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***THE EFFECTS OF THE ANGLOPHONE CRISIS  
ON THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES OF  
THE POPULATION OF CAMEROON: CASE OF  
BAMENDA III SUBDIVISION***

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## **CERTIFICATION**

This is to certify that this work entitled *the effects of the Anglophone crisis on the socio-economic activities of the population of Cameroon: case of Bamenda iii subdivision*. Was carried out by Njong Sheron Leinyuy (registration no 22w3531) under my humble supervision.

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*I dedicate this work to my family, the Njong's  
and  
to all the victims of the Anglophone crisis.*

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACCRONYMS

- Pr:** Professor
- WW I:** World war I
- WW II:** World war II
- ENAM:** National school of Administration and magistracy
- CEF:** Cameroon education forum
- SYNES:** The syndicate of University teachers
- AC :** Anglophone crisis
- NOSO :** Nord-Ouest, Sud-Ouest
- NWSW:** North west South west
- USA:** United states of America
- GDP:** Gross domestic product
- UNESCO:** United Nations educational, scientific and cultural organization
- CDC:** Cameroon development cooperation
- DDT:** Direct delivery technique
- SPSS:** Statistical package of the social sciences
- A:** Agree
- SA:** Strongly agree
- D:** Disagree
- SD:** Strongly disagree

## ABSTRACT

This research was aimed at studying the impact of the Anglophone Crisis (AC) on the socio-economic activities of the people of Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision. With the problem being the feeling of marginalization by the Anglophone by their French brothers. The study sought to answer a main research question which was to what extent does the AC impact socio-economic activities in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision. And a main research hypothesis which was: There is no statistically significant relationship between Anglophone Crises (AC) and socio-economic activities in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision. Four main theories are adopted which are; The organization of armed conflict theory, the new visibility theory, the conflict theory and the psycho-analytic theory. This study employs the descriptive survey design. The sample size was 200 for questionnaire respondents and 20 interviewees. the questionnaire was measured using SPSS (statistical package for social sciences). Descriptive statistics was used in the presentation of demographic data. Inferential statistics was used to evaluate the statistical significance of the research hypothesis, precisely the Pearson correlation coefficient. The data analyzed was presented in frequencies and percentages. The findings of the study revealed that; The crises have had a direct or indirect impact on the Socio-economic activities of the people of the NWSW regions of Cameroon the case of Bamenda III subdivision which has had a great effect on Education, Economic productivity and Cultural heritage. The study made the following recommendations: Measures should be taken by the government to drastically improve the infrastructure in central schools in localities that have students in order to encourage more enrolment of students. The construction of houses for teachers in areas that are safer should be done by the state in order to encourage teachers to stay in such localities and teach students. Measures should be taken to improve the quality of communication technology especially the internet in the conflict-stricken regions. The organisation of cultural festivals should be rekindled and such initiatives should receive both financial and material support from state and private organizations.

**Key words:** socio economic activities and Effects of Anglophone crisis.

## RESUME

Cette recherche avait pour objectif d'étudier l'impact de la Crise Anglophone (AC) sur les activités socio-économiques de la population camerounaise : cas de l'arrondissement de Bamenda III. Le problème étant le sentiment de marginalisation des anglophones par leurs frères français. L'étude cherchait à répondre à une question de recherche principale qui était de savoir dans quelle mesure l'AC impacte les activités socio-économiques au Cameroun : cas du lotissement Bamenda III. Et une hypothèse principale de recherche qui était : Il n'existe pas de relation statistiquement significative entre les Crises Anglophones (AC) et les activités socio-économiques au Cameroun : cas de l'arrondissement de Bamenda III. Quatre théories principales sont adoptées : La théorie de l'organisation des conflits armés, la nouvelle théorie de la visibilité, la théorie des conflits et la théorie psychanalytique. Cette étude utilise le plan d'enquête descriptif. La taille de l'échantillon était de 200 pour les répondants au questionnaire et 20 personnes interrogées. Le questionnaire a été mesuré à l'aide de SPSS (progiciel statistique pour les sciences sociales). Des statistiques descriptives ont été utilisées dans la présentation des données démographiques. Des statistiques inférentielles ont été utilisées pour évaluer la signification statistique de l'hypothèse de recherche, précisément le coefficient de corrélation de Pearson. Les données analysées ont été présentées en fréquences et en pourcentages. Les résultats de l'étude ont révélé que : Les crises ont eu un impact direct ou indirect sur les activités socio-économiques des populations des régions du Nord-Ouest du Cameroun, comme le cas de la subdivision de Bamenda III, qui a eu un grand effet sur l'éducation, la productivité économique et le patrimoine culturel. L'étude formule les recommandations suivantes : Des mesures devraient être prises par le gouvernement pour améliorer considérablement les infrastructures des écoles centrales dans les localités qui ont des élèves afin d'encourager une plus grande scolarisation des élèves. La construction de maisons pour les enseignants dans des zones plus sûres devrait être réalisée par l'État afin d'encourager les enseignants à rester dans ces localités et à enseigner aux étudiants. Des mesures devraient être prises pour améliorer la qualité des technologies de communication, en particulier Internet, dans les régions touchées par le conflit. L'organisation de festivals culturels devrait être relancée et de telles initiatives devraient recevoir un soutien financier et matériel de la part d'organisations publiques et privées.

Mots clés : activités socio-économiques et effets de la crise anglophone.

## GENERAL INTRODUCTION

In recent times, human-induced disasters are increasingly giving rise to complex emergencies, given their capacities to rapidly disrupt livelihoods, the multiple causes of these disasters interrelate political, economic, social, and environmental factors including internal armed conflict (Anderson and Gerber 2018; Culver et al. 2017). Over the past decade, the increasing magnitude of complex emergencies has resulted into these socio-economic and political consequences posing incredible challenges to humanitarian and emergency response stakeholders (Macias 2013).

Complex emergencies have caused the global population of the forcefully displaced to grow substantially from 43.3 million in 2009 to an unprecedented 103 million in 2023. Developing countries are the most extremely affected. Sixty-seven per cent of complex emergencies worldwide occur in Africa where there has been a surge in complex emergencies in the past three decades (Culver et al. 2017). Yet, the capacity and ability of many developing countries to respond to these crises and emergencies have not evolved at an equal pace (Fraser et al. 2017).

Effective emergency response has necessitated collaboration and cooperation, albeit with challenges, between national governments, international organizations, non-governmental organizations, and the civil society to address the problems created by humanitarian crisis and complex emergencies (Streamlau 1998). Often, foreign humanitarian actors are involved only in complex emergencies.

Research on when instabilities (civil unrest, internal crises/conflicts, or emergencies) become complex emergencies is very sparse. Frameworks for disaster management and humanitarian systems have been lopsided in their focus on responding to particular types of crisis/emergencies (Buchanan-Smith and Christoplos 2004) without much thought on the nexus between complex emergencies and major rapid-onset natural hazards/disasters. This article seeks to address these issues by analyzing the Cameroon Anglophone crisis.

The Anglophone crisis is one of Cameroon's several humanitarian crises that has been raging in the country's North West Region and South West Region—also called the Anglophone region, since 2016. Managing this and other crises has been very challenging to Cameroon's disaster management frameworks (Bang et al. 2019b). Although Cameroon's response to the Anglophone crisis has been facilitated by external humanitarian actors, the response has been largely inferior (Craig 2020). A major episode of natural hazard would

further complicate the response with potentially awful consequences on the populations in the region.

Most people are faced with crisis at some point in their lives which causes them a lot of distress this could be emotionally, physically or psychologically. The word crisis originates from the early 17 centuries from Greek word KRISIS. And refers to a judgement or a decision stand point. According to Meriam Webster dictionary Crisis is *an unstable or crucial time or state of affairs in which a decisive change is pending*. Other authors seek to define crisis as well some of them include; PAUCHANT AND MITROFF 1992 defines Crisis as *A disruption that physically affects a system as a whole and threatens its basic assumptions, its subjective sense and existential core*. HAMBLIM; *A crisis is an urgent situation in which all the members of a group are focused to a common threat*. Several countries all over the world are currently experiencing Crises such as Palestine, Ukraine or Syria, Cameroon being one of them. Cameroon's Anglophone crisis, which emerged from legal and education grievances in 2016, rapidly escalated into a secessionist political conflict that is threatening the unity is an ongoing armed conflict between Cameroon Armed Forces and Amazonian separatist rebel groups, part of the longstanding Anglophone problem. This crisis began in November 2016 till date making it 8 years and still counting. The crisis is popularly referred to as NOSO Cameroon, Cameroon civil war, Ambazonian war. The existence of this war even though it is a fight for a just cause (*the growing marginalization of the Anglophone Cameroon.*) *the struggle has given rise to so many negative effects which include* political, social, economic and physical effects which are not only affecting the Anglophone population but the entire Nation as a whole.

**CHAPTER ONE:**  
**THE PROBLEMATIC**

## **1.1. Background of the study**

Rising incidence of post-colonial conflicts in Africa is an increasing concern especially in former French colonial countries. A civil war is an armed conflict within a country among different groups or an armed group against the government in power (Fletcher, 2007). Over the past decades, civil wars have caused many deaths in African countries, destruction of properties, force Africans to migrate to Europe passing through the Mediterranean Sea and has even rendered the sovereignty of an internationally recognized state questionable. Since the start of legitimate trade that replaced the Atlantic Slave Trade, Some European powers rushed to the continent of Africa to acquire lands in the hinterlands and to assume political, economic and social control over the African territories. Which eventually assimilate the inhabitation thus, which resulted to the scramble of Africa and, later lead to the partition of Africa (Tazo, 2010). It should be recalled that, the effect of the partition of Africa after WWII created tensions crossed African territories caused by the artificial political boundaries. The newly born states in Africa were unable and struggled to deal with these conflicts, which however often resulted to civil wars or genocides. Some African scholars and historians has pointed out some key factors as to why Africa has registered the highest numbers of civil wars since after independence (Tazo, 2010). Some of the factors mentioned are; the economy of African countries depend more on the production and exportation of natural resource and cash crops. These recourses are sometimes mismanage by the country's government and most often, the inhabitation where these resources are found, do not benefit from it thus, there are marginalized. For example, the Anglophone Cameroon crisis from 2016 until today, the Biafra/Nigeria war 1967-1970 and others, which consequently resulted to low per capita income. The level of production and per capita income in Africa, are very low as compared to the European countries. As a result, many university graduates are unemployed and lack of basic commodities. The unemployed youths are prone to joint or form a rebellious group(s) to fight against their home government (Tazo, 2010). Neo-colonialism is another issue, which have reveal African countries to a risk of a civil war. Former colonial powers such as France and United Kingdom still have a strong domination over their former colonies to protect their economic interest (Tazo, 2010).

