to select some of the communities in the District, the selection of the communities was determined by the fact that they suffered directly and indirectly from the impact of ethnic conflict within the District. While schools in the communities were selected randomly, the classes as well were selected purposively that is from upper primary to JHS this is because they have in-depth knowledge on conflicts in the area. All lower primary school pupils were not part of the study because some are still very young and might not have in-depth knowledge on the study.

Also, Purposive sampling was used to select 30 key informants which comprised of ten circuit supervisors, the Human Resource, Budget officer, Finance Director and Education Director of the Bunkpurugu Education Directorate. The police

commander, NADMO coordinator, the parish priest of the Catholic Church, District Pastor of the Apostolic Church Ghana and WANEP district chairman and ten opinion leaders were also added to bring the total key informants to thirty.

### **3.5.2 Techniques for Data Collection**

Questionnaire survey and interview techniques were used to gather data for this study. The researcher employed both self-administered questionnaires and surveys administered. Self-administered questionnaires were used to elicit information from the target respondents who are literates while interviewer administered questionnaires was conducted on the non-literate respondents.

### **3.5.3 Data Collection Instruments**

Questionnaire and interview guide served as research instruments for the study.

Questionnaire was used to gather quantitative data from teachers, parents and pupils. The questionnaire was subdivided into various sections: demography characteristics of respondents and information related to the research objectives. Out of two hundred and forty (240) questionnaires distributed to respondents, about 99% of the questionnaires were returned.

Interview guide was used to collect qualitative data from traditional and religious leaders, teachers, District Director of education, circuit supervisors, and officials of the NGOs in the district based on the research objectives for the study.

### **3.6 Sources of Data**

The Researcher obtained and used both primary and secondary data for the study. The Primary data was collected through interviews conducted and questionnaires administered to parents, teachers, student's opinion leaders and Security personnel's. The secondary data on the other hand was collected from the Directorate of the Ghana Education Service (GES) in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District to obtain information on school enrolments and performance level during and after conflicts as well as other related literature pertaining to ethnic conflict on basic education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District.

### **3.7 Data Analysis**

The collected data was analysed using both qualitative and quantitative data analysis approaches. Quantitative data gathered from the study was edited, coded and entered into a software (SPSS- Statistical Package for Service Solution) and then analysed subsequently using statistical tools such as descriptive statistics, frequencies, percentages, and any other relevant tools. Qualitative data was analysed by identifying themes from the research questions and using the relevant data to support and explain the themes.



### **3.8 Ethical Consideration**

Respecting of the site where the research takes place and gaining permission before entering a site is paramount in research Creswell, (2009). Due to that, the researcher distributed introductory letters from researcher's department to all stakeholders



especially the Heads Masters / Head Mistresses in the selected schools and other stakeholders to seek permission for data gathering with participants. In order to ensure a maximum response rate, the researcher visited each school at scheduled times after the distribution of the questionnaire, to collect those that was completed and to remind the respondents of the need to complete their questionnaires. This enabled the researcher to establish a good rapport with the entire selected participants and to ensure that all the target participants are reached. At the end of the exercise, the researcher sent a letter of appreciation to the selected schools and any other stakeholder who helped in one way or the other.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses both the primary and the secondary data that was collected for the study. Emerging and common themes were noted. Discussions and observations were made and tied up to the conceptual and theoretical frameworks used for the study. The researcher puts up the data through rigorous analysis to establish causes and effects of conflicts in the BYD and as well serve as a point of intervention by the Researcher.

#### 4.2 Bio Data of Respondents

Table 4.1 displays the age cohorts of the respondents to the questionnaires. It shows how the population was represented in the sample age wise. The respondents ranged from school children to officers of GES, District assembly and community elders.

**Table 4.1 Ages of Respondents**

Age	Frequency
10- 15	40
16-29	65
30-35	55

36-45	37
46-55	25
56-70	18

Source: Field Survey, 2016

An analysis of the respondent's occupational distribution showed that a good number of the respondents representing 54% were students, 17.2% of the respondents were farmers, and 13.8% of the respondents were traders while 15% were educationists. It is observed that, the sample obtained for this study comprised people with different occupational background; however, all of them have a stake in education. Farmers and traders had children in school while the rest are directly involved in the education sector.

**Table 4.2 Occupation of key informants**

<b>Informant</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Security Personnel	5	16.6
Educationists	15	50.0
Opinion Leaders	5	16.6
Parents	5	16.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.</b>

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Source: Field Survey, 2016

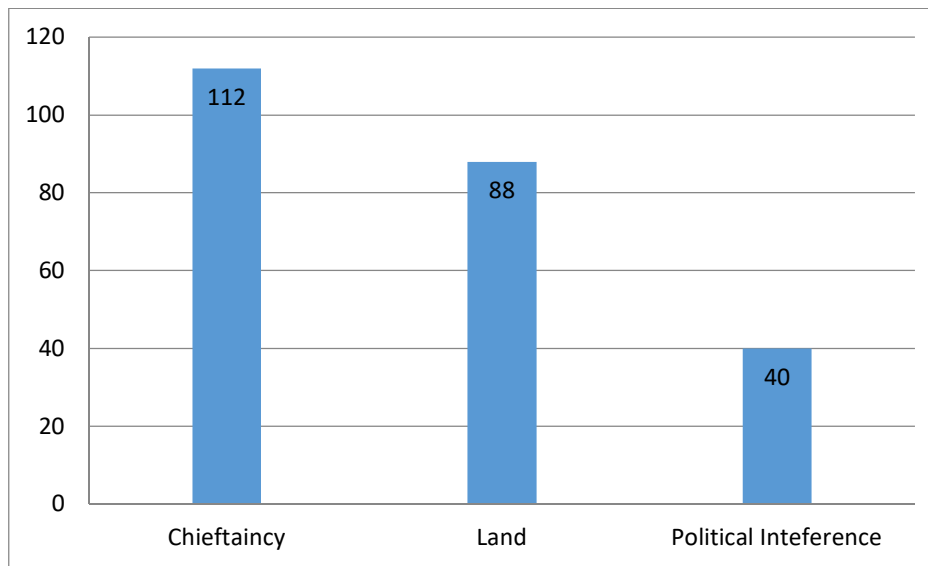
Most of the key informants, fifty percent, were educationists; mainly Circuit Supervisors, Assistant Directors and Directors. This was because the Researcher felt they are directly involved in the process of education so would have more in-depth knowledge about the subject matter. Parents, Security personnel and opinion leaders evenly consisted the other fifty percent.

#### **4.3 Causes of Conflicts in Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo**

As seen in Figure 4.1, most of the respondents felt the causes of the conflicts were mainly land and chieftaincy related with very marginal political influence.



**Figure 4.1 Causes of Conflicts**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

Figure 4.1 shows that, out of the respondents who were asked to identify the causes of ethnic conflict in the district, 59.9% think chieftaincy is the cause of ethnic conflict in the district, 36.6% also think land encroachment was the cause of the conflicts while 16.7% think conflict in the district occurs as a result of political interferences.



When a key informant who I prefer to call “Y” was asked about the role of chieftaincy in causing conflicts in the District, he had the following to say:

*“In Bunkpurugu we have several gates, but the chieftaincy title has been rotating between the Jamon and the Jafouk gates. The problem is that the Jafouk gate ruled continuously for two eras so when the Jamon gate also got hold of the skin, they insist they must stay there for two eras in equalization of their counterparts’ earlier two eras. The Jafouk gate members refused to agree to this and this has been the problem. We have been experiencing series of attacks and counter attacks between the two gates. The Nayiri, the overlord of Mamprugu land which Bunkpurugu is part has tried to intervene but to no avail. The accusation by the Jafouk gate members is that the current chief was appointed by the Nayiri because he is Nayiris nephew not because he merits it”.*

Almost all the key informants also agreed that land and chieftaincy were the main causes of the various waves of conflicts in the district. The Researcher also observed from the social interactions among the people that land and power were the most valuable resources in the district. The person with the largest farmland had almost been respected in the same way as a crowned chief. To protect their identity, people prefer to fight to death than let someone confiscate pieces of land they feel

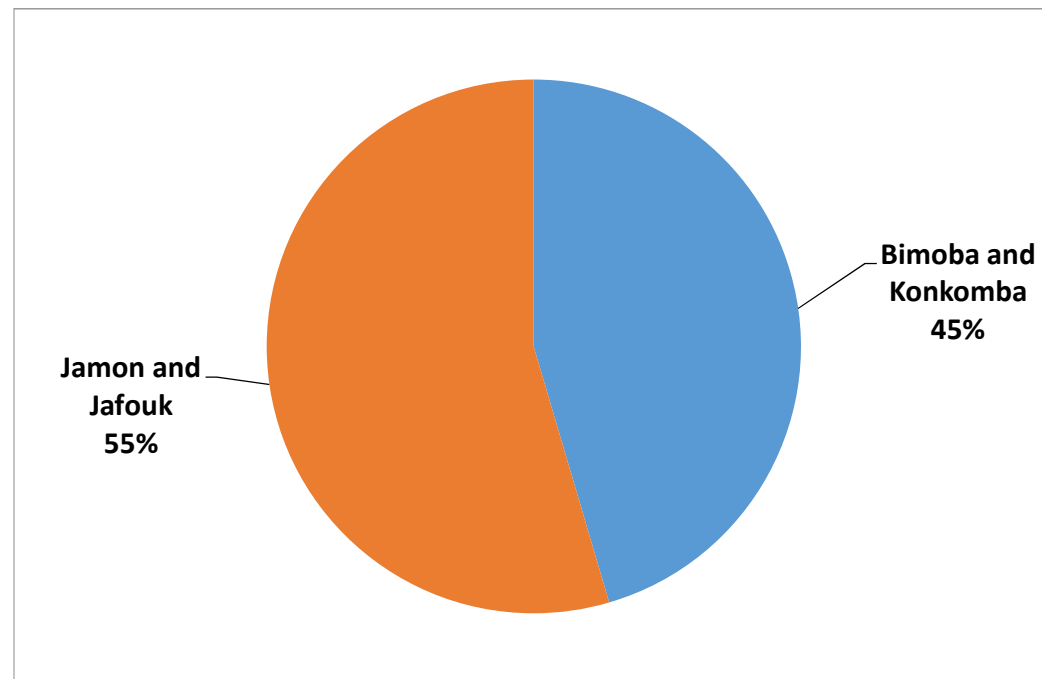


rightfully belong to them. This resonates with the deprivation theory, when people feel deprived of their entitlements like land and power, they do anything to reclaim their entitlements, and in this case wars are the only means.

When respondents were asked about the parties that are fighting one another, their responses were as shown below:

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**Figure 4.2 Conflicts Parties in Bunkpurugu**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

Some of the respondents mentioned the Bimoba and the Konkomba conflicts which had started since 1984 and the recurrent clashes between the Jamon and the Jafouk families over who rules Bunkpurugu. When I threw the same question to the key informants, I got the same response. This gave the researcher that the pronounced conflicts in the district were those between the Bimoba and the Konkombas and the two chieftaincy gates; Jamon and Jafouk. Naanden 2011 in addition to these mentioned the clashes between the Bimobas and the Mamprusis in Yunyoo and intra-tribal clash between the Tanmung and the puri in Bimbagu.

Respondents were further asked about the duration of the conflicts. Their responses are tabulated below:

**Table 4.3 Duration of Conflicts in Bunkpurugu**

<b>Conflicts Life span</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
1-5years	57	23.75
6-9 years	93	38.75
10 and Above	90	37.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>240</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

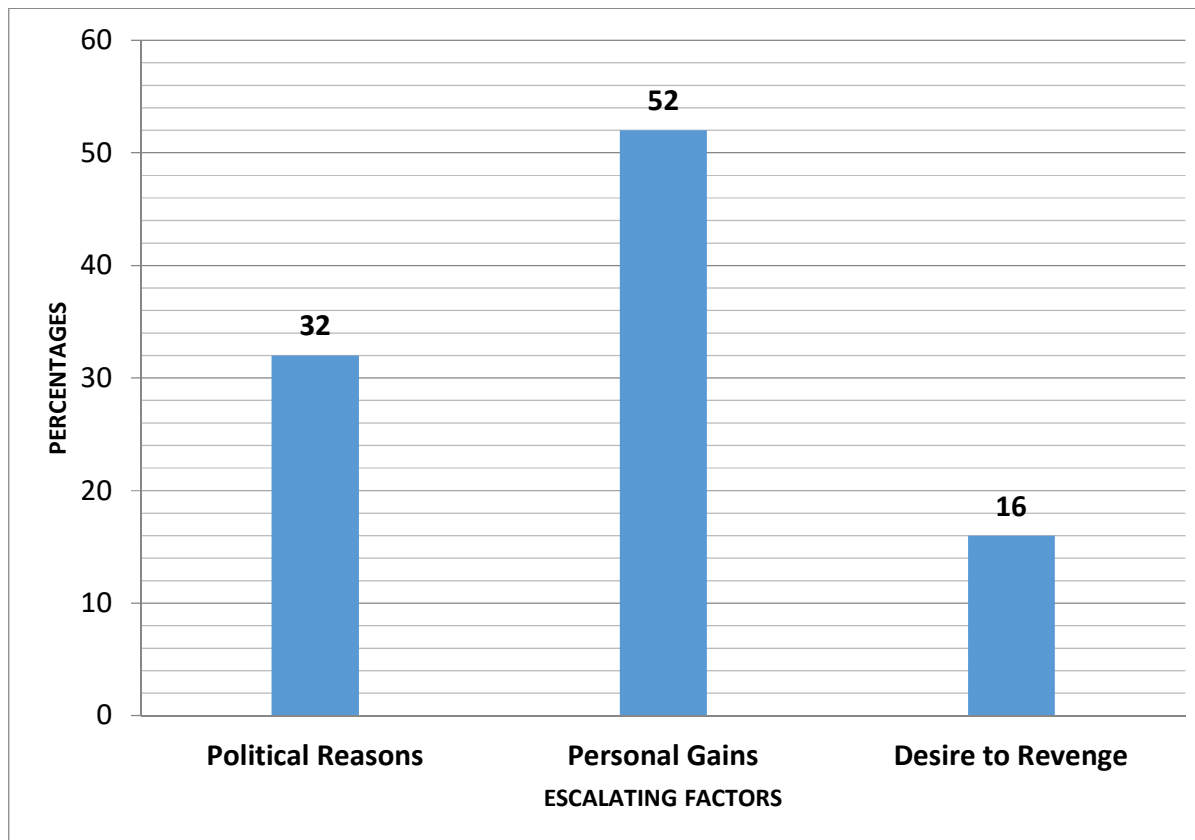




Out of 240 respondents, 57 mentioned that the conflicts lasted averagely over five years, 93 said nine years and 90 persons said they were above ten years. Most of the respondents who said the conflicts were just five years old were mostly students. Their responses might have been influenced by their ages as some of the conflicts might have been older than them. Adewobi, 2011 says the Bimoba Konkomba conflict is over thirty years. Since most of the respondents and the key informants agreed that Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo has been wrapped in conflicts for more than five years, the researcher wanted to know the factors that have been escalating the conflicts. When the researcher asked what has been escalating the conflicts their responses were as shown in the figure below.



**Figure 4.3 Factors that Escalate Conflicts in Bunkpurugu**



Source: Field Survey, 2016



From figure 4.3 above, 16% of the respondents said the desire to revenge the loss or distractions some groups suffer from the conflicts always makes the parties to remain aggressive and hostile, 52% of the respondents also thinks that conflicts escalate

because of the personal gains the parties have while 32% out of the total sample thinks that conflicts escalate because political parties seek to take advantage of the volatile situations to make political gains. These conform to the findings of Adedeji 2011 when he says conflicts are kept alive in Africa because those who benefit from it do not want it to end just soon.

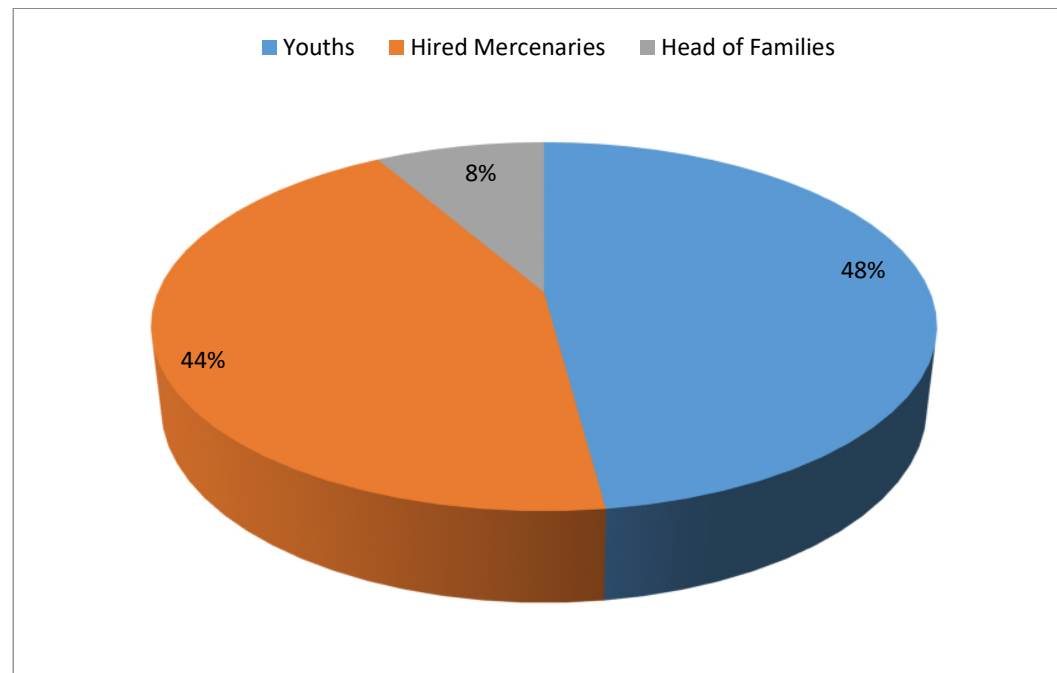
A key informant explains the escalating factors of the BYD conflicts as follows:

*Over here we value land because land is all we have. We are basically farmers, we use most of our land for agriculture. So if anyone tries to encroach on your land, you have to do everything you can to prevent it. If not your children will grow up and have no place to farm. This is why so many people are ready to shed blood to protect their lands. Again chieftaincy and land go together, so when people see the possibilities of they becoming a chief they lay claim to it even though they might not be necessarily right.*

The researcher further wanted to find out the combatants who fight the wars in BYD. When the Researcher asked which group of people normally fights the wars, the different responses are shown in the in Figure 4.6 below.



**Figure 4.4 Main Combatants' During Conflicts in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo**

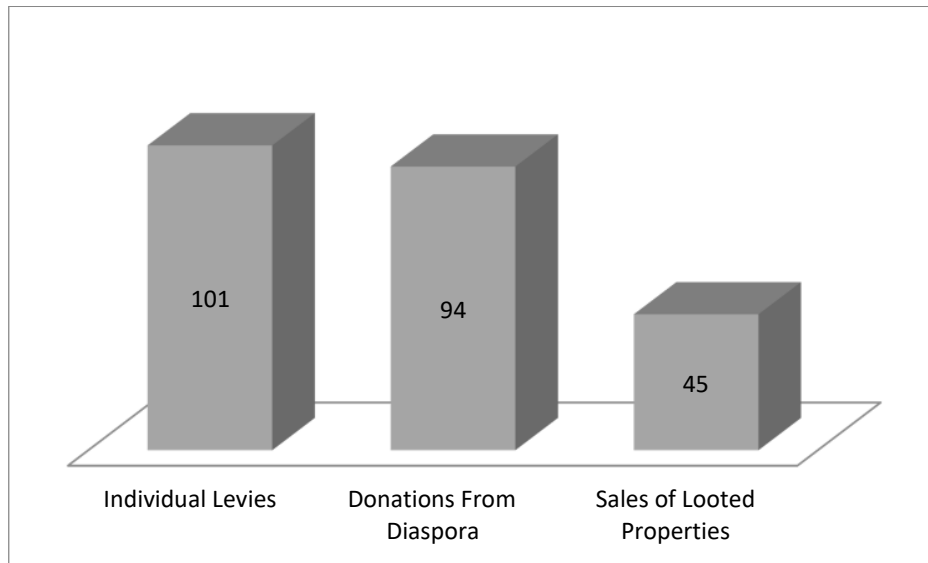


Source: Field Survey, 2016

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About 48% of the sampled respondents mentioned that the youths in the district were the very people who fought and killed each other. Interestingly, most of the youths in the district are of school going age. This means they choose going to war instead of school. Another 44% mentioned that some of the combatants are sometimes hired from other places especially those who were former enemies. Another question is where they get moneys for hiring and buying ammunitions. This question further prompted the researcher to enquire into the nature of conflict funding in Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo district.

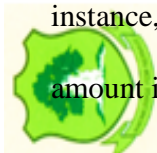
**Fig 4.5 Sources of Findings for the Wars**



**Source: Field Survey, 2016**

When the researcher asked how they are able to get money to pay their militias and also buy them ammunitions as shown in figure 4.5, 101 persons, representing 42% of the respondents mentioned that during conflicts, people are normally levied. For

instance, if it is an inter-ethnic clash, members of each ethnic group will be required to pay a certain amount. The pool amount is then used to purchase ammunitions or food stuff for the combatants.



Another 94 persons, representing 39.2% of the total respondents mentioned that those successful people from Bunkpurugu who are making it big in Accra, Kumasi or anywhere else are mostly the ones who foot the bills for any wars and supply sophisticated weapons for the combatants. This conforms with the views of Newman & Richmond, (2006), in “Obstacles to Peace Processes: Understanding Spoiling”, when he says behind every conflict are the activities of actors who are opposed to peaceful settlement for whatever reason, from within or (usually) outside the peace process, and who use violence or other means to disrupt the process in pursuit of their aims. Parties that join a peace process but then withdraw and obstruct, or threaten to obstruct, the process may also be termed “spoilers”. Similarly, there are parties that are a part of the peace process but which are not seriously interested in making compromises or committing to a peaceful end game. They may be using the peace process as a means of gaining recognition and legitimacy, gaining time, gaining material benefit, or avoiding sanctions, and thus can be described as having devious objectives.

Newman and Richmond conclude that “spoiling” includes actors who are geographically external to the conflict but who support internal „spoilers“ and „spoiling“ tactics: ethnic or national diaspora groups, states, political allies, multinational corporations, or any others who might benefit from violent conflict.



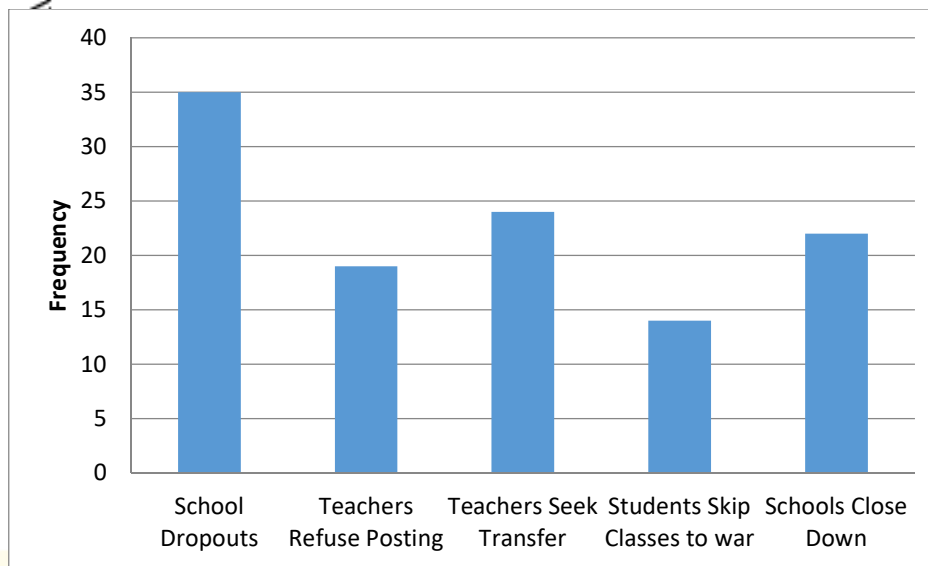
A key informant answered the Researcher this way when he was asked about the sources of funding for conflicting parties

*My daughter, the kind of ammunitions you see here during conflicts will tell you that no one in this town can afford any of those. Arms are usually supplied by those people who are indigenes of this place but have moved to bigger cities. They stay there and let us kill one another while they benefit directly from this bloodshed.*

#### 4.4 Effects of Conflict on Education

After knowing the causes and sources of funding for conflicts in Bunkpurugu, the Researcher's next objective was to know the effects of these conflicts on the academic activities of teachers. The researcher asked respondents who were students if they were aware of any effects the conflicts have had on education, their responses are tabulated below.

**Figure 4.6 Effects of Conflicts on General Educational Activities by Student respondents**

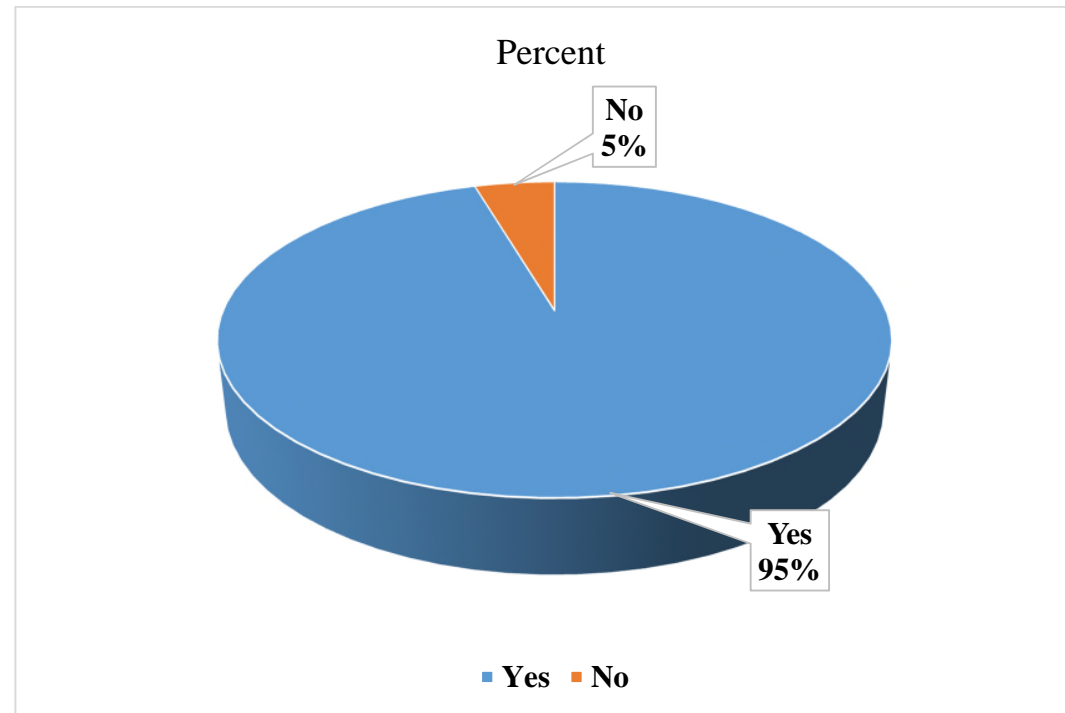


Source: Field Survey, 2016

From Figure 4.6, 35 pupils representing 30.4% of the pupil's respondents mentioned that many students stop going to school during conflicts for fear of been killed and parents withdraw their wards from school for security reasons. This group of respondents were further questioned if they knew individual students who have dropped out because of the conflicts, 95% of them answered in the affirmative as shown below.