Today, Africans are still solving the economic, social and political conflicts. In 1990, the organization of African Union was formed. Its main objective or responsibility was to maintain peace in the African continent and also to solve the economic problems. In 1997, the African Union also helped prevent human right violation and growth of freedom and peace in

the Member States. Thus, the organization could not help to its full capacity (Tekeste & Tronvoll, 2000). Many African politicians and philosophers characterized the African Union as a "toothless bulldog" which means it can only bark, but it cannot bite. This allegation is somehow true when we see the increasing numbers of civil wars, political instability, economic depression, high rate of illegal migration from Africa to Europe due to lack of opportunities and unemployment on the continent. One can categorically agree to the fact that the African Union lacks the power and ability to stop and resolve conflict situations in many African countries. Although some historians argued that, The African Union could not work to its full potential due to financial crisis in the organization (Tekeste & Tronvoll, 2000). Some African countries made progress after independence from their colonial masters. However, there were a lot of setbacks after these milestones due to the boundaries set by the colonial masters thus, left tension with the various African communities. Civil wars and mass murders resulted from this tension. Without no aid, it was impossible for African states to resolve this tension and find a lasting solution. Unfortunately, Africa is still struggling after numerous efforts to create stability in the various countries on the continent.

### **1.1.1. Historical Background**

Cameroon, as it is called today, did not exist before the nineteenth century. What was known of the territory by European traders was limited to the coastal areas. The Arabs from the North Africa knew only the northern region of the country. The first European to arrive the coast of Cameroon was the Portuguese sailors in the early 1470s (Fanso, 2011). When they arrived, they saw plentiful supply of prawns around the River Wouri, which they named Rio dos Cameroes, meaning the river of prawns from which the name Cameroon is derived (Ngoh, 2018). The British reluctant to annex Cameroon made the German traders in the territory to pressure their home government to annex Cameroon. The German Chancellor at that time, Otto Von Bismarck was against acquisition of territories in Africa. The German traders faced strong competition with the French in Cameroon. Gradually, Bismarck eventually supported colonialization mainly for prestigious purposes and as part of search "a place in the sun". After much pressure from the German traders who dutifully aided by the German Colonial Society and because France and Britain economic benefits in North Africa. In 1883, Bismarck approved the annexation of Cameroon. It should be noted that, the German colonial constitution of 1886 – 1888 established the German administration in Cameroon. The supreme authority in Cameroon was the Governor who received instructions from the Kaiser and German Chancellor (Ngoh, 2018).

During WWI, Germany was defeated and ousted from Cameroon by Britain and France (Ngoh, 2018). The German protectorate in Cameroon existed between 1884 and 1916. After the defeat of Germany, Britain and France failed to jointly administered Cameroon due to differences in opinions and the only way forward was to partition Cameroon (Ngoh, 2018). The French took the greatest portion of Cameroon where they administered and introduced the Policy of Assimilation, while the British on the other hand administered its own territory as part of Nigeria and introduced the Policy of Indirect Rule. On 1st October 1961, Southern Cameroon gained its independence through a plebiscite by accepting to join their Francophone brothers and sisters “The Republic of Cameroon” over the Nigerians (Ngoh, 2018, pp 198). The flag of the Republic of Cameroon was hosted in Buea, which was the capital of the Southern Cameroon. Today Buea is the regional headquarter of the South West region. Since the independence of Southern Cameroon, the “Anglophone Problem” has drawn a lot of concern from international bodies, Cameroonians and lawmakers in the past decades. Cameroonians are face with questions about who is an Anglophone, what is the Anglophone problem, what is the origin of the problem, when did it start and why, what is the Anglophone crisis all about and what is the solution to this crisis (Monono, 2015). A mastery of the Anglophone problem has been complicated and compounded by the differences in the political philosophy and the Anglo-Saxon culture. It should be noted that, the topic the “Anglophone problem” has been animated by two School of Thoughts; one School of Thoughts animated by the French-speaking Cameroonians and the other School of Thoughts by the English-speaking Cameroonian politicians (Ngoh, 2018, pp 380). The importance of knowing the Anglophone problem lies in the fact that, it has a deep impact on the existence of the Republic of Cameroon. In 2016, an event made the question and debate around the Anglophone problem, to arise again. Demonstrations from University students, teachers and lawyers in Buea, in the South West region of Cameroon, made the question gain new relevance again (Ngoh, 2018). The first School of Thoughts argued that there was no Anglophone problem and the second School of Thoughts argued that there is an Anglophone problem (Ngoh, 2018, pp 389).

The Anglophone problem should be traced back to 1961 during the Fouban constitutional conference of July 1961 and the Yaoundé Tripartite Talks of August 1961 (Ngoh, 2018). It should be pointed out that, some Cameroon historians, lawmakers and philosophers argued about the actual core of the Anglophone problem. Some books on the history of Cameroon proclaim that the Anglophone problem started from the Picot Provisional Partition, which was confirmed by the Milner-Simon Accord of July 1919 (Ngoh, 1996). They argued that, there would have been no problem in Cameroon if the proposed joint Anglo-French

administration between the French and the Britain had succeeded. They further disagree that there should have been no Anglophone problem if the British Southern Cameroon had achieved its independence as a separate political entity in 1961. Early 2015, some Common Law Lawyers from the two English-speaking regions of Cameroon met in Bamenda, the regional capital of the North West region. Amongst other things, they accused the government of deliberating and organizing a program without following the procedures to replace the Common Law system with the Criminal Civil procedure. The lawyers also argued that they had evidence of the government wanted to assimilate the English Common Law system into the French legal system of Civil Law (Ngoh, 2018). The Lawyers jointly rejected the government ideas and they demanded the restoration of the referred Common Law, procedures and practices.

Cameroon has two judiciary systems because France and Britain colonized the country. In the French part, they introduced the policy of Assimilation and Civil Law and in the British Cameroon; they introduced the policy of Indirect Rule and Common Law system (Ngoh, 2018). The lawyers demanded that the divisions of Common Law and Civil Law should be clearly defined and should operate alongside in National School of Administration and Magistracy (ENAM), the no adulteration of the educational sub-system in the North West and South West regions; the creation of a law school and the protection of the Anglophone minority (Ngoh, 2018). The Common Law Lawyers gave the government enough time to react positively, but unfortunately, it felt on deaf ears. In February 2016, Cameroon Education Forum (CEF) drew the attention of the government to the plight of the English sub-system of education in Cameroon. The CEF also addressed the issue of non-appointment of an Anglophone as Minister of Education and demanded that “The Minister of Education should be reorganized to reflect the bilingual cultural nature of the country” (Tazoacha, 2015). The inability of the government to properly address the Common Lawyers demand in 2015, led to a four days’ strike. In October 2016, the syndicate of University teachers known by its French acronym as SYNES, issued an official statement “We, Teachers of Higher Education endorse the Common Law Lawyers” as a genuine expression of the continual frustration Anglophone have lived throughout this tiresome union, we call on all Cameroonians to support the lawyers quest for equality for the good and betterment of the country” (Ngoh, 2018). The government downplayed the lawyers strike action despite the fact that it was well respected. On 21st November 2016, the Teacher's Trade Union in the North West and South West regions, declared an indefinite strike action until their requests or problems were addressed by the government. The decisions by the Lawyers and the Teacher's Trade Unions to solicit support from the population without having schooled the various sectors on the end game and from whom they should take instructions

from, would haunt them down the road. It should be recalled that, some Cameroonians also supported the lawyers and teachers on the street.

For example, Mancho Bibixy resident in the North West region and a radio presenter seized the opportunity and launched his “Coffin Revolution” (Ngho, 2018). He carried a white coffin in his car and drove to Bamenda City Council. He was accompanied by the masses, signing, calling for change and calling the president to resign from office. The crowd was protesting against the following; the littering nature of the city, poor roads, unemployment, the slow advancement of the water project in Cameroon among other things. The peaceful protest calling for change degenerated and became violent as forces of law and order engaged in running confrontations with the peaceful protesters. The confrontation led to hundreds of peaceful protesters wounded, some even killed by stray bullets, some arrested and detained in Bamenda while others spear headed these peaceful protests like Mancho Bibixy where send to Yaoundé Maximum Security Prison “Kondegui”. These and other events and circumstances, marks the beginning of the Anglophone crisis in Cameroon.

### **1.1.2. Conceptual Background**

#### ***Armed conflict and economic productivity***

Research on the economic consequences of armed conflicts has not been at the focus of the scientific community and only in recent years there have been publications concerning this question. But these have so far been incomprehensive and often contradict each other. At the same time this field should become more important because the occurrence of civil war around the world has increased since WWII until peaking in 1994. Although the onsets of civil wars have sharply declined since then, many of the civil wars which started before 1994 are still on-going or have ended very recently. Murshed (2002) states: “*The part played by civil wars in lowering economic growth, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, where per capita growth rates have been negative in many countries for much of the last two decades, cannot be overestimated*” (p.388), thereby further emphasizing the importance of this field from a development economics point of view.

Empirical analysis shows that investment and trade-important drivers of economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa-are both affected significantly by conflict. Increasing conflict intensity from no conflict to the top quartile is associated with lower real investment growth of 4.5 percentage points, driven partly by a decline in private sector credit growth. Furthermore, conflicts also reduce export and productivity growth by 5.5 and 1.3 percentage points, respectively.

This decline in productivity, investment, and export growth following conflict could be attributed to several factors, including greater security concerns that make normal business operations difficult; disruption of traditional trade routes (as has occurred, for example, around the Lake Chad Basin as a result of the Boko Haram insurgency; AFD, 2018); destruction of human capital and physical infrastructure; displacement of skilled labour; disruption and weakening of institutions; and a rise in general economic and political uncertainty that leads investors to delay long-horizon investment.

### ***Armed conflict and education***

Violent conflict is one of the greatest development challenges facing the international community. Beyond the immediate human suffering it causes, it is a source of poverty, inequality and economic stagnation. Children and education systems are often on the front line of violent conflict. The 2011 Global Monitoring Report examines the damaging consequences of conflict for the Education for All goals. It sets out an agenda for protecting the right to education during conflict, strengthening provision for children, youth and adults affected by conflict, and rebuilding education systems in countries emerging from conflict.