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**Figure 4.7: Students who have dropped out because of the conflicts**



Source: Field Survey, 2016



A key informant corroborated this

*“Some of the children do not like school naturally so whenever there is a social disturbance like conflict, they use that as an excuse and stay away from school completely. Some too do run to areas where school is not easily accessible and may bury the idea of going to school. The ladies are sometimes the most victims. They may run for safety in another village where they may be either impregnated or married off. That always marks the end of the school”.*

*A teacher from Kpemale D/A primary confirmed that, student’s enrolment as at 2012 was 394 pupils and after the conflict for which the school had shut down for 2 years had 79 pupils as enrolment. He further said that he knows of some students that have abandoned school and left for head porter’s business ‘kayaye’ while some left the town to different communities. This is the indication that some students had dropout of school due to the conflict in the community.*

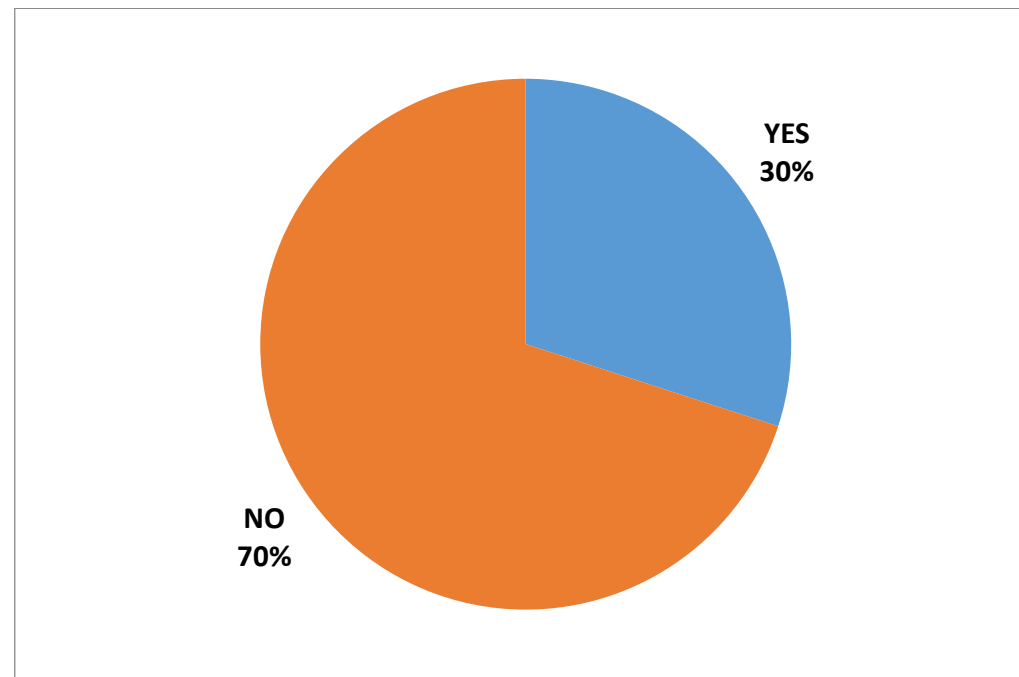
As indicated in figure 4.6, 19 persons, representing 16.5 percent mentioned that due to conflicts many teachers who are posted to the district refuse to come and teach in the district, 20.9 percent of the respondents said even the teachers who are already there seek transfers, 14 persons representing 12.2 percent of the total respondents mentioned that students often abandon schools and go to the forest to be trained as combatants, 22 persons mentioned that schools are often closed down during wars.

The researcher wanted to know if student respondents had ever gone to war. When the researcher posed the question have

you ever gone to war, their responses were as shown in figure 4.7.



**Figure 4.8: Respondents who have ever been to war**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

A total of 35 out of the 115 student respondents admitted to have gone to war. Of this 35, there was no female. This is because of the cultural belief that women do not go to war. The Researcher further asked how they were able to share their time between goings to school and going to war, 80 percent of those who admitted to going to war said they would hang their uniforms whenever they were to go to war. The other 20 percent refused to make their position known.



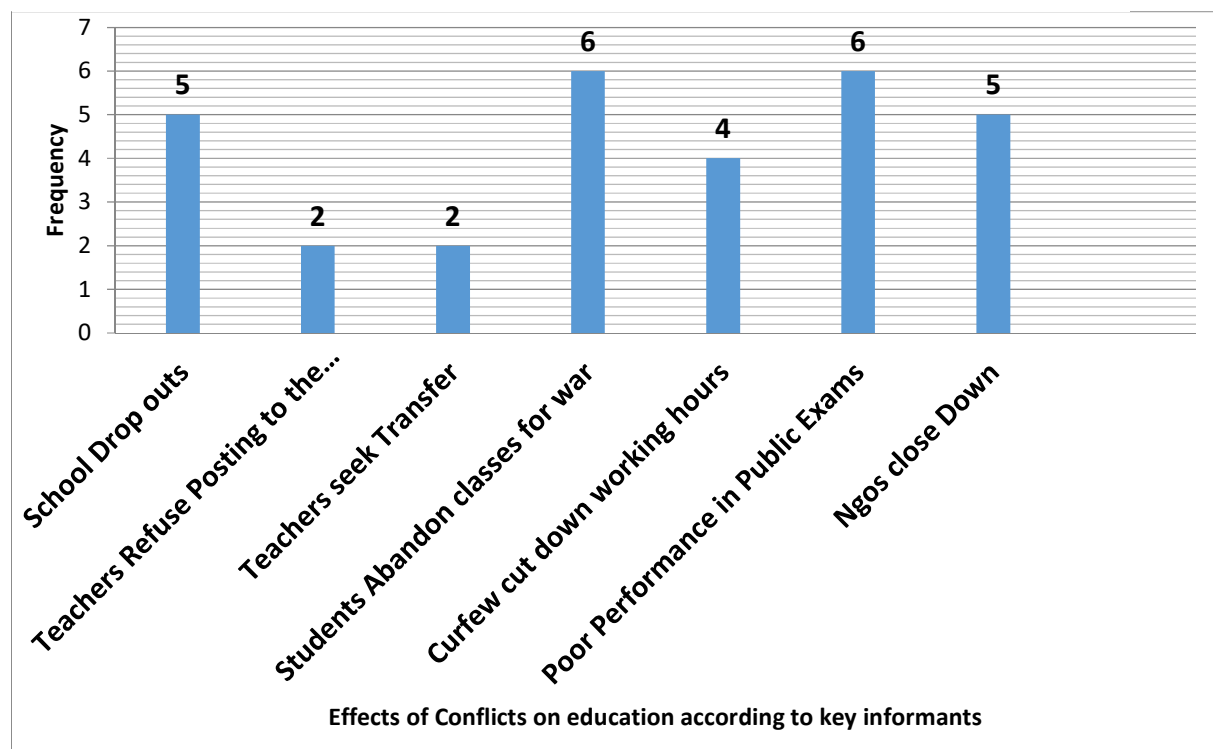
I asked the key informants if they will ever allow their child of school going age to go and fight in a battle. One of them had this to say

*My daughter, if enemies are approaching and you say your son should go to school rather than go to protect the clan, enemies would come and burn the school, kill you and kill the child so which is worst? Allowing them to go and fight or holding tight onto them. Besides, if the children of other clan's men are going and you single out yours not to go it doesn't speak well of you. Again, being able to fight in a war proves that you are a man. It is a value in itself. It shows you are ready to die for your clan; a very high level of altruism. Most of the youths here are students and they are the very people who go to fight for us when there is need.*

The key informants shared some views which were similar to the ones already shared by the respondents but added some points which were not mentioned by any of the respondents. When the Researcher probed respondents on what they felt are the effects of conflicts on education, their responses were as shown in the figure 4.7 below



**Figure 4.9: Effects of Conflicts on General Educational Activities According to Key Informants**

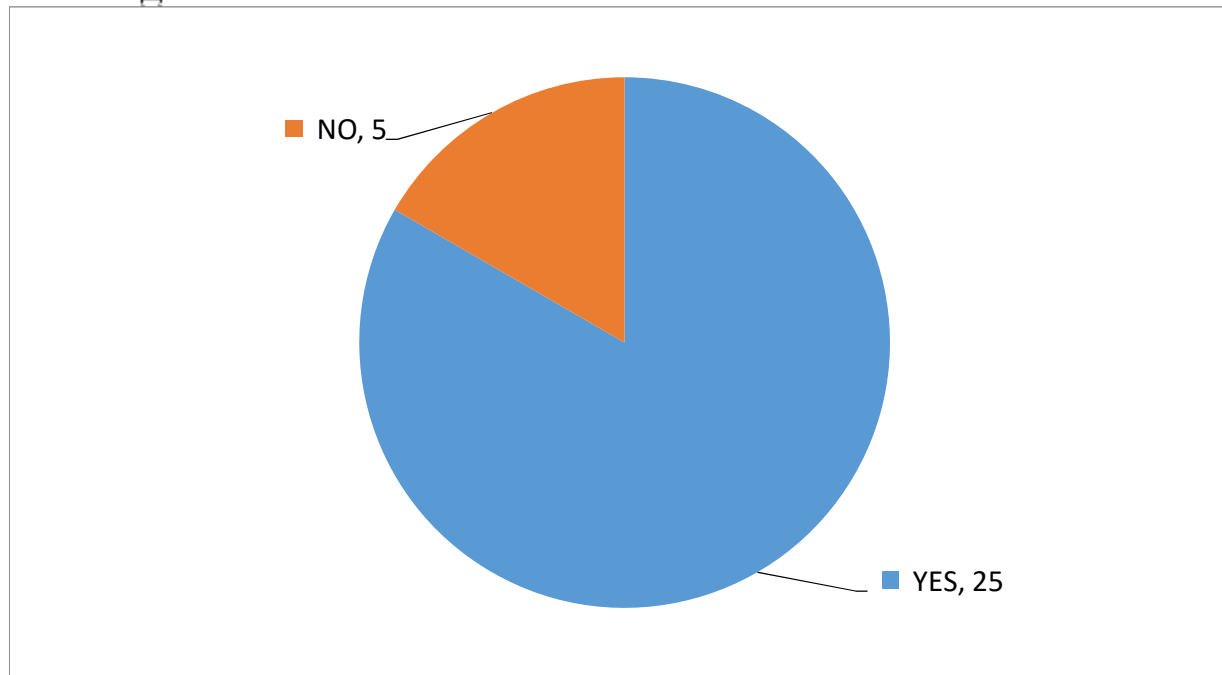


Source: Field Survey, 2016

As seen in Figure 4.9, 5 key informants mentioned that children drop out of school during conflicts, a view already shared by 35 percent of the respondents. Two key informants each agree with the 40 and 44 respondents who mentioned that teachers refuse postings to the regions and those there already seek to be transferred from the region. The points of variation in the responses of the key informants and the respondents are about curfew, NGO departure and performance in public examinations like BECE and WASCE. This is understandable because the sampled respondents were mostly teachers and students who were not involved in the administrative aspect of education.

Some key informants mentioned that the curfew which is often imposed within the district during conflicts often affect the closing time of education workers at the office. The researcher probed further to know whether any of the key informants had been directly affected by the curfew. When the researcher asked if any of them could not go to office or had to close earlier because of the conflict, their responses were as shown below.

**Figure 4.10: Respondents who lost working hours by going to war**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

A total of 25 of the key informants mentioned that they had to halt work earlier so as not disrespect the curfew hours, the other five said they have never had such an experience.