In terms of statistics,

- Armed conflict is robbing 28 million children of an education by exposing them to widespread sexual violence, targeted attacks on schools and other abuses.
- The Report released on March 1, calls for tougher action against human rights violations, an overhaul of global aid priorities and more attention to education's potential to foster peace.
- Education accounts for just 2% of humanitarian aid
- 6 days of military spending by aid donors would close the US\$16 billion Education for All external financing gap.

### ***Fiscal implications of conflict***

Conflict can have substantial effects both on the revenue and expenditure sides of a country's public finances. This limits the government's ability to respond to conflicts in an effective way, thereby aggravating their economic and social costs. On the revenue side, conflicts can reduce collections by disrupting economic activity, destroying part of the tax base, and lowering the efficiency of tax administration. There is evidence of these channels being

potentially important for sub-Saharan Africa, where an increase in conflict intensity from no conflict to the top quartile is associated with a decline in total

### *Cultural heritage and conflict*

Recent attacks on cultural heritage sites have been vigorously condemned by the international community, as exemplified by the above statement following the destruction of Palmyra's Temple of Bel during the Syrian civil war.<sup>1</sup> While the destruction of ancient archaeological treasures is particularly dramatic in present-day Syria, this case is far from unique. Cultural property has been attacked in wars of conquest and colonization, during interstate and civil conflicts, by governments, rebels or rioters around the world. Cultural property is sometimes destroyed during armed conflict by accident, or as a result of indiscriminate attacks, which is rather plausible given a chaotic war situation. What is much more puzzling, however, is that some fighting groups use parts of their finite resources to deliberately carry out attacks against cultural property. These attacks have been carried out for different purposes and in a variety of ways. Some have deliberately targeted people using the site, while others have been directed against the monument or structure itself, in order to take control of, damage or destroy it.

Despite the importance of this phenomenon, little is known about why armed groups choose to target cultural property. Most existing research has focused on documenting the circumstances and extent of destruction in specific cases (Gamboni, 1997) rather than the motivation behind such behavior. One reason for the relative shortage of studies examining motives is that they are often difficult to pinpoint. Not least since myths and biased interpretations are common in conflict situations, which makes it difficult to access impartial accounts. Also, political rivals often produce propaganda about why the enemy is fighting (Viejo-Rose, 2008). For instance, the German attack on Rheims cathedral during the first months of World War I illustrates how motives for a particular attack can become part of a propaganda war. The Allies argued that the Germans attacked the cathedral to signal their power and brutality, whereas the German state argued that the cathedral was attacked because it was used for military purposes (Emery, 2009).

Nonetheless, some scholars have examined motivations for attacks on cultural property and suggested that they are common in campaigns of ethnic cleansing, identity-bound wars and iconoclastic actions (Bevan, 2006). While this provides the context for specific cases, the absence of a comprehensive framework to situate individual studies makes cross-case comparisons difficult. The lack of a common conceptual framework for possible motives

behind attacks on cultural property limits the opportunities for advancements within this research field and negatively affects the ability of scholars to provide policy-relevant research and advice. Unless we know why cultural property is attacked, we cannot design policies to prevent such attacks or predict where the risk is greatest or why. There is also a strong judicial reason to better document and analyze the intention behind deliberate attacks on cultural property, as has become evident in the trials of the International Criminal Tribunal of the Former Yugoslavia (Walasek, 2015) and in a recent case in the International Criminal Court about destruction of cultural property in Mali (UNESCO 2016).

Stone (2016) advances our understanding of why cultural property is destroyed during conflict by presenting seven reasons for this phenomenon. This comprehensive framework covers causes prior, during and after the conflict. In addition, it includes both intentional and unintentional attacks. By combining insights from literature on peace and conflict research with heritage studies we contend that the motivations behind attacks on cultural property can be classified into four broad categories. First, attacks on cultural property may be motivated by the *conflict goals* of the warring actors. For example, religious buildings may be targeted if religious belief or cultural identity are among the contested issues in the conflict. Second, conflict actors may seek *military-strategic* benefits from attacking cultural property because of their perceived military importance. Third, actors may attack cultural property in order to *signal* their strength and commitment vis-à-vis their opponent, or other audiences including the international community and potential supporters. Fourth, and finally, *economic incentives* may motivate attacks on cultural heritage as a means to finance warfare. These categories are not mutually exclusive as any given attack may serve multiple purposes. Our typology of motives provides a structure that furthers an exchange of knowledge between researchers focusing on various individual events and those exploring long running trends of attacks on cultural property. Likewise, the typology can be a starting point for contrasting cases of attacks against cultural heritage sites with conflicts in which cultural property has not been targeted.

### **1.1.3. Theoretical background**

This study was guided by the the Organization of Armed Conflict Theory by Olson and New visibility theory developed by Becker as well as the Conflict theory by Karl max.

The roots of armed conflicts also explained by the above theories. The reason for armed conflict is a direct contest between the dominant power(s) and a rising challenger over the governance and leadership of the international system. Oslon (1965) states that the uneven

growth of power among states is the driving force of international relations and leads to the changing distribution of power among the states within the international system. In this situation, the elements of the system, e.g. the hierarchy, the division of territory and the international economy are not entirely consistent with the changes in the distribution of power among the major states within the system.

The system is characterized by a hierarchical ordering of the states in the system with dominant or hegemonic power. The leader state (called the hegemon) relies on its simultaneous military and economic dominance and on its ability to provide certain public goods to the participants in the system, which include military security, investment capital, international currency, a secure environment for trade and investment, a set of rules for economic transactions and the protection of property rights, and the general maintenance of the status quo. In exchange for such mutual goods, the hegemon receives revenue and other benefits. Over time, the power of subordinate states begins to grow disproportionately. The satisfied states do not start wars because they are the primary beneficiaries of the present system and do not have an interest in changing the growth of their relative power. The rising states try to introduce changes to the rules of the system, the manner in which spheres of influence are divided, and the manner in which benefits and territories are distributed but only when the expected benefits of altering the system are predicted to exceed the expected costs. As the rising power develops, it comes into conflict with the dominant or hegemonic state in the system. The ensuing struggle between these two states and their respective allies leads to a bipolarization of the system, which cause the increasing instability of the system. In this case, a minor event may spark a crisis, and finally cause an armed conflict (Becker, 2013). The clash between powers is based on power struggle (including strategic and national interest), not economic struggle. Disequilibrium (uneven growth) arises mainly due to changes in military technology and strategy, and secondarily to changes in transportation, communication, industrial technology, population, prices, and the accumulation of capital. Lindemann in his crisis theory believes that man's internal stability is threatened by man in his crisis theory believes that man's internal stability is threatened by certain changes or crisis in His environment which causes acute disturbances (Mary.K, 1965)

## **1.2. Problem Statement**

The birth of the Federal Republic of Cameroon on October 1st 1961, marked the reunification of the two parts of Cameroon, which had undergone different colonial

administration (the French policy of Assimilation and the British policy of Indirect Rule) after the WWI in Cameroon, which was the end of the German administration in Cameroon. The German protectorate was partitioned between the French and the British as a mandate under the League of Nations and trusteeship under the United Nations (Könings & Nyamnjoh, 1997). It should be noted that, the British mandate/trusteeship territory which became southern Cameroon, was part of the eastern province of Nigeria until 1954, when it achieved a quasi-regional status and a limited degree of self-government in 1958 (Fanso, 2008). There is no doubt that, Southern Cameroon as an integral part of Nigeria resulted in neglect of basic infrastructural development in the territory and as well, the Ibos and Ibibio migrants dominated the economy of Southern Cameroon, treated them as slaves and, hold key positions. For Southern Cameroon to gain independence, they needed to join Nigeria or the French Cameroon (Könings & Nyamnjoh, 1997). In 1961, the people of Southern Cameroon voted to join their brothers and sisters in the French Cameroon rather than integration into Nigeria (Ngoh, 1996). This union seemingly did not solve the problem. Throughout the years the major problem the Anglophones have been having is the growing feeling of marginalization which brings us to the focus of this study. They hold that the entire setup of the nation is wired in a way that favors the French speaking citizens (Rojers 2022) resulting to neglect and the bitterness of being reduced to second class citizens. This feeling was sparked by a sporadic protest which was started by the Cameroon teachers and lawyers in November 2016 which has now become a great call for concern. There has been a problem of destabilization of the socio-economic activities, (Adeline N. 2023) Analyses the socio-economic consequences of the armed conflicts seven years. Most especially the Economic productivity level, the cultural heritage and the level of education. the Anglophone Cameroonians have organized protests and demonstrations, and even sent mission to the United Nations Organization calling for secession of West Cameroon. It was for this reason that the student researcher decided to bridge this gap by carrying out the current study.

### **1.3. Research Questions**

#### **1.3.1. General Research Question**

To what extent does the Anglophone Crisis (AC) impact socio-economic activities of the community in Cameroon, namely in Bamenda III subdivision?

### **1.3.2. Specific Research Questions**

- To what magnitude does the AC affect education on the Identity population in Cameroon, especially in Bamenda III subdivision?
- To what extent does the AC affect the economic productivity level in the territorial community of Bamenda III subdivision?
- To what level does the AC affect the cultural heritage on the interest community in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision?

## **1.4. Research Hypothesis**

### **1.4.1. General Research Hypothesis**

There is no statistically significant relationship between Anglophone Crises (AC) and socio-economic activities on the community in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision.

### **1.4.2. Specific Research Hypothesis**

The study made and tested the following null hypothesis at 0.05 alpha level of significance

- There is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and the level of education on the Identity community in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision.
- There is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and level of economic productivity on the territorial community in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision.
- There is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and the level of culture on the interest community in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision.

## **1.5. Objectives of the study**

### **1.5.1. General Objective**

To examine the impact of the Anglophone Crises (AC) on socio-economic activities on the community in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision.

### **1.5.2. The Specific Objectives**

- To examine the effect of the AC on education on the Identity community in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision.
- To examine influence of the AC on the economic productivity level on the territorial community in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision.
- To find out the impact of the AC on cultural heritage on the interest community in Cameroon: case of Bamenda III subdivision.

## **1.6. Interests/Significance of the Study**

### **1.6.1. Scientific Interest**

The results of this study will enable other researchers to carry out similar studies in other areas of the country in order to improve the applicability of the findings in other settings.