In furtherance, 3 key informants mentioned that some NGOs who were deeply involved in improving education have moved out of the district and 6 key informants mentioned that performance of students in public exams always drop low in years of conflict. The data the researcher received from the district office of education shows that there has been a consistent decline in the level of performance of students in BECE for the last five years. This is indicated in the table 4.4 below

**Table 1.4 Summary of BECE Result from 2009 -2016 in BYD**

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
<b>%passed (Aggregate 6-30)</b>	22.9	39.53	65.8	33.68	66.0	27.6	30.4	55.46
<b>Regional ranking</b>	18 <sup>th</sup>	13 <sup>th</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	11 <sup>th</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	5 <sup>th</sup>	6 <sup>th</sup>	8 <sup>th</sup>

*Source: GES, BYD, October 2016*

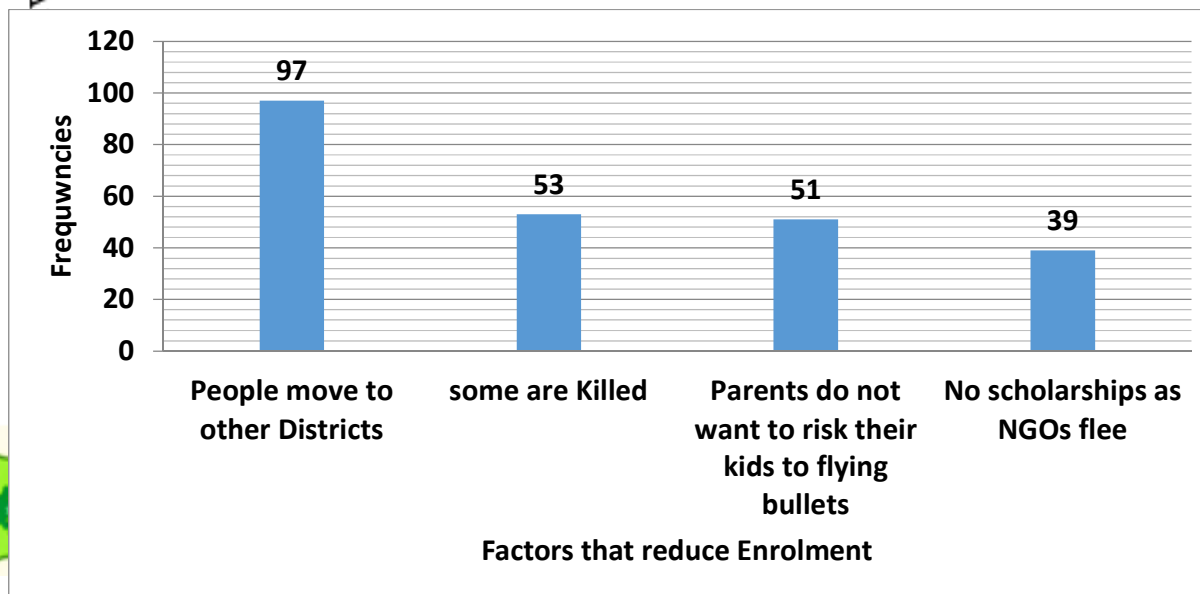


Over all, the responses show that all the respondents were aware of at least a few effects of conflicts on education. This level of awareness is partly due to their levels of education and age as shown in Tables 4. 1 and 4.2 respectively

#### 4.5: How Conflicts Affect Students Enrolment and Retention in Basic Schools in Bunkpurugu

The researcher wanted to find out of how the conflict affected the number of students who enroll in school over the conflict years. When respondents were asked whether or not the conflicts reduce the number of students who turn up for admissions in various levels of basic education their responses were as captured below.

Figure 4.11: Factors that Reduce School Enrolment



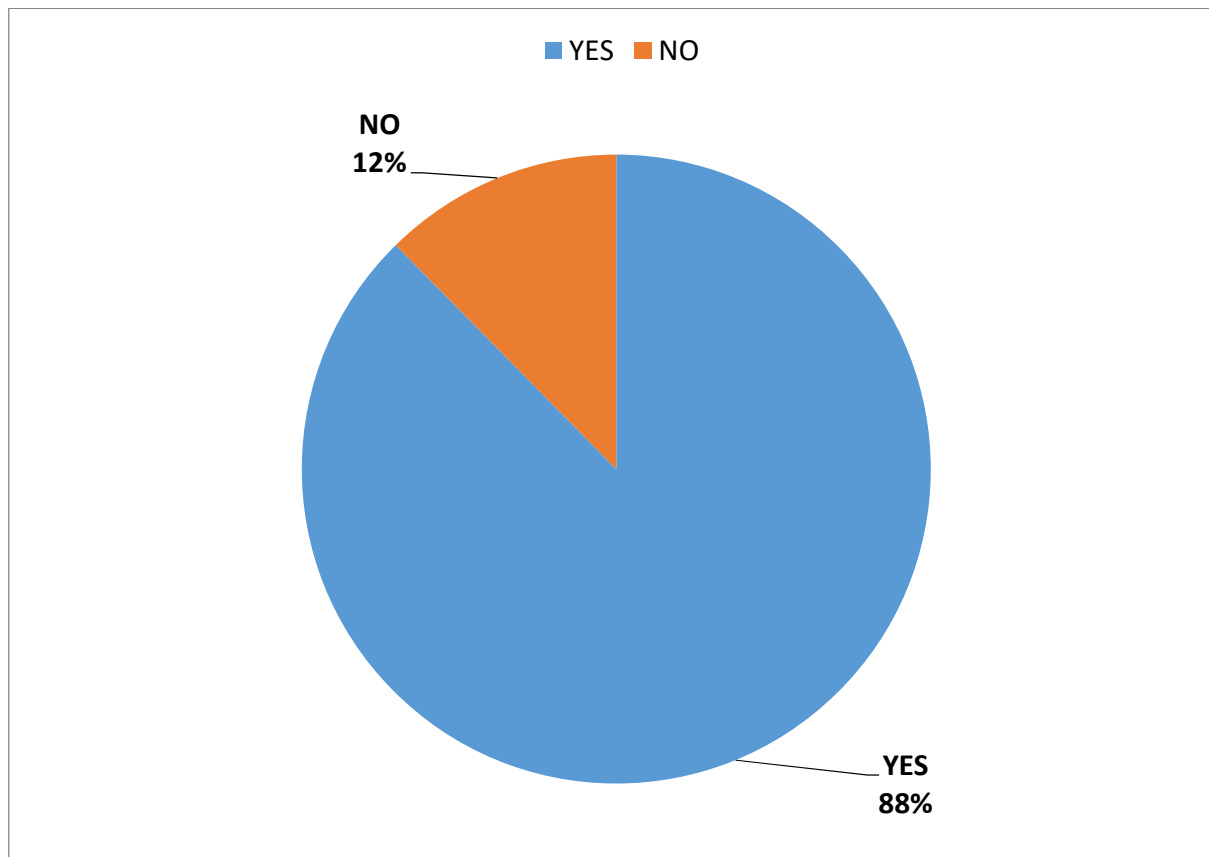
Source: Field Survey, 2016

From figure 4.11, 97 respondents mentioned that because of the conflicts, many people have migrated from the district to other safer areas, thus, reducing the population of the people in the district and definitely the number of prospecting students who would have turned up for admissions. When The Researcher asked these 97 persons whether they knew specifically any individual who would have been enrolled into school but has been displaced by the conflict, 85 of them responded in the affirmative.





**Figure 4.12: Those who know or do not know specific students who dropped out**



Source: Field Survey, 2016



Some mentioned that they know of families who have moved to other nearby villages and some have gone as far as Togo.

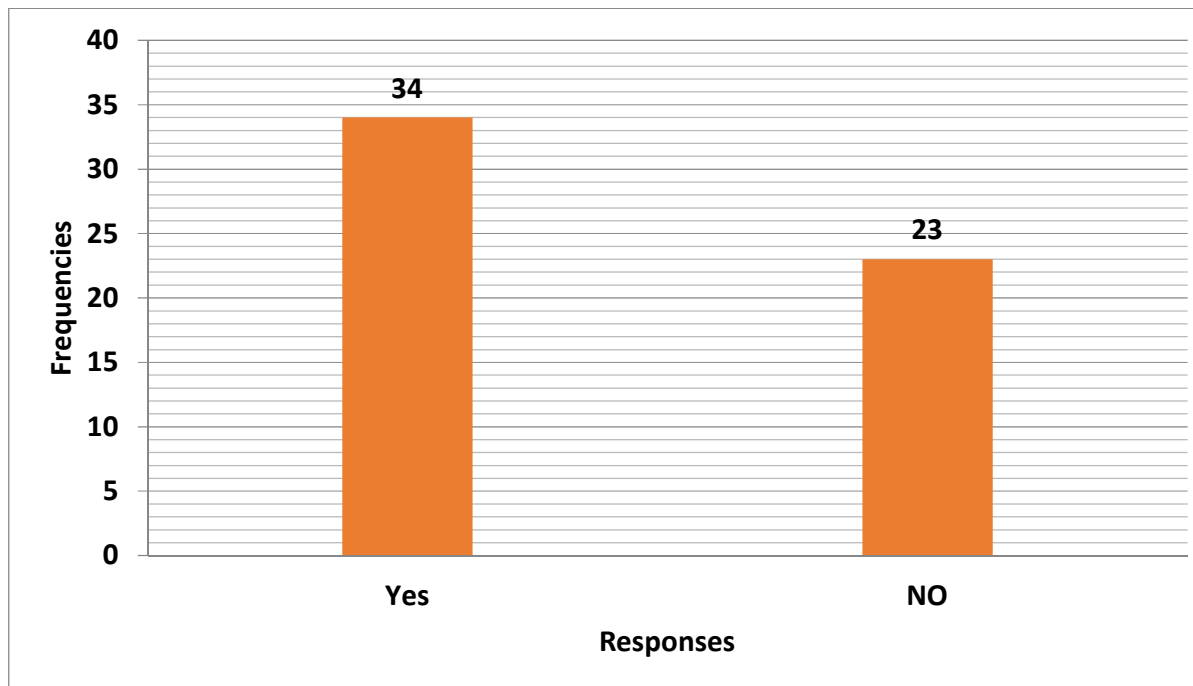
They were further asked if they knew if the displaced children were able to get enrolled into schools where they were, 55 of

the 97 persons mentioned that most of them were still at home and that it was especially difficult for those who fled to Togo because they were still in refugee camps.

A total of 53 of the total respondents mentioned that some of the prospecting students were killed by indiscriminate bullets from the wars thus reducing the number of enrolment. A follow up question was if they knew any prospecting student who was shot dead by an enemy bullet. Their responses were as shown below.



**Fig 4.13: Knowledge of any specific Prospecting Student that was shot dead**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

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Inferred from Figure 4.13, 34 of the 57 persons who mentioned that they knew prospecting students who had been killed, the other 24 said they knew children who died as a result of the conflict but not necessarily by bullets but by hunger and diseases which emanated necessarily as a result of the conflicts. The West African Network for Peace-Building WANEB, (2016), also mentioned that most of the people who are often affected in the conflicts within the districts are children and women, thus confirming the position of these respondents.



Another 51 of the respondents mentioned that parents do not want to risk their children to flying bullets by pushing them to school during conflicts. They said once there is conflict, parents are not so enthused about bringing their children to school and some even come to withdraw their wards from school for safety reasons, thus affecting enrolment and retention.

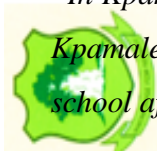
16 percent of the respondents mentioned that some students had to leave school because the NGOs which were supporting them with school uniforms and stationaries have flee the area due to the persistent conflicts in the District.

Some of the key informants also confirmed that enrolment and retention in schools have been reduced due to conflicts in the districts. One of them have this to say,

*I teach in one of the basic schools, from 2007-2012, enrolments into class one were 37, 43,46,51,and 55 respectively, but since the Jamon amd the Jafouk chieftaincy conflict reignited at the end of 2013, enrolments have dropped to 42, 31 and 33 respectively. These are highly significant figures in just my school alone, so you can imagine the aggregated reduction in total enrolments in schools across the district. It is not just enrolments alone, retention has become increasingly difficult as parents withdraw their wards from school almost daily due to the fear that their children might be killed.*

Another key informant in Kpemale also said;

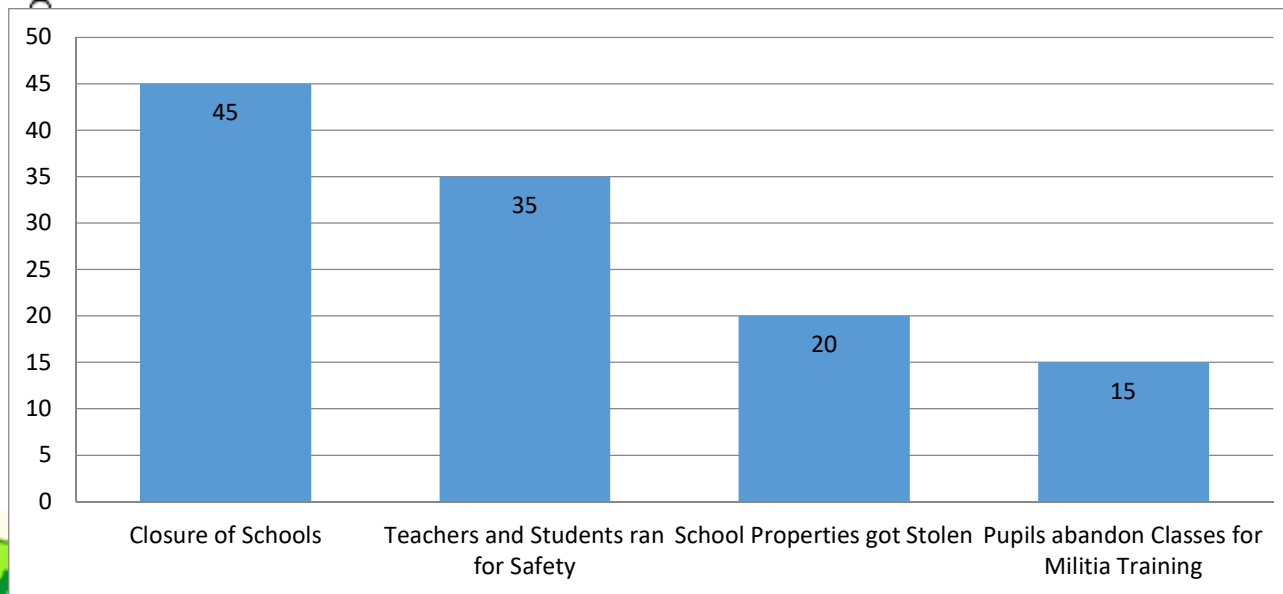
*“In Kpamale, during the 2012 Konkomba/Bimoba Conflict, enrolment was affected drastically in the ensuing academic year. Kpamale D/A had a total population of 394 students in 2012 alone but had it dropped to a total of 79 students in the whole school after it was shut for about two years due to the conflict”.*



#### 4.6 Effects of Conflicts on Academic Activities of Basic Schools in Bunkpurugu

The Researcher was interested in knowing if conflict interrupted the academic activities of the schools like, lessons, closing time, and preps hours if there are any since the conflict was mostly fought at night. When respondents were asked whether or not the conflict interfered with academic activities, their responses were as shown in Figure 4.14.