### **1.6.2. Social Interest**

The results of the present study may enable policy makers and officials of certain ministries to understand the extent to which citizens in the NWSW are currently being affected by the AC. This will enable them to render modifications and make improvements on the measures that have been taken to address the issues affecting the people in the NWSW Regions to improve the situation on the ground.

### **1.6.3. Personal Interest**

The student researcher carried out this study in partial fulfilment for an award of a master's degree.

## **1.7. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study**

### **1.7.1. Geographical Limitations of the study**

The study encountered challenges in terms of geographical coverage since it was carried out within the town of Bamenda only. So many people were not willing or reluctant to fill the questionnaires because of fear of the unknown even though personal information was not disclosed. Sometimes the respondents did not cooperate since they were visited in their work stations. A budgetary limitation was also a challenge to the study. To ensure the research is timely done, the researcher used research assistants especially in administering the questionnaires and compiling the data collected.

## **1.8. Definition of Concepts**

### **Armed Conflict**

Most commonly used definition of armed conflicts was given by Small and Singer (1982) in their book 'Resort to arms'. They define armed conflicts as *any conflict that involves (a) military action internal to the metropole, (b) the active participation of the national government, and (c) effective resistance by both sides* (Small and Singer 1982). Further, they identify the threshold of 1000 deaths (military and civilian) per year for an armed conflict to be classified as a civil war.

### **Socio-economic activities**

The term socioeconomic activities refer to the interaction between the social and economic habits of a group of people. They include Factors and decisions that relate to a person's educational level, health outcomes.

### **Cultural heritage**

Cultural heritage is the heritage of tangible and intangible heritage assets of a group or society that is inherited from past generations. Cultural heritage as defined by UNESCO is the entire corpus of material signs - either artistic or symbolic - handed on by the past to each culture and, therefore, to the Page 4 ICCROM Working Group 'Heritage and Society' // JJ whole of humankind. As a constituent part of the affirmation and enrichment of cultural identities, as a legacy belonging to all humankind, the cultural heritage gives each particular place its recognizable features and is the storehouse of human experience. The preservation and the presentation of the cultural heritage are therefore a corner-stone of any cultural policy. This is one of the fields where UNESCO's action has been particularly appreciated and noted, as regards both its standard-setting aspects and the major preservation and safeguarding campaigns. In this way it has helped to gain worldwide recognition of the very idea of the heritage, which, at the same time, has been broadened and extended. The cultural heritage should be considered both in time and in space. First, it no longer stops at the dawn of the nineteenth century but now also embraces the records left behind by the twentieth century. Second, the aim is not only to preserve increasingly numerous items of cultural property but also to safeguard complexes which go far beyond single large monuments or individual buildings. The idea of the heritage has now been broadened to include both the human and the natural environment, both architectural complexes and archaeological sites, not only the rural heritage and the countryside but also the urban, technical or industrial heritage, industrial

design and street furniture. Furthermore, the preservation of the cultural heritage now covers the non-physical cultural heritage, which includes the signs and symbols passed on by oral transmission, artistic and literary forms of expression, languages, ways of life, myths, beliefs and rituals, value systems and traditional knowledge and know-how. The situation of the cultural heritage has deteriorated during recent years as a result of industrialization, rapid urbanization, the increase in atmospheric pollution, various climatic factors and mass tourism. In addition, many examples of the nonphysical heritage are dying out because of the disruption of economic structures and rapid changes in life-styles. As a result, public awareness of the value of the cultural heritage has increased. This is particularly evident in the growing number of people who, in many countries, visit buildings and architectural complexes which make up the essential part of the heritage. The vitality of associations established to defend the heritage, and also the increased interest in the non-physical heritage, reflect the new life and cultural development. In general terms, through their impact on economic activity and tourism, policies regarding the cultural heritage make an effective contribution to development. However, the widened connotation of the idea of the cultural heritage provides a challenge for national and international action which it is providing increasingly difficult to meet. The crisis in public finance, austerity measures or policies of structural adjustment have frequently limited the capacity of Member States (particularly the developing countries) to take action. Yet the safeguarding of one of the major assets of a 'multidimensional' type of development which will ensure the best possible general living conditions for both present and future generations.

### **Anglophone crisis**

The Anglophone Crisis (French: Crise Anglophone), also known as the Ambazonia War or the Cameroonian Civil War, is an ongoing armed conflict between Cameroon and self-proclaimed Ambazonia in the English-speaking Northwest and Southwest regions of the country, part of the long-standing Anglophone problem.

### **Education**

It is difficult to give answer of 'What is Education' in a few lines. Because the 'definition of Education' is given differently by different people at different times. Therefore, education cannot be described by one's precise definition. Etymologically the word education comes from some Latin words which are: Educare, Educere and Educatum. The term 'educare' means 'to bring up', 'to rise', and 'to nourish'. The child has to bring up like a plant in the garden by the

teacher. His potentialities should be developed with proper care and nourishment. The term 'educere' means 'to lead out', 'to draw out' and 'to bring from'. Each and every child has the innate powers. The innate powers of the child should be properly cared, given scope to develop. It should be located and proper education to be developed. Also, the term 'educatum' means "act of teaching" or 'training'. Education is something which is imposed from outside. It is external growth through activities and experience. The teacher, through education provides instructions and gives direction to mold abilities.

If you read Dictionary of Education (1973), you will find that education is defined as "the aggregate of all the processes by which a person develops abilities, attitudes and other forms of behavior of practical values in the society in which s/he lives; the social process by which people are subjected to the influence of selected and controlled environment (especially that of the school), so that they may obtain social competence and optimum individual development". According to Plato Education is the capacity to feel pleasure and pain at the right moment it develops in the body and in the soul of the student all the beauty and all the perfection which he capable of." According to Aristotle "Education is the creation of a sound mind in a sound body it develops men faculty especially his mind so that he may be able to enjoy the implementation of supreme court goodness and beauty of which perfect happiness essentially consist. Herbert Spencer "Education is complete living.

### **COMMUNITY**

A community is a group of people that interact and support each other and are bounded by shared experience or characteristics a scene of living and often by their physical proximity it refers to a group of persons living in the same place or having a similar characteristic in common. The important thing to note about a community is that it involves a group of people not an individual and they share something in common. There are several kinds of communities but our focus in this study are three which include; interest, Territorial and identity communities

### **1.9.Organization of the study**

The thesis is structured into 5 chapters. Each chapter is made up of sub sections of the study. Chapter one gives an introduction and a vivid background to the study. It discusses the statement and the major research questions, objectives and hypothesis to the study are outlined. The relevance of the study is equally presented together with its scope and delimitation. The chapter ends with a conclusion. Chapter two explains conceptual frameworks including theories, principles and models linked to the study. It further reviews related theoretical and empirical literature. It ends with a presentation of gaps identified in the literature and also a

summary of the chapter. Chapter three details the research methodology, the study population and types of data collected including the methods, instruments and tools used to analyze the data. The rationale for choosing the instruments, and samples and analytical tools is explained including ethical considerations. In chapter four, the findings, discussions and policy implications of the study are detailed. Chapter five is the last chapter and is a summary of the finding, recommendations, conclusion and suggestions for further academic pursuits.

**CHAPTER TWO**  
**LITERATURE REVIEW**

## **Introduction**

A literature review shows the readers that the researcher has an in-depth grasp of his or her subject and that he or she understands where the research fits into and adds to an existing body of agreed knowledge. Hence a literature review demonstrates a familiarity with a body of knowledge and establishes the credibility of your work summarizes prior research and says how your project is linked to it, integrates and summarizes what is known about a subject, demonstrates that you have learnt from others and that your research is a starting point for new ideas.

### **2.1. Conceptual Review**

#### **2.1.1. Effect of an Armed Conflict Crisis on Education**

##### **2.1.1.1. Effect of Armed Conflict Crisis on provision of bursaries to students**

Beha & Visoka, (2013) noted that shelving of normal investment in the renewal and development of education and inability to carry out repairs. In the NWSW Regions, repairs to damage from attacks and normal maintenance and investment in education may be put on hold either because laborers dare not risk repairing or reconstructing a school that has already been targeted out of fear of reprisals. Equally the government of Cameroon may not risk investing in the development of schools especially in localities that are still highly unstable or fear of the money being wasted if attacks are repeated. In some cases, the repair or development work itself is specifically targeted.

Beck (2022) argued that in NWSW most of the educational infrastructure in small localities were at least affected in some way, some destroyed in the conflict and today those that were not touched, because of the abandonment without use for years now have given way to waste and tear .Such schools have been consumed by bushes already. If the crisis were to end today, 60 per cent of primary schools and 40 per cent of schools may still require major rehabilitation or reconstruction. It is not known exactly how many years schools remain damaged or unused as the crisis goes on. It may be the case that a large proportion of them remain damaged or not used for a long time if the AC persists as well as after it. There is reduced attainment of students as a result of AC, the cumulative effect of teacher and student distraction, lost days due to closures, teacher shortages, and failure to repair damage to schools is likely to cause falling levels of achievement when these factors persist over long periods of time. Longer-term impact on infrastructure is one of the more extensively reported factors affecting education systems over time in NWSW.

Continuing assassinations of citizens including teachers locally and the issuing of death Threats inevitably affected teachers' concentration and frame of mind for teaching. Teachers have been shot in front of their classes some while teaching as was the case in Ekondo Titi in the South West Region, teachers are reported to be constantly fearful of being picked off for assassination or kidnapped for ransom payment or on their way to school and devote less time to teaching and developing the curriculum due to security restrictions on time at school. In the most dangerous areas of NWSW teacher attendance has become irregular. The continuing threat from armed groups operations and shootings between rival parties has caused a spike in work-related illness such as burnout syndrome and made it very difficult to recruit teachers (Barakat, 2020).

Attacks on higher education and teacher training institutions restricted research, teaching content and pedagogical training and cause drop- out, distraction, demonization and traumatization of tertiary students and academicians. This can in turn lead to restrictions on teacher content knowledge and teacher quality. Persistent attacks on schools and teachers can also deter students from training to be a teacher.

In NWSW decreases in the number of students wishing to attend tertiary institutions in the south, have contributed to a reduction in competition for teaching posts, risking a reduction in the quality of candidates. Direct attacks on teacher training colleges will affect the number and quality of newly qualified teachers produced and the number of future applications to train. In NW, for instance, teachers and students stopped attending training seminars for some time at Divisional level during the peak of the crisis that were subjected to repeated attacks. The teacher's quality in NWSW has been lowered, in those tertiary students, college's students offering teachers courses are being distracted, demoralized and traumatized because they are being restricted on their pedagogical training.