**Figure 4.14 Effects of Conflicts on Academic Activities of Basic Schools According to Respondents who were students/pupils**

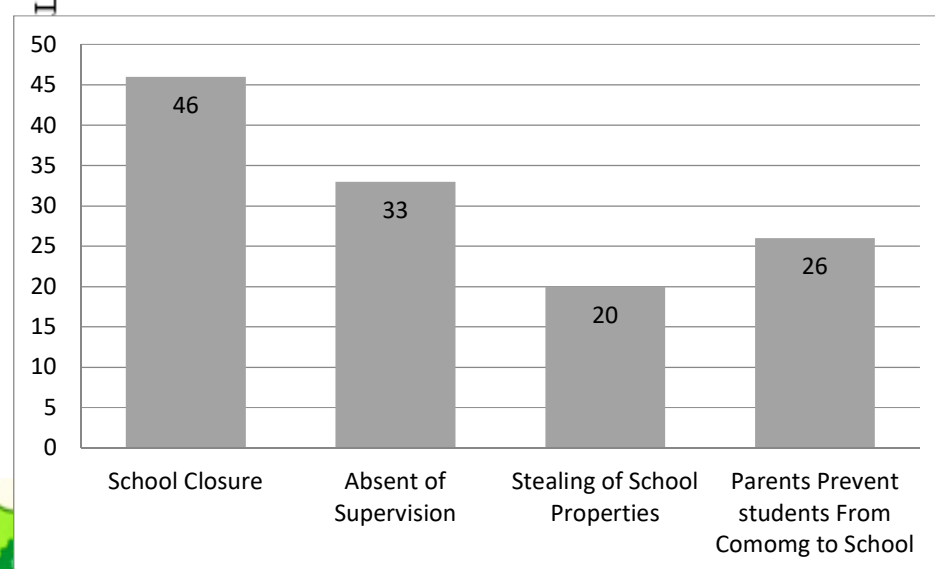


Source: Field Survey, 2016

45 students representing 38.7% of the respondents who were students mentioned that schools were vacated during conflicts as students and teachers would not risk their lives for teaching and learning activities. They said some even remain at home even after situations are better. 35 students representing 30.1% of students who were respondents mentioned that many teachers and students run for their lives in the wake of any conflicts. 20 students also mentioned that some of the school properties get stolen. These responses were not so much varied from the responses of other respondents who were not students.

When the researcher asked the respondents who were not teachers about whether they knew of any direct effects of the conflicts on academic activities, their responses were as shown in figure 4.15 below

**Figure 4.15: How conflicts Disrupt Academic Activities by Parents and Teachers**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

45 persons representing 36.3 percent of the respondents who were not students mentioned that teaching and learning stops and schools close down once conflict breaks up. They further said sometimes both teachers and students fear to go to class for fear of being killed. A follow up question was if the conflicts pose real danger to teachers' lives or students' lives during school hours, 95 of the 112 respondents said the fear of death is always real but the other 12 said that sometimes lazy teachers and students take advantage of the conflict to perpetuate their lazy nature.

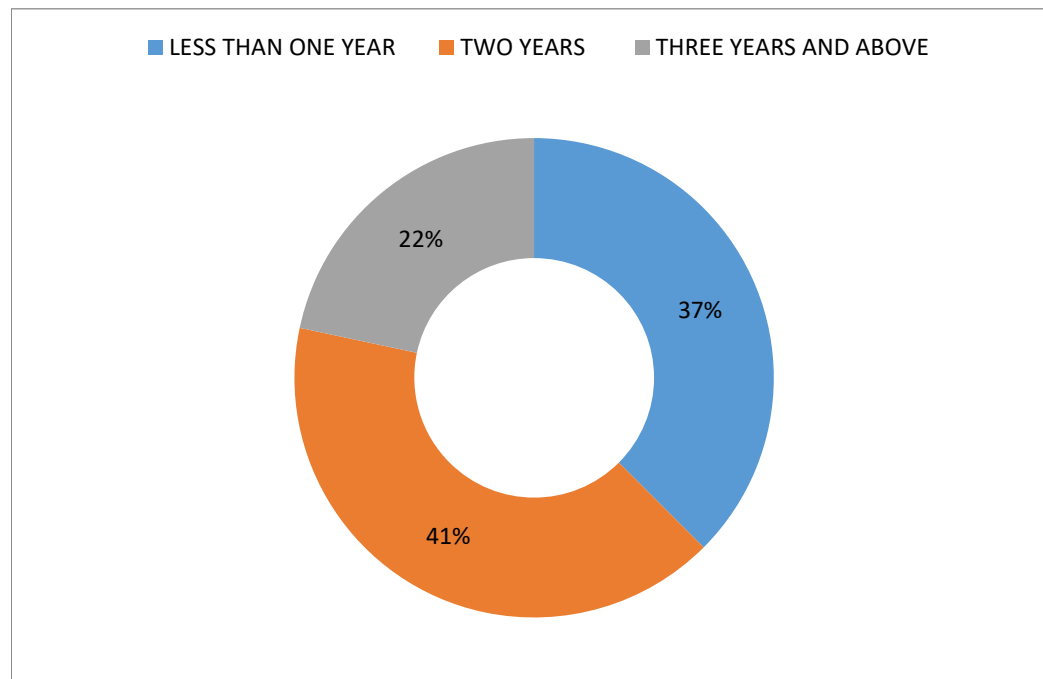
33 persons of the respondents representing 25.3% of the respondents who were not students mentioned that supervision stops once conflict breaks up and that since humans always work better under supervision teaching and learning is always affected.

26 persons also mentioned that during conflicts parents prevent their wards from coming to school, thus teaching and learning is affected. Another 20 persons representing 17.8% of the respondents who were not students mentioned that sometimes schools are burnt down during conflicts and the items such as desks, tables, computers and textbooks might either be stolen or destroyed. When respondents were asked if they have seen a school that has been burnt down or a school that had its desks and other teaching and learning materials destroyed, 15 of them responded in the affirmative the other 11 said they have only heard of it but they have never seen. This however, contradicts the data I got from WANEBA which says that throughout the

conflict, no public school has been destroyed. The researcher did not also notice any burnt school but there were desks and tables in some homes with school names written on them, this suggest they were taken from the school.



**Figure 4.16: Duration Schools were shut down during Conflicts By All respondents**



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Source: Field Survey, 2016





Figure 4.16 shows 41 percent of the total respondents said they knew schools which closed down for at least two years within Kpamale community. Another 37% percent said schools were closed down for less than a year and per 22 percent of the total population said they knew schools that were closed for more than three years.

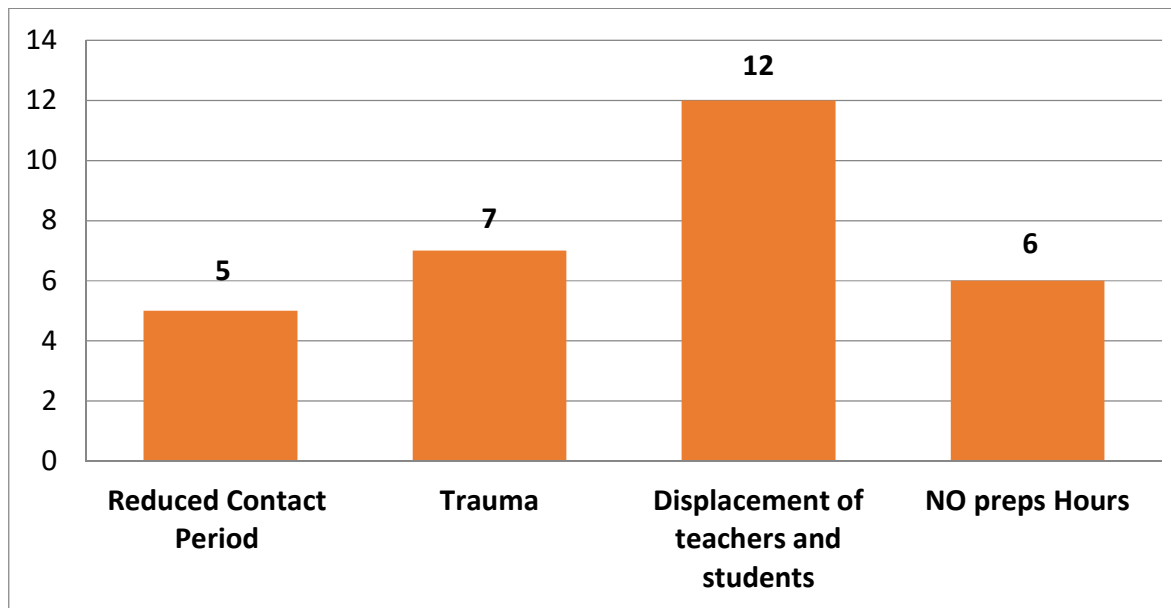
Key Informants also confirmed that some schools are always closed down especially those considered to be within the flash points. One of the key informants had this to say

*Officially, about ten schools were closed in Nakpanduri and all the nearby communities during the 2012 Bimoba/Konkomba conflicts in Kpamale. But unofficially many more schools in Bunkpurugu district were abandoned. It took up to a week or two before teachers and students began to reappear in some schools.*

Key informants were asked whether or not the various waves of conflicts within the district affected academic activities, there responses were as shown in Figure 4.16.



**Figure 4.17: How Conflicts affected academic activities by Key Informants**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

Answers of the key informants and the respondents on how the conflicts affected academic activities in the district are not exactly the same. While the respondents dwelled much on physical structures, the key informants included the psyche of the students and teachers. 12 of the 30 key informants agreed that teachers were displaced during the conflicts. Six of them mentioned that Preparation period which students use to study was removed in compliance with the curfew hours. 7 of them mentioned that the students were traumatised and not psychologically fit for any academic activities. Other 5 respondents

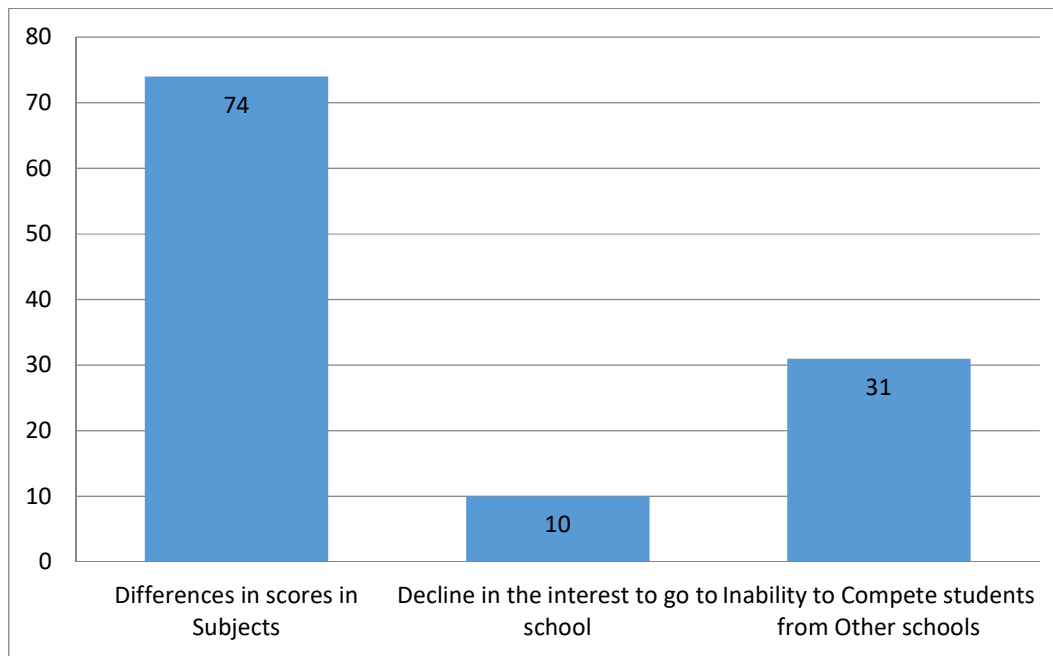
mentioned that contact hours between teachers and students were reduced as some schools had to close earlier than the usual time and some days, teaching does not take place at all. One of the key informants puts it this way

*How do you expect students to learn in such an environment? Teaching and learning need a congenial environment and not what we have over here. Sometimes during school hours we hear gun shots and see smoke billowing from burning houses. We all get scared, students and teachers alike. Once the mind is unstable, the brain cannot absorb anything. This is why our performance at BECE of recent times has become abysmal. It is all because the environment is not very good for learning to take place.*

In furtherance, the Researcher asked the student respondents if they have noticed some discrepancies in their academic performance between when calm was restored in the district and when the recent uprising was reignited, 80 out of the 115 students responded in the affirmative. The Researcher further asked how they are able to note the difference since they don't assess themselves, their responses are shown Figure 4.17 above.



**Figure 4.18: Indicators of Reduced Academic Performance**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

Seventy- four (74) of the students mentioned that they were able to note the decline in their academic performance because their scores in the core subjects like mathematics, integrated science and Social Studies had fallen as compared to the period of calm. Thirty-one (31) said they realised the decline when they couldn't match up with their colleagues in zonal competitions and the remaining 10 said their interest in academics in general had declined.

#### **4.7 How Conflicts can be Resolved and Prevented in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District**

For the analysis of how conflicts can be prevented in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo district, the researcher wanted to first of all understand the conflict resolution mechanisms and how they have been implemented, the researcher, first of all, attempted to understand the traditional conflict resolution mechanisms in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo district. As put forward by **emic** and **etic theorists**, culture is relevant to conflict resolution. Emic approach in particular emphasizes the use of relevant native terms and institutions. To this end, the researcher probed the extent to which traditional conflict resolution mechanisms were applied in the various conflicts that engulfed the district. She then examined the various conflict resolution mechanisms employed in a bid to resolve the conflicts.