According to Pristina & Vieira (2020), similar psychosocial effects may be experienced by teachers who are overcome by grief at the loss or maiming of their colleagues and students or are distracted by threats to colleagues, making it difficult for them to support their students or perform their job to the highest standards. If they are visibly anxious, this may heighten the fears of their own students. It is difficult to see how joyful child-centered learning experiences can take place in such a context. Fear may cause staff to stay away from school for long periods, forcing their closure or preventing their re-opening after attacks. For example, in smaller localities in the two affected regions, school managers and education officials have reported to be still reluctant to return and open schools.

Kurk, (2019) asserts that the psychological impact on parents of attacks on schools may be to change their perception of education as providing protective care for their children, which causes them to keep their children home from school. This applies to a greater degree to girls. Where schools in general are destroyed, forcing children to walk longer distances to receive education, girls may be kept at home due to the increased risk of abduction, sexual violence or exploitation. Where sexual violence against individual girls actually occurs or children are abducted from schools for use as combatants, it will cause other girls or girls and boys to be kept home from school.

The other consequence is that continuing attacks increase the burden of measures to address the longer-term effects either during the AC or afterwards, straining the capacity to do so, and often at a time when post-conflict government will be simultaneously trying to rapidly expand education provision as a means to securing peace, stability and development (Saunders et al, 2019). If attacks can be prevented or halted or their impact reduced through protection measures, fewer schools will be reduced to rubble and the opportunity cost of having to rebuild them will be removed, freeing up funds for building schools in areas where too few existed to provide education for all; and fewer students and teachers will be killed, injured or threatened, reducing the likelihood of long-term effects on recruitment, retention and attainment (Doyle, 2018).

#### **2.1.1.2. Effect of civil war on education infrastructural development**

According to Lucas, (2015), one longer-term impact of sexual violence by armed groups and security forces, which may include attacks on the way to school, young girls becoming mothers before their time, cutting short their school career to become wives or mothers, as reported in NWSW. In other cases, sexual violence against school girls and teachers, and in cases of mutilation, such as or the chopping off of the limbs or physical branding of school children by armed.

Brown (2019) noted that by the end of the conflict many children would have missed schooling and in 7 years now some are reportedly lost 7 years on. Nearly one in three primary-aged children still does not go to school regularly in the NWSW due to a combination of destroyed infrastructure and other factors. MC Lai (2019) noted that students worried or anxious about attacks on their school or others nearby may find it hard to concentrate in class, which will affect their ability to learn. Nightmares, grief, memory problems, impaired concentration, aggressiveness, loss of interest, inactivity, apathy and numbness, mistrust, psychosomatic complaints, repressiveness such as bedwetting, may last for months for some individuals but

for those affected more deeply, or those who have witnessed shocking scenes, such as pupils who have seen their teacher shot or even incinerated in front of them, the effects may be felt over the long term and many children could be expected to show new learning difficulties.

Attacks on schools may lead teachers to give up their job or flee the area, or even the country. The Teachers Associations estimates that many teachers have left the country in the past 7 years, due to a mixture of deteriorating education resources and political tension including targeted attacks on teachers and the political use of schools. In 2019, 35 per cent of primary posts and 33 per cent of post primary posts were vacant. In the hinterlands in the NSW where schools have been hit by arson and heavy attacks and teachers have been targeted for assassination since 2017, it was reported in January 2019 that 40 per cent of teachers requested transfers or at least desired to be transferred from the 2 regions due to security concerns. These two factors have led to shortages of qualified teachers in four key subjects and a reduction in the quality of staff. In NSW teachers have reported that they will not return to work when schools reopen after being attacked or kidnapped , in some cases as much as a year after they were targeted, as long as the risk of ongoing or renewed attacks persists (Ballard, 2019).The researcher strongly agrees with Ballard's view that several teachers lives have been loss through AC, while others have fled the country for greener pastures like to the USA or in seek to save their lives which has greatly affected the performance of teachers and education system at large.

An anonymous speaker asserted that, attacking schools has become a tactic of war precisely for this reason, to create a sense that government no longer controls the area, fuelling fragility. The destruction of schools provides a powerful symbol of the insurgents' ability to roam around the area with impunity and undermines people's sense of the government's ability to assure their safety. "The school itself is often the most prominent structure and expression of the government in that area," he says. Attacking it is a factor in increasing instability. In addition, a campaign of assassination of anyone seen to be helping to rebuild damaged schools and other buildings is hampering the recovery effort. "In large swathes of territory that the government says is cleared and in recovery, it is still a lot more fragile than the headlines suggest,".

Attacks on schools may be carried out because they are easy targets, or for ideological reasons because insurgents oppose the non-traditional version of education on offer, but one of their significant effects is to undermine the very presence of government authority at a sub-national level, particularly at sub divisional level. Attacks on schools, may be a tactic to weaken

government and demonstrate the strength and power of the armed opposition, to break people's trust in the government's ability to guard their security.

Countries emerging from long conflicts where education has been heavily attacked May Need to begin from scratch to develop education management systems and databases that include teacher qualifications and records, teacher deployment data, and student enrolment and attainment data. Other key challenges will include establishing effective payment systems for a teaching force in disarray due to widespread displacement and destruction of schools; developing appropriate new curricula where the curriculum was contributing factor to tension; marshaling resources for a massive schools rehabilitation and reconstruction program; and solving the complex problem of plugging teacher shortages and providing adequate training, protection and support for teaching staff in an unstable situation. Where attacks on education and a wider conflict are ongoing, many of these challenges may be insurmountable (Niens, 2014).

Campbell & Peterson (2017) urged the scale of attacks on education and their impact, And the financial capacity of the government, will affect policies for increasing teacher training. So too will the speed of reconstruction and rehabilitation of schools. In NSW case, rebuilding the teaching corps in this circumstance may require a mixture of short-term on the job training and long- term implementation of expanded initial teacher training programs. This is further complicated in some conflict situations by the need to adjust curricula to address the motives for attacks on schools, which might include insensitive to the local language, religion and cultural identity. Such adjustments would require retraining of the teaching force.

Weldes (2019) noted that the impact of war attacks on education can be addressed in two ways. One is by prioritizing restoration of the types of education attacked, for instance girls' education in NSW. While schools have been neglected in many areas of the NSW, the attacks on schools in have focused government and international donors' attention on the need to rebuild the school infrastructure and restore the collapsed educational system, particularly for girls. Due to the historic gender-based inequality of access to education and the specific targeting of girls' education for attack, there is a need to address the transition gap.

Education serves not only humanitarian and developmental purposes but also provides a bulwark against recidivism to gangs and armed groups, but national policymakers tend to ignore the importance of the last component. Prioritization of support for non-formal education programs for youths, or for education services may be required –over the emphasis of Education for All programs on primary education – to prevent the long-term effects of loss of education

due to recruitment as child soldiers or due to attacks on schools and to prevent those effects leading to re-recruitment by armed groups or other forms of unrest that contribute to fragility.

In NSW, Save the Children has recommended the establishment of reform schools to rehabilitate hundreds of boys who were recruited for training as fighters, provide psychological support for their reintegration, extra academic counseling to help them catch up on their studies, and a curriculum promoting peace and understanding (Dogo, 2018). Non-formal and emergency education programs should be brought in for 10 to 14-year-olds who have missed years of primary schooling until they could be absorbed into the system. The abolition of school fees for class 1 to 6 for all students and scholarships for girls at secondary school can be tried. In another programs, demobilized teenagers aged 15 or over can be trained, supported by a paid allowance and a start-up kit, in programs such as carpentry, masonry, auto mechanic work, blacksmithing, soap making, and weaving given to them.

#### **2.1.1.3. Effect of armed conflict on provision of scholastic materials**

Kurki, (2017) asserts that existing marginalization in society is often exacerbated by conflict. Due to the economic difficulties which often accompany unrest, the poorest in society may opt to take their children out of school and put them to work to maintain their existing level of consumption. Increased incidences of poverty and child care responsibilities during conflict periods tend to affect existing gender disparities. As well, girls may be kept from school by their parents in fear of violence against female students. Attacks motivated by a clear gender bias have been documented in NSW. Regional, ethnic or religious group inequalities in educational attainment can be further widened as a result of armed conflict (Ferguson, 2017).

Lai & Thyne (2014) noted that civil war affects education in many ways whereby most tragically, it results in the death or displacement of teachers, staff and students. For example, more than two-thirds of teachers in primary and schools were killed or displaced as a result of civil wars. State collapse coupled with targeted attacks on educational infrastructure ground the country's educational system to a halt. War and conflict also often destroy and damage schools and educational infrastructure. For example, the World Bank reports that as a result of the conflict in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 50% of its schools required repair or reconstruction (Buckland 2015).

Pristina & Vieira (2019) noted that as well, armed conflicts in NSW results in decreased access to school, preventing the opening of schools, threatening children's security while travelling to school and attending class, and increasing teacher absenteeism. Access issues are also critical for refugee or internally displaced children, who may lack the appropriate

documentation or language skills to participate in new schools. For children who do attend school, conflict can have a negative effect on educational attainment, increasing dropout and reducing educational survival rates due to displacement, military recruitment or economic hardship. Educational attainment beyond primary suffers the most during conflict, perhaps due to the greater specialization needed for these levels, as well as the increased likelihood for youth involvement in the military, the workforce or marriage. The quality of education also suffers due to shortages in basic necessities, such as food and water and school materials, especially in areas bordering the conflict that may experience an influx of refugee or internally-displaced students. As is often the case, the academic year may be interrupted or shortened due to conflict.

According to Lucas, (2015), one longer-term impact of sexual violence by armed groups and security forces, which may include attacks at on the way to school, is young girls becoming mothers before their time, cutting short their school career to become wives or mothers, as reported in Sierra Leone. In other cases sexual violence against school girls and teachers, and in cases of mutilation, such as or the chopping off of the limbs or physical branding of schoolchildren by armed.

Lai & Thyne (2014) noted that students are always worried or anxious about attacks on Their school or others nearby may find it hard to concentrate in class, which will affect their ability to learn. Nightmares, grief, memory problems, impaired concentration, aggressiveness, loss of interest, inactivity, apathy and numbness, mistrust, psychosomatic complaints, repressiveness such as bedwetting, may last for months for some individuals but for those affected more deeply, or those who have witnessed shocking scenes, such as pupils in NSW who have seen their teacher shot or even incinerated in front of them, the effects may be felt over the long term and many children could be expected to show new learning difficulties.