#### **4.8 Conflict Resolution Mechanisms in Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District**

This section evaluates the conflict resolution mechanisms in place in BYD which individuals, agencies and institutions have adopted in an attempt to resolve past and present conflicts in the District.

##### **4.8.1 The Traditional Council**

As indicated in figure 4.5 below, when asked about the conflict resolution mechanisms in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo, 120 respondents representing 60% of the total respondents mentioned the Traditional Council as one of the mechanisms



**Table 4.5 Conflict Resolution Mechanisms in BYD**

<b>Mechanism</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Police/military	90	37.5
Traditional council	120	60
Legal system	20	8.3
Commissions of enquiry	10	4.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>240</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

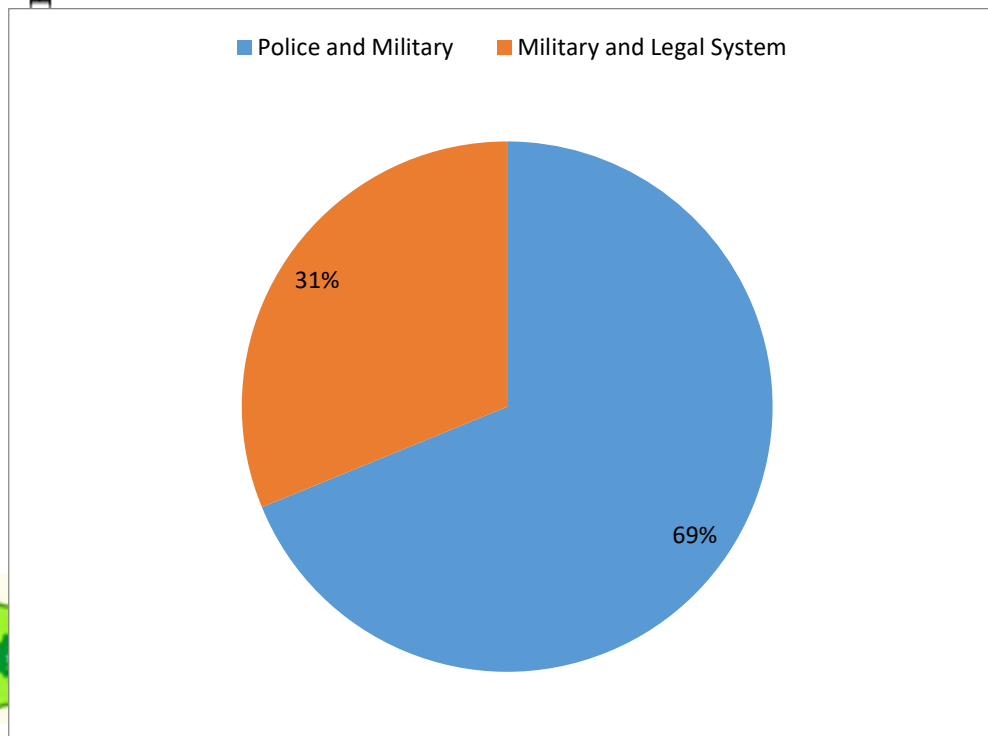
They said the traditional council is in charge with settling conflicts amongst the people of Bunkpurugu. When the researcher further asked how exactly the council resolves conflicts, 21 of those who mentioned the traditional council further explained that a customary practice called blood burial is usually done so that the blood of those shed during the conflicts will be cleared and that anyone who sheds blood any further will incur the wrath of the gods.

Apart from the Traditional methods of conflict resolution, respondents also mentioned other mechanisms of conflict resolution in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo. These included Police and Military, Committees of enquiry and the legal system. Ninety (90) persons, representing 37.5% of the respondents who were not students mentioned police and military as one of the

mechanisms of conflict resolution in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo. Twenty persons, representing 8.3% of the total respondents mentioned the legal system and another ten persons mentioned a committee of enquiry.

When the Researcher asked if any of these mechanisms was applied in addition with the traditional council in the resolution process, their answers were as below.

**Figure 4.19: Mechanisms used along with the Traditional Council**

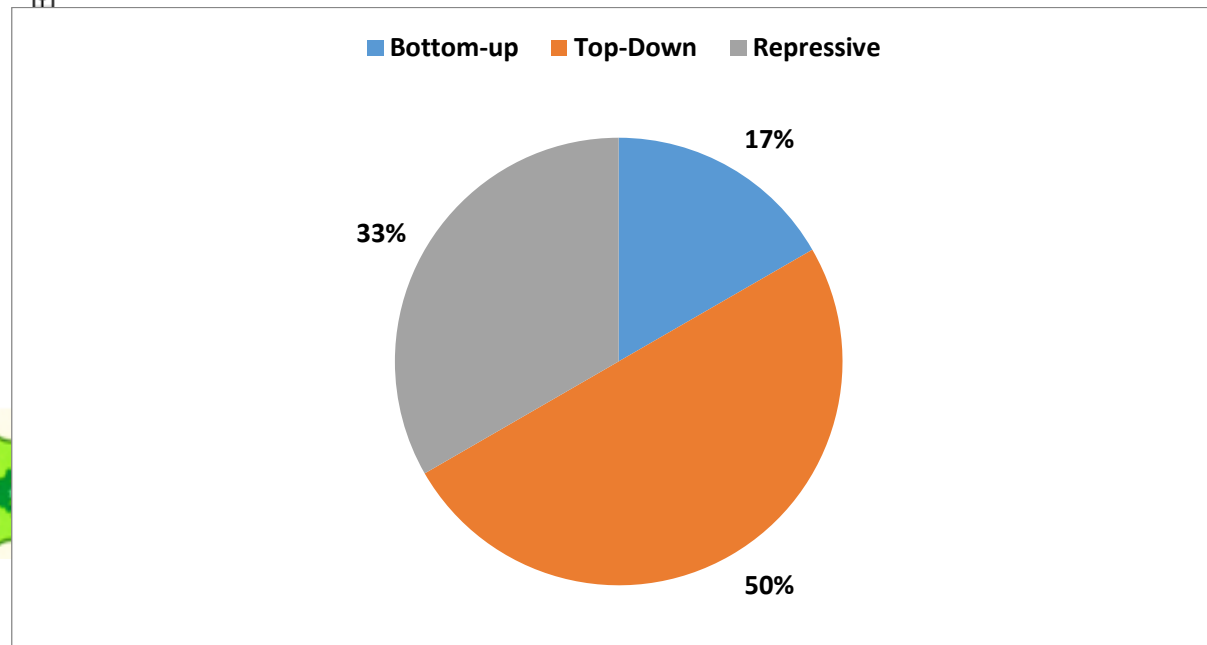


Source: Field Survey, 2016

From Figure 4.19, 85 respondents, representing 69% of the respondents who were not students mentioned that the police and the military were used alongside the traditional council in trying to address the conflicts. Another 39 persons, representing about 31% of the respondents who were not students mentioned that legal system was also used.

The researcher wanted to know how these mechanisms were applied. Whether or not there was consultation. When she asked how the mechanisms were applied, their responses are captured in figure 4.20 below.

**Figure 4.20: How conflict Resolution Mechanisms were applied**



Source: Field Survey, 2016.



A valid percentage of 50.0% thought the approach was top-down. They felt the aggrieved persons were not consulted and that people just sat somewhere and proffered solution to the conflict ignoring the internal dynamics of the conflict. A valid percentage of 33.0% also thought that the approach was repressive. They felt the real issues were not addressed that the military and police used the power of the gun to repress the clashes but no concrete effort was made to resolve the conflicts by the government. A key informant says

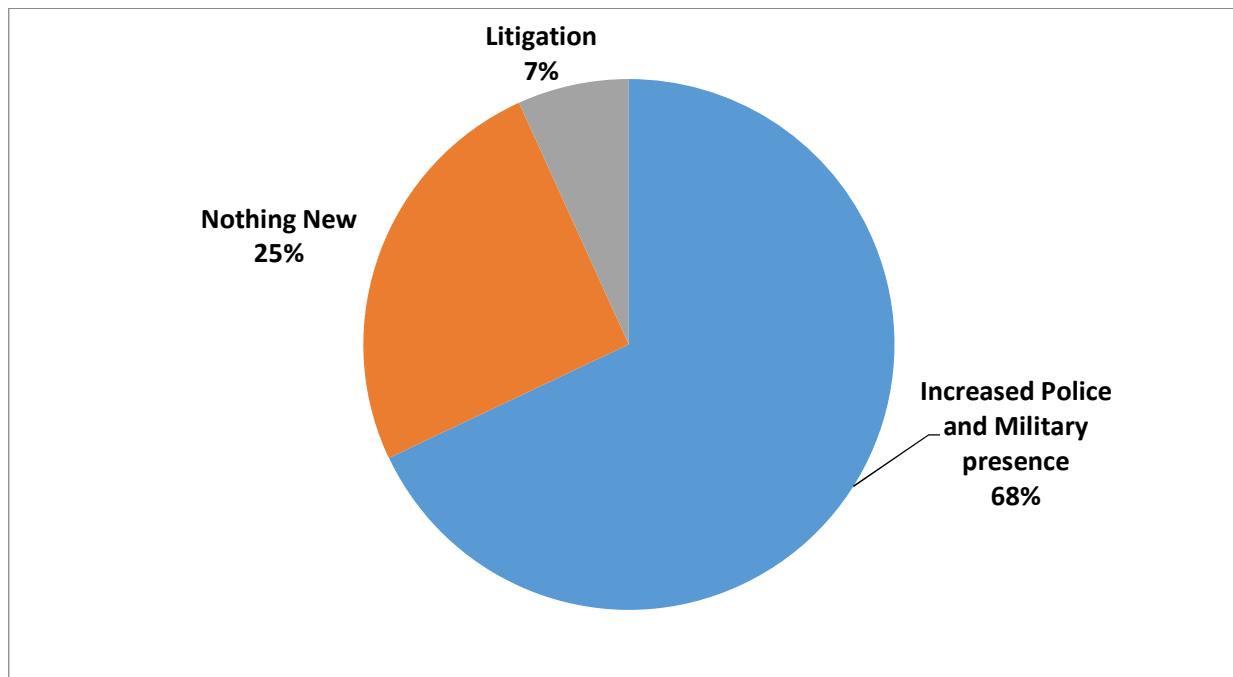
*“when you want to settle two people who are fighting, you try to arrive at the bone of contention, you put blame where it should be and ask the offending party to apologize to the offended so that issues could be resolved, but when you bring police to force reconciliation on us without addressing the real issues then you are forcing the warring parties to fake reconciliation and repressed the ugly truth which would eventually come out uglier than it was. This is what we see here. When there is fight, police would come and force us to stop fighting but the real issues are not addressed”*

#### **4.9 How the Previous Conflicts Were Managed**

The focus of this section was essentially to identify the new measures put in place to prevent the reoccurrence of the conflict after the 2016 clash between the Jamon and the Jafouk gates in Bunkpurugu Township and the 2017 clash between the Tamon and the Bouk families. For that purpose, the researcher sought to discover the new management mechanisms that were adopted after the 2017 clash. To this question their responses were as shown below:



**Figure 4.21: How the previous conflict was managed**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

68% of the respondents who were not students said there was increased police and military presence. After the June 4<sup>th</sup> attack, a dusk to dawn curfew was imposed on Bunkpurugu Township which was later shifted to begin from 9.00pm till 6.00am after a good number of police and military personnel had been deployed. 38 persons representing 25% of the respondents also said nothing new was done apart from the usual activity of police and military deployment, and about just

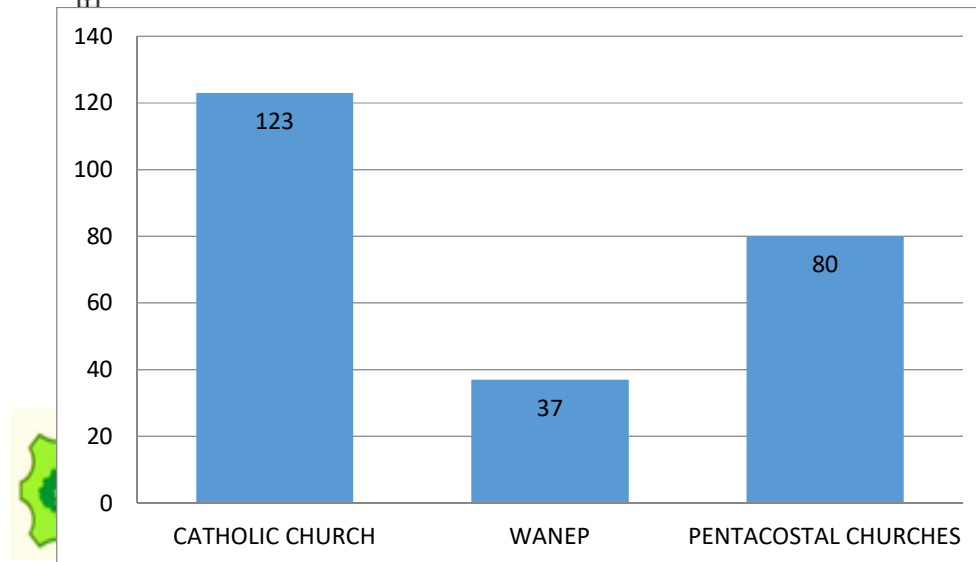


7.0% of the respondents who were not students mentioned the legal system. They said some of the cases were referred to the court for adjudication but there has not been any ruling yet.

#### **4.9 Role played by Civil Society Organisations in resolving the Conflict.**

The focus of this session was to find out the efforts put by some civil society organizations other than the government to arrest the waves of conflicts in the district. When asked about which organizations has ever helped in resolving any of the conflicts in the districts, they answered this way.