### **2.1.2. Effect of an Armed Conflict Crises on Economic Productivity Level**

The economic impact of conflict in sub-Saharan Africa is large and persistent. Sub-Saharan Africa has been marred by conflicts during the past several decades, though their intensity, nature, and geographic distribution have varied over time. The region was particularly prone to conflicts in the 1990s, with the number of conflict-ridden countries averaging about 15 during 1990–99 (about 35 percent of the total number of countries in the region. On average, annual growth in countries in conflict is about 3 percentage points lower, and the cumulative impact on per capita GDP increases over time. This effect can be attributed mostly to intense conflicts (that is, those with at least five conflict-related deaths per million people). Given the intensity of conflicts, however, those affecting the key economic/commercial hubs within a

country have a larger effect on macroeconomic growth than those located in the periphery. The effect of conflict also appears to be conditional on certain macroeconomic characteristics, with stronger institutions and fiscal fundamentals helping to mitigate the adverse economic impact of conflicts.

Decreased investment, trade, and productivity, along with human and physical capital destruction (including through forced displacement and devastating effects on education and health care), are some of the key channels through which conflict impedes economic growth. Taken together, these factors lead to a persistent decline in the productive capacity of an economy; counterfactual analysis suggests that conflicts imply a drop in real GDP per capita of 15 to 20 percent over five years compared with a no-conflict scenario. Following the declining global trend, the average number of countries affected by conflict in the region dropped to nine during 2004–12. However, that trend has reversed in recent years, with the number of countries in conflict reaching a peak of 17 in 2016.

The number of conflict-related deaths in relation to total population—a measure of conflict intensity— also shows a varying trend over time. In eight sub-Saharan African countries, on average, the ratio of conflict-related deaths to population was in the top quartile of the world distribution in the 1990s, but the number of countries in the region experiencing such intense conflict had fallen to zero by 2010. Yet deadly conflicts have reemerged recently: since 2013, about four countries have (on average) experienced intense conflict that places them in the top quartile (including Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, South Sudan, and several Sahel countries).

#### **2.1.2.1. Conflict and Economic Growth**

How does conflict affect economic growth? A simple comparison of economic growth rates in conflict and non conflict cases suggests that real GDP growth is, on average, about 2.5 percentage points lower where there is conflict, and growth is lowest in cases of high-intensity conflict. Growth tends to be lower in conflict cases across all country groups, but commodity exporters (especially, non-oil commodity exporters) have suffered the most. This reflects in part the intense conflicts in many of these countries.

When the onset of intense conflict episodes can be clearly identified, the conflict's effect on growth is, in general, seen to be most pronounced in the first year of the conflict, after which it gradually declines. However, as growth rates remain negative on average over an extended

period of time, the cumulative effect on output increases, with real GDP per capita being 12 percent lower five years after the onset of the conflict.

These results are confirmed by more rigorous empirical analysis, which—while controlling for other standard determinants of growth—shows that conflicts have a significantly negative effect on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa. An increase in the conflict-intensity measure from no conflict to the top quartile of conflict (29 conflict-related deaths per million people) is, on average, associated with a reduction in real GDP per capita growth of 3.2 percentage points a year. These results generally hold when we address potential reverse causality concerns of growth on conflict using a variety of approaches.

The effect of conflict stems mostly from more intense conflicts (that is, those involving at least five conflict-related deaths per million people). This result is similar to that obtained by Rother and others (2016), who also document larger effects for more intensive conflicts in the Sub Saharan Africa. In addition, there is evidence that violence in the economic/urban hubs of countries has a more pronounced effect on growth than that occurring in the periphery. In terms of the type of conflict, there is no strong evidence of a differential effect, and both state and nonstate conflicts have a statistically strong impact on growth.

The effect of conflicts on growth, however, appears to be conditional on some macroeconomic characteristics—notably, institutional quality and fiscal fundamentals—at the onset of the conflict. Specifically, an increase in conflict intensity is associated with about 1.5 percentage points lower growth in countries with relatively strong institutions (defined as falling in the top quartile of the distribution of the Institutional Quality Index) compared with 3 percentage points where institutions are weaker (in the bottom quartile of the distribution). Similarly, countries with weaker fiscal fundamentals, in terms of higher deficits or debt, experience a larger decline in growth, presumably because there is less room to respond to the destruction caused by conflict. In particular, a country with a negligible fiscal deficit experiences a growth decline of 2.4 percentage points as conflicts break out relative to a decline of 3.4 percentage points for countries with a fiscal deficit of 5 percent of GDP

Moreover, the effects of conflicts are dynamic, lasting at least five years after the onset of the conflict. The onset of a high-intensity conflict (29 conflict-related deaths per million or 75th percentile of the distribution) is estimated to lower output per capita by 5 percent in the first year, with the effect reaching about 7.5 percent after five years and remaining statistically significant.

### **2.1.3. Effect of Armed Conflict Crises Cultural Heritage**

#### **2.1.3.1. Cultural heritage and Conflict**

The concept of culture and the identification of what is “heritage” are by themselves contentious issues. Therefore, it should not be surprising that this becomes prominent in some – but not all – violent conflicts (Legnér ,2016). One contested issue is the creation and management of heritage sites, which has been identified by heritage scholars as constructed through cultural practices rather than objectively defined. In this study, buildings, sites and objects are not seen as having intrinsic qualities or values but these values are imposed on the fabric of sites by actors situated in time and space (Smith, 2006). Likewise, the heritage discourse in one community may differ from the one in another community, which could spur conflicts. As cultural heritage becomes increasingly significant across the world, it becomes a venue for contestation and power struggle, ranging in scale from silent resistance to being violently claimed or even destroyed (Tunbridge and Ashworth 1996). This can be exemplified by Islamic rebels in Mali who vowed to destroy anything in Timbuktu that was referred to as world heritage, arguing “there is no world heritage, it doesn’t exist. The infidels must not get involved in our business” (Elias 2013).

Yet, despite being a contested concept, there exist definitions of cultural heritage that are broadly accepted. In this study, we use UNESCO's definition of cultural heritage which emphasizes the idea of tangible resources inherited from the past and shared by all humanity: "The cultural heritage may be defined as the entire corpus of material signs—either artistic or symbolic—handed on by the past to each culture and, therefore, to the whole of humankind" (Jokilehto 2005). Using this definition, we can see cultural heritage as being constructed through discourses where values are projected on to tangible objects. Despite the various definitions in use over the world, there is an increasing consensus that cultural property needs protection in times of crises. In fact, cultural property protection has become an obligation in international humanitarian law (Stone, 2013). Such protection is crucial as cultural property constitutes the memory of a community and the group may become dysfunctional if it is lost (Stone, 2016). The devastating effects of attacks on cultural property can be exemplified by Iraq, where systematic attacks on symbols and monuments connected to the Baath regime since 2003 have led to “a near complete erosion of the Iraqi brand of nationalism” (Isakhan ,2011).

Cultural property may be attacked as part of interstate conflict where different state armies face each other. In fact, cultural property has been captured as war booty by invading armies for centuries. A notorious example is cultural property stolen by the German and Russian

armies during the Second World War (Nicholas, 1994). Destruction of cultural property as part of ‘spoils of war’ dynamics between two state armies has, however, decreased in the last decades and one reason is that this type of behaviour has been addressed by international law as a breach of accepted military conduct of war (Meyer ,1993). Also, cultural property may be attacked as part of civil wars where the fighting is between a regime and a rebellious organization which is seeking to take power or secede by the use of force. A well-known example is the Bosnian War in which cultural property was extensively destroyed as part of attempts to destroy religious and cultural identity (Walasek ,2015). In these settings, competing identities may provide the division between the belligerents and political actors may emphasize historical and cultural differences in order to mobilize support for their cause (Toft, 2003). Attacking prominent heritage sites may become part of this dynamic. Furthermore, cultural property may also be attacked as part of communal conflicts, where self-perceived identity differences define the actors in the conflict. In contrast to the more organized actors in interstate and civil wars, intercommunal violence may take place between “mobs” claiming to represent competing ethnic, religious, or pastoralist/agriculturalist communities (Horowitz, 2001). Cultural property with a high representational value for the other group may be targeted as part of such conflicts.

## **Why attack cultural property?**

### ***1. Military-strategic issues***

Our first reason why attack cultural property – military-strategic – includes attacks where the main motivation to target a cultural property is an explicit attempt to win tactical advantages in the fighting. In all forms of conflict, strategic decisions shape the ability of actors to continue fighting as well as their probability of success (Gartner ,1999). For armies involved in interstate conflict or civil war, capturing or destroying heritage sites may be motivated because of their location on mountain sides or along main thoroughfares or their design which may offer cover for snipers and spies. Furthermore, in wars fought to capture new territory (which is rarely the case in recent decades), one reason for erasing the symbols of the previous regime was to break any resistance. This was one of the motivations behind the deliberate attacks during the Second World War aimed at undermining the enemies’ social cohesion and symbols of national unity. This included the German destruction of Jewish and Catholic cultural property in Poland during the 1939 invasion, and the Baedeker raids on historic city centres in England during 1942 (Lambourne ,2001).

## ***2. Economic incentives***

Historically, much cultural property has been destroyed as victorious armies took cultural property as ‘spoils of war’. The theft of cultural property was often used to pay armies. Since the end of the Second World War, however, looting of cultural property conducted by armies winning the war has been limited (Stone, 2016). Nevertheless, an important resource for a group to maintain a fighting force is the ability to provide private incentives to participants willing to risk their lives and livelihoods by joining an armed actor. Regardless of whether participants are specifically paid by the organisation, are offered opportunities to enrich themselves by loot, or are driven by ideological aims, rebellion is costly (Lichbach ,1998). Weapons need to be acquired; logistics and lodging need to be organised, and supporters and informers often need to be paid off in order for an organisation to function effectively (Petersen, 2001). While conflict researchers have primarily focused on the role of natural resources as a means to boost a group's war chest, the selling off looted antiquities provides an alternative source of funding. Thus, cultural property may be attacked because of economic reasons.

While opportunistic looting of cultural property has, to some extent, been a consistent feature of wars (Rothfield, 2008), recent research suggests that the incentives for such behaviour have increased in recent years (Brodie, 2015). Following increased export regulations, the reduction in the legal international antiquities market means that collectors may be more active in exploiting opportunities when conflict erupts and policing is eroded. As a consequence, armed groups may deliberately modify their strategy in order to specifically capture and exploit cultural property as a means of expansion (Baker and Anjar 2012).

Hence, looted antiquities constitute a source of funding for some armed groups and the list of countries torn by armed conflict that have been subjected to widespread looting is long. For example, illegal trade of antiquities constitutes part of the income of armed groups in Iraq, Syria, Afghanistan and other war-torn countries with a great number of archaeological sites. Also, many features of the illicit trade with antiquities are enabled by the fact that it occurs in contested regions (Cunliffe et al 2016). Thus, dealers and clients involved in illicit trade do not only commit a crime but also contribute to financing several of the current conflicts.

## ***3. Signalling***

There are reasons to suspect that cultural property may be particularly at risk of being used for signaling in irregular conflicts. As noted above, the symbolic nature of what is considered cultural heritage makes it a target that is likely to warrant a lot of attention. At the same time, because most cultural property is not of military-strategic importance, these sites

are rarely as well defended as government buildings or military bases. Thus, they are relatively low-risk targets (often referred to as ‘soft targets’), but which send a very strong signal. In a similar manner, armed groups often choose to target civilians, even if their goals are political, as civilians constitute targets that are comparatively easy to attack while simultaneously sending a strong signal (Abrahms ,2006). If it were the case that attacks on cultural property are a suitable "weapon of the weak", we would see them becoming more or less common as a consequence of conflict dynamics (Hultman ,2007).

In addition to signaling to their adversaries, groups also signal their capabilities and commitment to the international community and the local civilian population. It is likely, for example, that the Taliban decision to destroy Buddha statues in Bamiyan valley – despite the outcry of the international community – was partly taken to send a signal of strength and independence, even though they claimed that their motivation was their opposition to idol worship (Knuth, 2006).

Furthermore, attacks may aim to send a signal to the audience of potential supporters. Such attacks may make recruitment (which is strategic) easier, but it is often primarily aimed at increasing collaboration and reducing the risk of denunciation (Kalyvas 2006). Rebel groups seeking cover amongst the civilian population are particularly sensitive to the risk of being infiltrated or betrayed, which means that it is important to clearly signal their ability to punish any civilians harbouring such intentions. Again, cultural heritage sites are often important communal arenas for displaying powerful signals, meaning that they may be at particular risk for this type of action. This is exemplified with the "afterwar" (Herscher ,2010) in Kosovo post-1999, when the dominant Kosovar media sided with the Albanian resistance movements, arguing in public that journalists who dared to compare Albanian violence with Serbian deserved to be attacked. In this way the resistance movement controlled the media and sought to scare everyone who made attempts at balancing the responsibility for violence in the conflict rather than just victimizing Kosovar Albanians. This kind of nationalist media campaign has both fed and been coordinated with waves of attacks against Serbian heritage sites (Pettifer & Vickers 2009).

## **2.2. Theoretical Framework**

### **2.2.1. Theory the Organization of Armed Conflict by Olson (1965)**

The theory states that in any armed conflict, rebels challenge the government and civil war can be thought of as a public good. If the armed conflict succeeds everybody will live under

the new regime, whether they actively supported the civil war or not. This violent strive for change requires the formation and persistence of a rebel army. According to the theory, common interests within a group are insufficient to produce a public good. Individuals in any group have incentives to ‘free ride’ on the efforts of others since they cannot be excluded from the consumption of the public good. The incentive to ‘free ride’ is reduced if only active participants receive private benefits. Thus, without these selective incentives to motivate participation, collective action is unlikely to occur even when groups have common interests. Olson also argued that group size is critical in achieving collective action. Not only do large groups face relatively high costs of organization, but their members will also gain relatively less per capita on successful collective action. The incentive for group action diminishes as group size increases; as a consequence, large groups are less able to act in their common interest than small ones. Thus, according to the theory of collective action, smaller groups are more likely to rebel and in order to recruit followers they will have to provide selective incentives.

Armed conflicts may also start off as addressing grievances as was with the AC but justice-seeking can turn into loot-seeking during the course of the war. Weinstein’s model of rebel recruitment suggests that where there are opportunities for large profits, the composition of the rebel group will gradually shift towards those with a motivation for private gain: the civil war experiences adverse selection in motivation (Weinstein, 2015).

The benefits of selective incentives are key features in microeconomic models of rebel organization. Grossman (1991, 2014) presents a model in which peasant households decide how to allocate their labour time to production, soldiering, or participation in an insurrection. The interaction between the ruler and the peasant households results in an equilibrium allocation of labour time and a probabilistic distribution of income from the three activities. One possible equilibrium outcome is a higher expected income if time is allocated to civil war despite its opportunity cost. Gates (2012) argues that the leader faces a principal-agent problem and he tries to overcome this by the offer of selective incentives. The greater the geographic or social distance between leader and recruits, the greater the supervision problem and thus the need for private gain.

### **2.2.2. New visibility theory developed by Becker (2013)**

The study was also guided by the new visibility theory developed by Becker (2013), which connoted that the benefits of ending child soldier use can include an enhanced reputation and legitimacy within the international community, and practical support for rehabilitation of

former armed conflicts, including educational and vocational opportunities. Possible negative consequences of continued child soldier use can include “shaming” in international media, restrictions on military and other assistance, exclusion from governance structures or amnesty agreements, and prosecution by the International Criminal Court or other justice mechanisms (Becker, 2016).

If the international community is serious about ending the use of armed conflicts, it needs to build on the successes of the past five years, but with a sober eye for the obstacles that have stymied further progress (Denov, 2012). Renewed progress will depend on clearly and publicly identifying the responsible parties; providing financial and other assistance for demobilization and rehabilitation; and, most importantly, ensuring that violators pay a price should they continue to recruit and deploy armed conflicts, some concrete suggestions on how these remedies should be pursued, including the critical role that the U.N Security Council is poised to play (Geenen, 2012).

### **2.2.3. Conflict theory**

Conflict theory uses balance of power and resources to explain human behavior. This theory holds that individuals and groups will always compete for resources and opportunities. Those who have power and resources will try to keep them, according to this theory, and those who do not have will try to attain them.

All societies and social groups experience various levels of conflict. Conflict can occur between individuals, between social groups, and/or within social groups. Conflict Theory is one useful perspective for understanding how and why these disagreements occur. Conflict theory focuses on differences in power between individuals or social groups. This theory emerges from philosophical perspectives developed by Niccolo Machiavelli, Thomas Hobbes, and Karl Marx, and emphasizes the idea that people are inherently contentious when competing for resources and power. This theory gained popularity during the Civil Rights Movement as people challenged the traditionally greater power of Whites and men in society. Conflict Theory assumes that social interaction leads to conflict, and that conflict is an inevitable part of family relationships. Conflict, however, can be beneficial, especially when it spurs useful changes and resolutions of issues. . In the case of the Anglophone crisis we see that we see that the motive was a good one but the course and the prolonged nature is causing a lot of problems especially in the socioeconomic domain. The goal is not to completely prevent conflict, but to prevent conflicts from escalating to the point where members of the group are permanently harmed or

feel that remaining in the group is against their self-interest. In the context of the family unit, unresolved conflict can lead to divorce, splitting of extended families into factions, and breaking off of communication between family members.

Conflict emerges over struggles for power, influence, and resources. According to conflict theory, limited resources leads to conflict. These resources may be tangible items such as money, food, television, or use of the family car. Resources, however, may also include abstract constructs such as love, affection, or attention. Members of a family may compete for access to these resources. In this view, there is always a scarcity of resources, and therefore there will be conflict because not all people can secure the resources they want. For example, in the traditional family framework, a husband and wife may argue over ways to spend the husband's salary (e.g., buying a golf set or an expensive purse), and children may compete for time and attention from their parents. The person or people with the ability to control resources are typically thought of as having the most power. In this context, power can be thought of as the ability to control one's own circumstance or future life outcomes and/or the circumstances or life outcomes of others. Conflict Theory also asserts that structural inequality may be a common source of conflict. Structural inequality maybe defined as a difference in power dependent upon the social role or status one is assigned. In the traditional family structure the husband/father is prescribed the highest degree of power and control, such as ultimate authority over resources (e.g., finances). Second in the familial hierarchy is the wife/mother. This inequality can lead to conflict between men and women. Lastly, the children are afforded a degree of power and control, and older children are often given additional power. This can lead to conflict because people have differing abilities to secure their desired resources.

## **2.3. Empirical Review**

### **2.3.1. Effects of an Armed Conflict Crises on Education**

Saltarelli (2012) revealed that the role of education in national development cannot be over emphasized. This interim Strategic Plan provides a roadmap towards the restoration of this role in NSW. It is an important tool towards the provision of the much-needed unity of purpose in directing action among all the stakeholders involved in education delivery in NSW. Although there have been a number of initiatives to plan for the education sector in NSW

According to Beech (2019), access to education remains difficult for many children in NSW Regions. Lack of financial resources, the need to support the family, frequently no

access to schools in certain areas, divisions, or sub divisions where children live, and have all contributed to any access to education services for many NSW children. A study to examine the needs of secondary school students and a survey on numbers needs to be conducted through the EMIS (2020). The number of out-of-school secondary school age learners working to support the family is also a reality that needs to be assessed and taken into account. Secondary Technical vocation skills coupled with an effective curriculum will offer the learners options to pursue secondary school and or livelihood opportunities.

According to Lucas (2021), the Ministry of Secondary Education also wishes to priorities addressing the plight of Internally Displaced Persons in NSW Regions and other returning persons. These are estimated to total over 500,000 persons That are IDPs of whom around 150,000 are at the age of school going children. Based on a school size of 800 to 1000 this would require around 100 schools in NW alone. The Ministry of Secondary Education and the Ministry of Basic Education may begin by undertaking a mapping exercise that will identify the exact number of school age going children among the IDPs.

### **2.3.3. Effects of an Armed Conflict Crises on Economic productivity**

Collier et al. (2004) examined the impact of armed conflicts on economic productivity, they estimate that an average period of armed conflict is 7 years while post-war recovery period lasts for more than 10 years. The results show that economic situation after the armed conflict is that the economy is lagging behind by approximately 15% of what it should have been, losing around 60 billion dollars. Bircan et al (2017) argued there is increase in inequality as conflict goes on and the increase does not stop with peace, inequality increases to higher levels in the post-war period. In a larger context, Collier et al (2003) have argued that destructive impact of conflict could lead to an increase in the already-growing income divide between the rich and poor countries.