**Figure 4.22: Organizations that helped to resolve the conflicts**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

Deducing from Figure 4.22, 123 persons mentioned the Catholic Church, 80 persons mentioned the Pentecostal churches and the other 37 persons cited the WANEB

A follow up question was on the roles they played in resolving the conflicts, their answers were as shown in table 4.6.

**Table 4.6 Roles Played by Civil Society Organizations to help resolve the conflict By Parents and Teachers**

Roles	Frequency
Mediation	81
Education	25
Relief Materials	19
<b>Total</b>	<b>125</b>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

81 persons, representing 62.1 percent of the total respondents mentioned that the Catholic Church has been involved in mediation between parties since the three-decade old conflict between the Konkombas and the Bimobas started in 1984.

Another 25 persons, representing 16.3 percent of the respondents mentioned education by both the Catholic Church and the West African Network for Peace-building (WANEP). A valid percentage of 28.3 mentioned that WANEP and the Catholic Church supported them with relief materials when they had virtually nothing to live on. A 63-year-old farmer has this to say

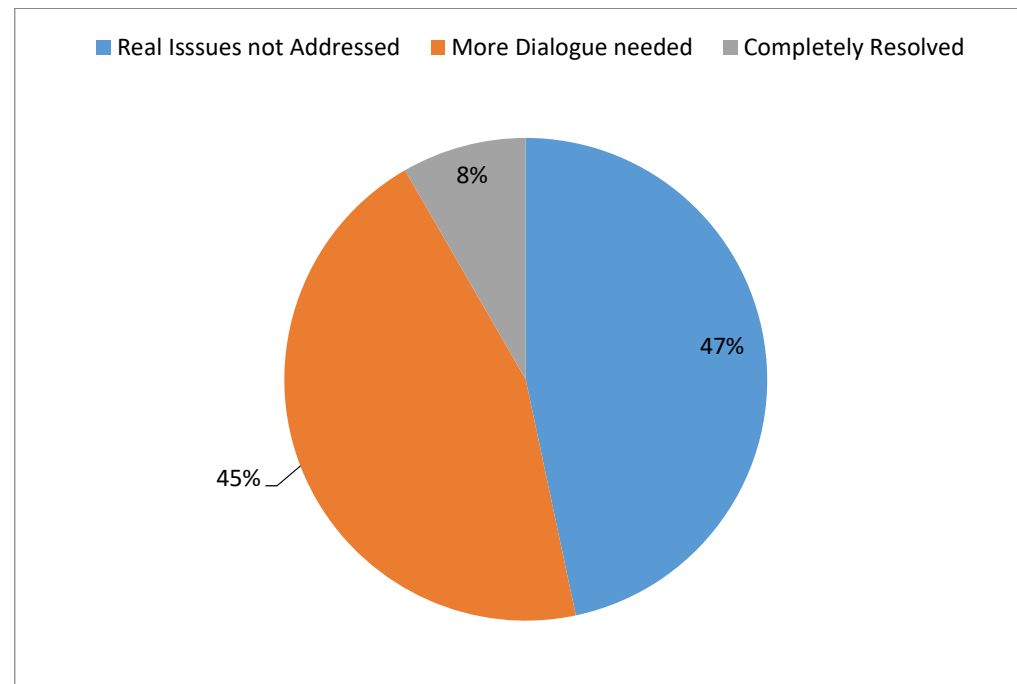
*“When I ran from Gbagbanlacet to this place, I had virtually nothing to live on. I had no food to feed my family, no cloth and no sleeping place. The Catholic Church really intervened in my life during this crisis. They provided us food periodically and whenever we ran out of food items we called on them and they will supply to us. This continued until the next farming season when we were able to cultivate our own food. They even provided us with farm inputs like seeds, fertilizers and weedicides. WANEP also helped us a lot; they also provided farm inputs for our women and sometimes give us relief materials in forms of clothing, beddings and cooking oil” ( KI, 2016)*

#### **4.10 Is the Conflict Completely Resolved?**

The focus of this session was to find out how the people feel about the conflict. The researcher attempted to find out if the people feel their grievances have been addressed and that whether or not there might not be any renew clashes. To this question, as indicated in figure 4.23 below, a valid percentage of 47.0% felt the conflict is yet to be resolved because the real issues have not been properly addressed.



**Figure 4.23: Opinion of respondents on the state of the conflict**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

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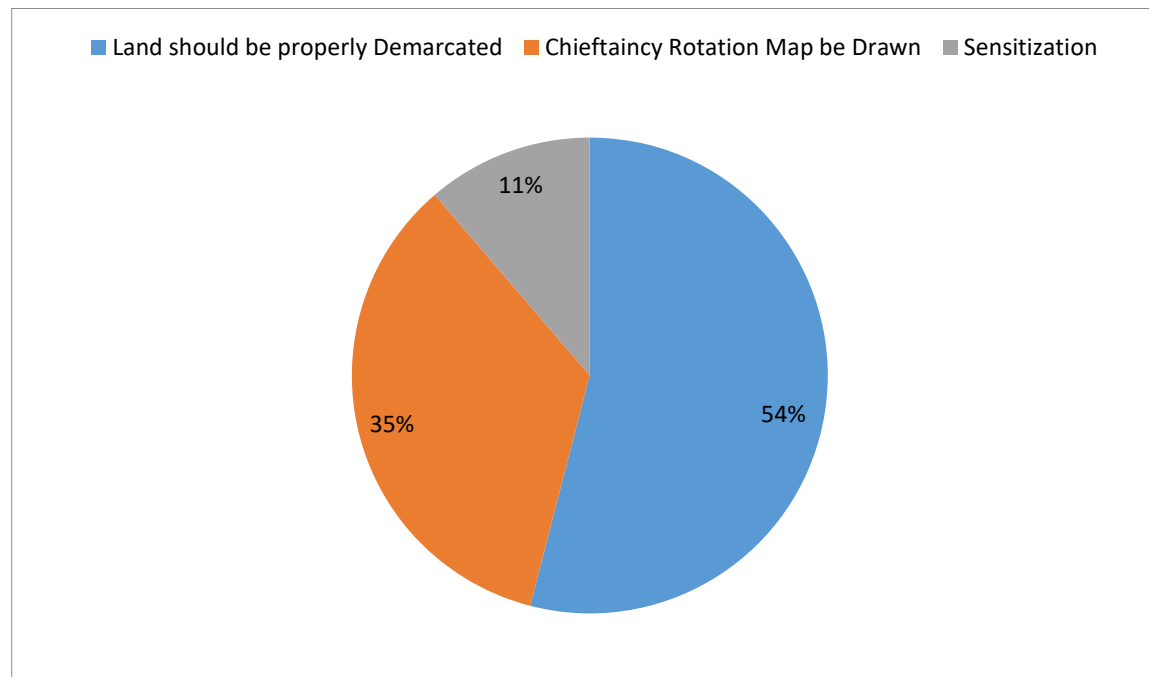
They said the real issues were land encroachment, arbitrary installation of chiefs and who owes what land. 45% of the respondents opined that until these issues are properly addressed and blame apportioned and apologies made the conflict cannot be said to be completely resolved. Only 8 percent of the total respondents felt the conflict was completely resolved.

#### **4.11 What should be done to End the conflicts**

The focus of this session was to find out how, in the opinion of the respondents, the conflicts could be resolved. To arrive at this, the researcher excluded the students' respondents and concentrated on the other respondents. This was because the researcher the students were too inexperienced to have any meaning answers to questions that were concerned with conflict resolution. The other respondents were totalled 124. When asked what they think could be done to resolve the conflict completely.



**Figure 4.24: What should be done to resolve the Conflicts by non-student respondents**



Source: Field Survey, 2016

To this, about 63 respondents, representing 54.0% of the total respondents who were not students said that government should redistribute land, and 47 persons representing 35.0% of the respondents said Regional House of Chief should ensure a clearly mapped out chieftaincy rotation cycle is drawn in Bunkpurugu Chieftaincy to ensure smooth installation of chiefs, and some other 14 respondents mentioned the need for public sensitisation on the need to employ dialogue in settling misunderstandings rather than resorting to violence.





## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the summary of the findings from the analysis made in chapter four of the study are presented. These findings were revealed after a close study and analysis of responses from interviewees to both the structured questionnaires and unstructured questions the Researcher posed on some respondents. The secondary data obtained from institutions and agencies in the District were also considered in summarizing the findings. The chapter as well concludes the study and spell out recommendations for both stakeholders of education and institutions of higher learning for further research. The chapter serves as the output of the whole study and answers all questions raised before the start of the research whiles meeting all the objectives.

#### 5.2 Summary of Findings

From the data obtained from literature review and in the field, it was revealed that the main causes of conflicts in the districts are land (36.6%) and chieftaincy (59.9%). The encroachment of people's land by others often cause dissatisfaction and subsequent misunderstanding and confrontation and then a fully blown war when parties fail to manage their interests well.

This emanates when one tries to claim ownership and use of land which belongs to another family, clan, tribe or a different

community. The value that people usually place on land makes them to feel they stand a chance of losing a lot when someone they consider an alien tries to encroach a part of their land. There could be no or minimal conflict in the District in BYD if these two major causes of conflicts were not in effect since the two causes contribute to a staggering total of 98.3% of all conflicts in the District.

The double claims to chieftaincy skins by different factions also often result into violent confrontations, thus, conflict. The main conflicts within the districts have been the chieftaincy clash between the Jamon and the Jafouk families (55%) and the protracted recurrent war between the Bimobas and the Konkombas over who controls what land (45%). The conflicts are kept alive by the personal gains some people derive from the conflicts either in terms of selling arms or weakening an opponent or even looting properties (52%). This resonates with the instrumental theory of conflict where it is argued that people start and maintain conflicts because they know of some obvious gains they make as a result of conflicts. The desire to revenge a loss suffered or pain also keeps these conflicts alive (16%).

When people are attacked during conflicts, some parties lose family members and properties which usually make them prepare to revenge by killing members of the opposing faction or destroying their property. These people usually know each

other and so the revenge game keeps repeating perpetually as new members of the factions are usually encultured to see the members of the opposing factions as enemies and to hate them.



It was also revealed that most of those who go out to the battle field to fight are mostly youths of school going age (48%) and hired mercenaries from former enemies of the opponents (44%) and family heads who were trained as warriors to protect the land (8%). The moneys that are used to buy ammunitions and also cater for the well-being of warriors always accrue from individual levies. Members are asked to make contributions in order to fund the conflict and ensure victory (42%). Diaspora indigenes often fuel the conflicts from outside and pump in money to sponsor their aim (39.2%) and sometimes looted properties are sold to raise money for the upkeep of the warriors (18.8%). All these deprive warring parties' lives, good health and even resources which they could have used to support their wards in school. The sentiments of community members outside the District which move them to provide their allies in the conflicts with weapons and ammunitions help make the conflicts last longer and more devastating.

The conflicts affect every aspect of education particularly student enrolment and retention. Enrolment into basic schools was revealed to be lower (45.9%) during the conflict years than during the years that calm was restored. The conflicts caused fear, panic and suspicion among conflicting parties and communities causing the long enjoyed trust and peace which existed among community members and different tribes lost. It was therefore insecure for parents and caregivers to send their wards to schools located near their enemies or to have their children go to walk through the enemies' territory to attend school. This forced a lot of children to drop out school. In some cases, some groups of people were displaced and had to seek security at a place far away from their usual residence making their children to relocate to places far away from the schools they used to attend.

It was also revealed that because of the conflicts, newly trained teachers refuse posting to the district (15%), students drop out of school (31.2%), teachers who are stationed at the district seek transfers to other districts (37.8%), students abandon school to go and fight wars (13%) and some schools close down (7%). These often have huge effects on academic activities; contact hours between teachers and students are reduced (25%), students are psychologically unprepared for teaching and learning activities due to trauma (26.7%). Preps hours are cancelled, (43.3%) and regular class hours might be reduced to comply with a few periods (5%).

The study further revealed that the Traditional Council is the main conflict resolution mechanism in the district (60%), others which were used alongside the traditional council are the police and the military (37.5%) and the legal system (8.3%). Many people felt the non-traditional mechanisms for conflict resolution were wrongly applied as no consultation was made to parties in the conflict (67%). After they warring parties were forced by the police and military to cease fire, usually no contacts have been made to warring parties to ascertain their interests and how to settle the conflicts at the grassroots level. This usually suppress the interests and bitterness of the warring parties making the use of military and the police in conflict resolution unsustainable, though it is the most efficient emergent form of bringing back calm when there is a violent conflict.

Many people feel the conflicts are not completely resolved and real issues that trigger the conflicts were not addressed (47%). Some feel calm has returned but there is a great need for more dialogue, (45%). Some feel the conflict can be brought to an end by properly demarcating lands within the district so that accusations of encroachments and real encroachments would be

eliminated (39%), establishing a laid down procedure for chieftaincy rotation among the chieftaincy gates in the district, (36%) and a rigorous sensitization on the need to resolve conflicts through dialogues and not bullets or machetes (25%). A clear laid down turns on rotation will make both gates understand each other and when it is the term of one gate or another to occupy the skin. The procedure and criteria need to be known and understood by each side for lasting peace on the chieftaincy rotation. Unless this is done, the peace that Bunkpurugu Township is enjoying at the moment can best be described as 'temporal peace'.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

The nature of conflicts in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District is mainly inter and intra ethnic conflicts and the main causes of these various waves of conflicts in Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo district are land and chieftaincy sustained by individual interest such as political gains, personal gains and the need to cling to power

The effects of this on education are enormous; student enrolment drops low, students are recruited as war militias, teachers flee, newly posted teachers refuse posting, teaching and learning hours are cut down by curfew, students are traumatized, school properties are stolen or destroyed. All these reduce the time of learning, making schools needier and tarnishes the

image of the District as it deters teachers and other educationists posted to the District.



Students' academic performance is equally affected as they no longer go for preps, some absent themselves from school, teaching and learning becomes ineffective, student lose interest in academic activities leading to poor performance in terminal exams and BECE. The poor performance translates into the quality of their second cycle education.

The various waves of conflicts in the district can be resolved by proper demarcation of lands by the Lands Commission in consultation with the traditional council, the writing of a chieftaincy rotation constitution and public education on the need for dialogue and peace. If boundaries of the land of every community, tribe, clan and family are known and respected, conflicts on issues of land would become very minimal.

The study therefore concludes that, ethnic conflicts in The Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District is a major factor that leads to low enrolment, attendance, retention and performance of students.



#### **5.4 Recommendation**

The Lands Commission should liaise with the Traditional Council to ensure that lands are clearly marked and demarcated to avoid encroachment which often leads to misunderstanding.

The Regional and National House of chiefs should engage the Nayiri so that they can consult the people of Bunkpurugu and come out with a chieftaincy rotation plan among the various chieftaincy gates in the district to end the current lobby and take system which often cause a lot of confusion.

The Government of Ghana through Ministering of Interior should increase the number of police personnel's that would protect teachers and students in the district during conflicts, protect school properties and prevent students from being recruited as war militias. This will increase the confidence of the already existing teachers on their security and make them stay and work in the District.

The District Education Directorate in Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo should engage teachers so that they can agree to offer extra classes that can cover the periods they missed during the conflicts. Parents and community leaders should be sensitized by the GES and District Assembly to support the organization and sustenance of the extra classes.



WANEP should intensify their sensitization program in the communities to create more awareness of the consequences of conflict.

The Guidance and Counseling coordinator should provide child psychologist service students who have suffered the brunt of the war to overcome the trauma of conflicts to enable them improve their academic performances.

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**APPENDICES**

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**In-Interview Guide for the Security officers**

**Demographic Characteristics**

1. Age a.20- 30 years[ ] b.31-40 years[ ] c. 41-50 years[ ] d. 51- 60 years[ ] e.61+years[ ]
2. Sex a. Male [ ] b. Female[ ]
3. Religion a. Christianity [ ] b. Islam [ ] c. Traditional Religion [ ] d. Others [ ]
4. Name of Institution .....

**To Examine the Causes of Ethnic Conflicts in the Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District.**

5. Have you heard of any ethnic conflict in the district? a) Yes [ ] b) No [ ]
6. If yes how many ethnic conflict have you heard before a. 1-3 [ ] b. 4-6 [ ] c. 7-9 [ ] d.10 and above [ ]
7. What do you think is/are some of the cause(s) of the conflict(s)?
  - a. Land related disputes [ ] b. chieftaincy c. marginalization of some groups [ ]
  - d. political interference [ ] e. historical factors [ ] f. if others specify.....
8. Are some of the conflicts repetitive? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]
9. What are the major factors which account for the escalating and repetitive nature of some of the conflicts?



a. Political Reasons [ ] b. personal gains [ ]

c. the magnitude of loss and distractions some groups have suffered [ ]

d. if others specify.....

10. Which of these groups do you think usually spearhead these conflicts?

a. women [ ] b. men [ ] c. the youth [ ] d. traditional leaders [ ]

e. elites f. indigenes away from home [ ]

g. if others specify .....

11. Which groups of people do you think are responsible for the acquisition of ammunitions and weapons?

a. parties in the conflicts [ ] b. individuals [ ] c. political parties [ ] d. dealers in the ammunitions [ ] e. indigenes away from home [ ] f. if others specify.....

**To Find out how Ethnic Conflicts Affect Educational Activities in Basic Schools in the District.**

12. Do you think ethnic conflicts has effects on the society? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

13. If yes, what are some of the effects ethnic conflicts has in the society?



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If no, why .....

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14. Apart from the above mentioned effects in the society, do you think ethnic conflicts has effect on education? Yes / no

15. If yes, what effects does it have on education

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**Assessing how the conflict can be resolved and prevented within the Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District.**

16. What is the Current status of the conflicts.....?

.....

17. How long has the conflicts been in existence in the district a. 2-5years [ ] b. 6-9years [ ] c.10 and above [ ]

18. Have you ever been involved in any conflicts resolution in the district? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

19. If yes, what role did you play in resolving the conflicts.

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And if no why? .....

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20. Briefly outline the major efforts your organisation has made to resolve conflicts in this district



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21. What are the major challenges to resolve conflicts in the district?.....

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22. What are some of the solutions do you think if put in place will help resolved ethnic conflicts in this district?.....

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23. Which major organizations/institution/indigenes do you think can help resolved ethnic conflicts in the communities?

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24. Why do you think that, such organizations/institution/indigenes can help resolve the conflicts?.....

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**In-depth interview guide for opinion leaders**

**Demographic Characteristics**

1. Age a. 20- 30 years [ ] b. 31-40 years [ ] c. 41-50 years [ ] d. 51- 60 years [ ] e. 61+ years [ ]
2. Sex a. Male [ ] b. Female [ ]
3. Religion a. Christianity [ ] b. Islam [ ] c. Traditional Religion [ ] d. Others [ ]
4. Occupation a. Farming [ ] b. Trading [ ] c. Educationist [ ]
5. Name of community .....

**To Examine the Causes of Ethnic Conflicts in the Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District.**

6. Have you heard of any ethnic conflict in the district? a) Yes [ ] b) No [ ]
7. If yes how many ethnic conflict have you heard before a. 1-3 [ ] b. 4-6 [ ] c. 7-9 [ ] d. 10 and above [ ]
8. What do you think is/are some of the cause(s) of the conflict(s)?
- a. Land related disputes [ ] b. chieftaincy [ ] c. marginalization of some groups [ ]
- d. political interference [ ] e. historical factors [ ] f. if others specify.....



9. What are the major factors which account for the escalating and repetitive nature of some of the conflicts?

- a. Political Reasons [ ] b. personal gains [ ] c. the magnitude of lots or distractions some groups suffer [ ] d. if others specify.....

10. Which of these groups do you think usually spearhead these conflicts?

- a. women [ ] b. men [ ] c. the youth [ ] d. traditional leaders [ ] e. elites f. indigenes away from home [ ]  
g. if others specify .....

11. Which groups of people do you think are responsible for the acquisition of ammunitions and weapons?

- a. Parties in the conflicts [ ] b. individuals [ ] c. political parties [ ] d. dealers in the ammunitions [ ] e. indigenes away from home [ ]  
f. if others specify.....

**To Find out how Ethnic Conflicts Affect Educational Activities in Basic Schools in the District.**

12. Do you think ethnic conflicts has effects on the society? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

13. If yes, what are some of the effects ethnic conflicts has in the society?

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If no, why? .....

.....

14. Apart from the above mentioned effects in the society, do you think ethnic conflicts has effect on education? a. Yes [ ] b. No

[

15. If yes, what effects does it have on education

.....

.....

.....



**Assessing how the conflict can be resolved and prevented within the Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District.**

16. What is the Current status of the conflicts.....?

.....

17. How long has the conflicts been in existence in the district a. 2-5years [ ] b. 6-9years [ ] c.10 and above [ ]

18. Have you ever been involved in any conflicts resolution in the district? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

19. If Yes, what role did you play in resolving the conflicts.

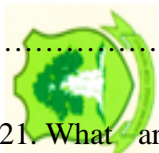
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And if no why? .....

.....

20. What are the major challenges to resolve conflicts in the district?.....

.....  
.....



21. What are some of the solutions do you think if put in place will help resolved ethnic conflicts in this district?.....

.....

.....

22. Which major organizations/institution/indigenes do you think can help resolved ethnic conflicts in the communities?

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.....

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23. Why do you think that, such organizations/institution/indigenes can help resolve the conflicts?

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**In-Interview Guide for the students**

1. Age a. 20- 30 years [ ] b. 31-40 years [ ] c. 41-50 years [ ] d. 51- 60 years [ ] e. 61+ years [ ]
2. Sex a. Male [ ] b. Female [ ]
3. Religion a. Christianity [ ] b. Islam [ ] c. Traditional Religion [ ] d. Others [ ]
4. Name of School .....

**To Examine the Causes of Ethnic Conflicts in the Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District.**



5. Have you heard of any ethnic conflict in the district? a) Yes [ ] b) No [ ]

6. If yes how many ethnic conflict have u heard before a. 1-3 [ ] b. 4-6 [ ] c. 7-9 [ ] d.10 and above [ ]

7. What do you think is/are some of the cause(s) of the conflict(s)?

- a. Land related disputes [ ]    b. chieftaincy [ ]    c. marginalization of some groups [ ]
- d. political interference [ ]    e. historical factors [ ]
- f. if others specify.....

**To Find out how Ethnic Conflicts Affect Students Enrolment and Retention in Basic Schools in the District.**

24. Do you think ethnic conflicts has effects on the society? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

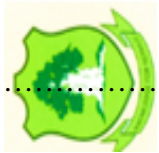
25. If yes, what are some of the effects ethnic conflicts has in the society?

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If no, why? .....



.....

8. Has any school building ever been damaged through conflict in the district? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

9. Has any school property ever been destroyed during conflict in the district? a. Yes [ ]

b. No [ ]

10. If yes, what are some of such properties .....

.....

11. Have some pupils/students ever stayed away from school as a result of conflicts

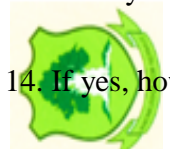
a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

12. Are there school dropouts as a result of the conflict(s)? Yes [ ] No [ ]

13. Have you ever experienced curfew during school hours? Yes [ ] No [ ]

14. If yes, how has the curfew affected your schooling? .....

.....



**Assess how Ethnic Conflicts Affect Academic Performance of Pupils in the Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District.**

15. Have you experience any difference in your academic performance during conflicts?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

16. If yes, what changes have you observed in your academic performance .....

.....

17. What was your third term percentage score in these subjects?

	Maths	English	Science
Before			
During			
After			



18. Do you think there is an attempts to resolve conflicts in the district? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

19. If yes, what are those attempts to resolving conflicts in the district?.....

.....  
.....

20. Were those attempts successful? a. yes [ ] b. No [ ]

21. If No, why?.....

.....

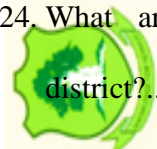
22. If yes, which people/ group of people were involved in the resolution .....

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.....

23. What are the major challenges to resolve conflicts in the district?.....

.....  
.....

24. What are some of the solutions do you think if put in place will help resolved ethnic conflicts in this district?.....



.....

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25. Why do you think that, such organizations/institution/indigenes can help resolve the conflicts?

.....

.....

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**In-Interview Guide for Ghana education staff**

1. Age a.20- 30 years[ ] b.31-40 years[ ] c. 41-50 years[ ] d. 51- 60 years[ ] e.61+years[ ]

2. Sex a. Male [ ] b. Female [ ]

3. Religion a. Christianity [ ] b. Islam [ ] c. Traditional Religion [ ] d. Others [ ]

4. Department.....

5. Position .....

**To Examine the Causes of Ethnic Conflicts in the Bunkpurugu Yunyoo District.**

6. Have you heard of any ethnic conflict in the district? a) Yes [ ] b) No [ ]

7. If yes how many ethnic conflict have u heard before a. 1-3 [ ] b. 4-6 [ ] c. 7-9 [ ] d.10 and above [ ]

8. What do you think is/are some of the cause(s) of the conflict(s)?

a. Land related disputes [ ] b. chieftaincy [ ] c. marginalization of some groups [ ]

d. political interference [ ] e. historical factors [ ] f. if others specify.....



9. What are the major factors which accounts the escalating and repetitive nature of some of the conflicts? a. Political Reasons [ ] b. personal gains [ ] c. the magnitude of lots or distractions some groups suffer [ ] d. if others

specify.....

10. Which of these groups do you think usually spearhead these conflicts?

a. women [ ] b. men [ ] c. the youth [ ] d. traditional leaders [ ] e. elites f. indigenes away from home [ ] g. if others specify

.....

11. Which groups of people do you think are responsible for the acquisition of ammunitions and weapons?

a. Parties in the conflicts [ ] b. individuals [ ] c. political parties [ ] d. dealers in the ammunitions [ ] e. indigenes away from home [ ]

12. Do you think ethnic conflicts has effects on the society? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

13. If yes, what are some of the effects ethnic conflicts has in the society?

.....

.....

.....



If no, why? .....

.....

14. Has the conflicts affected or cause damage to school infrastructure? a. Yes [ ] b. No, [ ]

15. if yes, what kind of infrastructure was damaged?.....

.....

16. Apart from the infrastructure, has any school property ever been destroyed during conflict in the district? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

17. If yes, what are those properties? .....

.....

18. Have some pupils/students ever stayed away from school **during** the conflicts?

a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

19. Are there school dropout as a results of conflicts in the district? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]



20. Have you ever experienced curfew during school hours? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

21. What was the percentage score of students in this subjects?



	Maths	English	Science
Before			
During			
After			

22. Is there any relation between conflicts stricken academic year and poor performance in external examination? a. Yes [ ] b.

No [ ]

23. If yes, please provide available data.....

26. Do you think there is an attempts to resolve conflicts in the district? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

27. If yes, what are those attempts to resolving conflicts in the district?.....

.....



28. Were those attempts successful? a. yes [ ] b. No [ ]

29. If No, why?.....

.....

30. If yes, which people/ group of people were involved in the resolution .....

.....

.....

31. What are the major challenges to resolve conflicts in the district?.....

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.....

32. What are some of the solutions do you think if put in place will help resolved ethnic conflicts in this district?.....

.....

33. Why do you think that, such organizations/institution/indigenes can help resolve the conflicts?



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