Looking at the long-term impacts of armed conflict, Miguel and Roland (2011) in their study on US bombings on Vietnam, interestingly find no such long-term impact on poverty or local population 25 years on from the “American war”, rather the findings indicate decline in poverty and quicker population recovery in highly bombed areas. Also, they point out that there is evidence that the consumption grew quicker in these areas because of reallocation of local resources towards these areas. But they claim the recovery would not have been possible without strong institutions.

In concern to the impact of conflict on other regions or countries, Murdoch and Sandler (2002) conclude conflict negatively affects the short run economic growth of the country and the neighbouring countries as well even though it is less evident in the long run. They add that spill overs from a conflict-ridden country can be severe enough to negatively impact the living standards in the neighbouring countries, especially those sharing longer adjoining borders. Results from Abadie and Gardeazabal's (2003) study on the conflict in the Basque region indicated that other regions had faced negative impact on their economic productivity as overall foreign investment declined to all Spanish regions. But, the Basque region in comparison to the other regions witnessed relatively low growth.

The theoretical aspects of armed conflicts are surveyed extensively in a literature review conducted by Blattman and Miguel (2010). They discuss three main theories of armed conflict on which most of theoretical literature are based; (a) rebellion as means to compete for economic opportunity (resources), (b) bargaining model, where there is bargaining between two parties the elite and poor, with possibility of revolt leading to violent conflict, and (c) formation of rebel groups either through incentives, coercive recruitment or leaders tapping into 'ethnic nationalism'. While, Collier and Hoeffler (2004) theorize that rebels, like any other rational decision maker, analyze the cost and benefit of joining the rebellion and the opportunity cost (the possible wage-earning hours foregone as a consequence) of joining the rebel forces.

Theoretical literature shows low income and poverty, state failure or weak institutions, social divisions and failure of economic underdevelopment as major factors that may contribute to the onset of an armed conflict (Elbadawi and Sambanis 2000). Stewart (2002) argues that armed conflicts can be caused due to (a) increasing inequality among groups leading to conflict, (b) failure of administrative system which weakens state authority (c) decline in capability of the powerful groups to accrue additional economic benefits giving rise to insecurity and breakdown of the central authority. Blattman and Miguel (2010) conclude that low income and slow growth lead to outbreak of armed conflict. While, Venables and Kanbur (2003) point out that non-inclusive development may lead to conflict.

From a thorough literature review of empirical studies Sambanis (2002) identified poverty and slow growth, ethnic diversity and polarization, natural resources, and the level and change of democracy can cause armed conflicts. Contrastingly, results from Collier and Hoeffler's (2004) study, indicate possibility of economic gains from rebellion lead to conflict and political repression and economic inequality do not have causal relationship with conflict. Whereas, Miguel et al. (2004) argue that growth would lead to an increase in probability of

armed conflicts with results indicating towards a highly significant relationship between growth shock and occurrence of war.

#### **2.3.4. Effects of an Armed Conflict Crises on Cultural heritage**

Cunliffe, (2012) examined that the attack on a country's cultural heritage is an attack on its identity. The results showed that, that's precisely what it is, and it doesn't happen by chance. For example, in the Middle East, as a consequence of the collapse of the political regimes there, after the wars in Iraq and Syria and in the wake of the failure of the Arab Spring in 2011, the ideological backdrop behind the destruction that has taken place isn't only a defence of monotheism. It's a modern version of the *damnatio memoriae* of Roman times - the condemnation of memory and erasure from history, which was an attempt to exclude a specific social and cultural structure from existing in a territory as a system - to deny it the right to exist with the iconic features of its past. Destroying the past means denying the present, and above all, the future. Desecrating the remains of the past is also a socio-political tool for reaffirming possession of a territory by destroying the tangible elements of its history. It's a way of destroying people's roots.

The relationship between heritage and identity is essential to understand it, since the concept of heritage is therefore presented in its fullest terms, meaning the identification of a people and a culture with its historical and cultural heritage. But iconoclasm also includes different problems. In other cases, the destruction of symbols of the past can symbolize a revision of history itself, based on the understanding that social changes happening in the present must also be applied to the construction of the narrative discourse of the past. This applies to the Confederate statues in the United States, for example.

According to Gibson, (2009), armed conflict critically impacts cultural heritage in all its variety of forms and manifestations: acts of war – of heroism, sacrifice or massacre – force new places to the fore, and boundaries shift and gain importance in their firmness or porosity. Furthermore, conflicts are replete with materiality: uniforms, weapons, maps, insignias, and ration packs. They transform everyday objects and places. The thick texture of meaning common to heritage sites becomes irrevocably transformed by conflict as they absorb new symbolic dimensions and come to have different affective connotations for communities. The destruction of cultural heritage during armed conflict has become the forefront issue within the international discourse on its legal protection in the last several decades. Many scholars and

professionals have contributed to the development of international legal instruments concerning cultural heritage protection.

Gibson, (2009) investigated the relationship between cultural heritage and conflict. The results of the study revealed that the relationship is one that involves a dynamic of construction, destruction, and reconstruction: new heritage sites emerge as a result of conflict even as existing ones are targeted, obliterated, and reinterpreted. Holtorf & Kristensen (2015) in their research focused on the impact of armed conflict on cultural heritage. The results of their findings revealed the destructive effects on the physical integrity of monuments and objects and on architecture and collections, or on the attempts to mitigate that destruction, during conflict. Heritage places have an extra dimension of agency for they are effective communicators of the various dimensions of the relationships between people, their pasts, and their surroundings. This approach shows that the effectiveness of this communicative dimension does not appear to be diminished by apparent contradictions in the message it sends forth. The memorial site at Verdun is both one of mourning and loss, and one of creation of a national spirit, pride, and hope for a different future. Dresden's Frauenkirche can be simultaneously a symbol of hope and of suppression, just as Gernika's rebuilt square can be an aspiration both to tradition restored and the establishment of a new order. Such cases show how places may contain semantic contradictions without losing their evocative power.

Knuth, R. (2006) opined that conflict transforms how landscapes are read and buildings understood; battles and atrocities imbue certain places with new significance even as others seem to be forgotten. This can be observed in media coverage of wars in which dramatic headlines single out specific places or events, such as "The Tragedy of Guernica. Town Destroyed in Air Attack" (The Times, 28/Apr/1937), or more recently, "Mostar's Old Bridge Battered to Death (NYT, 10/Nov/1993). As a result, certain heritage sites are prioritized, drawing horrified gazes to their destruction. But as argued by Lambourne, N. (2001), the relationship between cultural heritage and armed conflict runs far deeper than such material damage, and raises questions arise about intentionality and consequences that accompany the destructive acts (Viejo-Rose 2011), and which deeply influence their long-term impact. Cultural heritage can be deliberately targeted in order to damage an opponent's morale or its tourist industry, to send a message indicating the apparent cultural distinctiveness of the 'other' – representing the enemy as a visibly identifiable and homogenous unit – or to defy the international community, threatening and installing fear. The consequences of this form of violence pan out over a long period: from the immediate shock and grief, to a protracted period

of mourning over the loss, to longer-term feelings of resentment, to a generation that grows up without the materiality of that cultural referent.

It is important to note that the most immediate effect of the destruction of cultural heritage is the real loss of monuments and other items of heritage that are evidence of a people's cultural identity, with all the problems that this implies and what their reconstruction or the impossibility of their restoration entails. For this reason, institutions systematically seek the most appropriate solutions for restoring this heritage after the conflict. There's also a very important economic loss, given the high value of heritage as economic and cultural resources belonging to society.

Legnér (2016) found that there a relationship between the black market and the destruction of cultural heritage. He went ahead to opine that the looting of Iraq's museums during the 2003 invasion led to archaeological materials being trafficked in the semi-clandestine antiquities market, and some of them were permanently lost in the illegal networks involved in the black market for works of art. This looting was followed by the attempt to force an amendment to Iraqi legislation to permit legal exports of the country's historical-archaeological heritage. The colonial practices that led to the exportation of the archaeological heritage of Mesopotamia, the Middle East and Egypt between the end of the 18th century and the 20th century to the major museums in the West were given a new lease of life using the justification of preserving a common cultural heritage.

#### **2.4. Gaps in Literature**

In terms of conceptualization, the previous studies on armed conflict crises and its effects on education,

economic productivity level and cultural heritage did not tackle the situation of Cameroon and especially the AC.

Further on the contextual note, AC is facing the worst humanitarian crisis since independence with estimated hundreds of thousands of people in need of aid as security deteriorates in some specific areas. The humanitarian needs are growing faster than the ability to deal with the drivers of the AC and its effects. These include food and financial crisis, water scarcity, IPD influx, mass displacement, and population pressure. These necessitated this study.

**CHAPTER THREE**  
**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

## **Introduction**

In this chapter, a description of the methodology, including the method that was used to estimate the variables used for the study were presented. This chapter was made of area of study, scope of study, research design, population of study, sample size, sampling technique, target population, data sources and collection, data collection instrument, model specification, specification test, validity and reliability, and ethical issues.

### **3.2. Research design**

The current research adopted a descriptive survey design. Descriptive survey design was used because it enabled preliminary and exploratory analysis to for data to be obtained at a particular time frame. With intentions of describing the nature of the existing conditions or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be composed of or determining the conditions and the relationship that exists between specific variables. According to Kombo and Tromp (2006), a descriptive research design can be used to structure the research to show how the various parts of the research project collaborate to address the central research questions. The descriptive survey design was thus chosen because the study involved asking questions to people with sound knowledge on how the AC has impacted the socio-economic productivity of the NWSW Regions. The descriptive research design provided the researcher with an opportunity to probe the respondents for more information through questionnaire and follow up interviews.

### **3.3. Area and scope of study**

#### **3.3.1. Area of study**

The area, precisely of study for this study is Bamenda in the NW Region of Cameroon the Bamenda III Council Area. This is found within Mezam Division. Bamenda, is the capital of the North west Region of Cameroon. Population of the Northwest region of Cameroon: 1,735,000 million inhabitants in 2005 and 1,906,000 million inhabitants as of 2022. The Northwest region has a total surface area of (17,300 km<sup>2</sup>). Main ethnic groups are the Tikari, Widikum and Fulani and Moghamo. Main religion: Christianity. The Northwest region is one of the most dynamic economic zones in Cameroon, thanks to Bamenda. Main economic activities of the Northwest region are mining of platinum, gold diamond and uranium, cattle rearing and agriculture (maize, beans etc.)

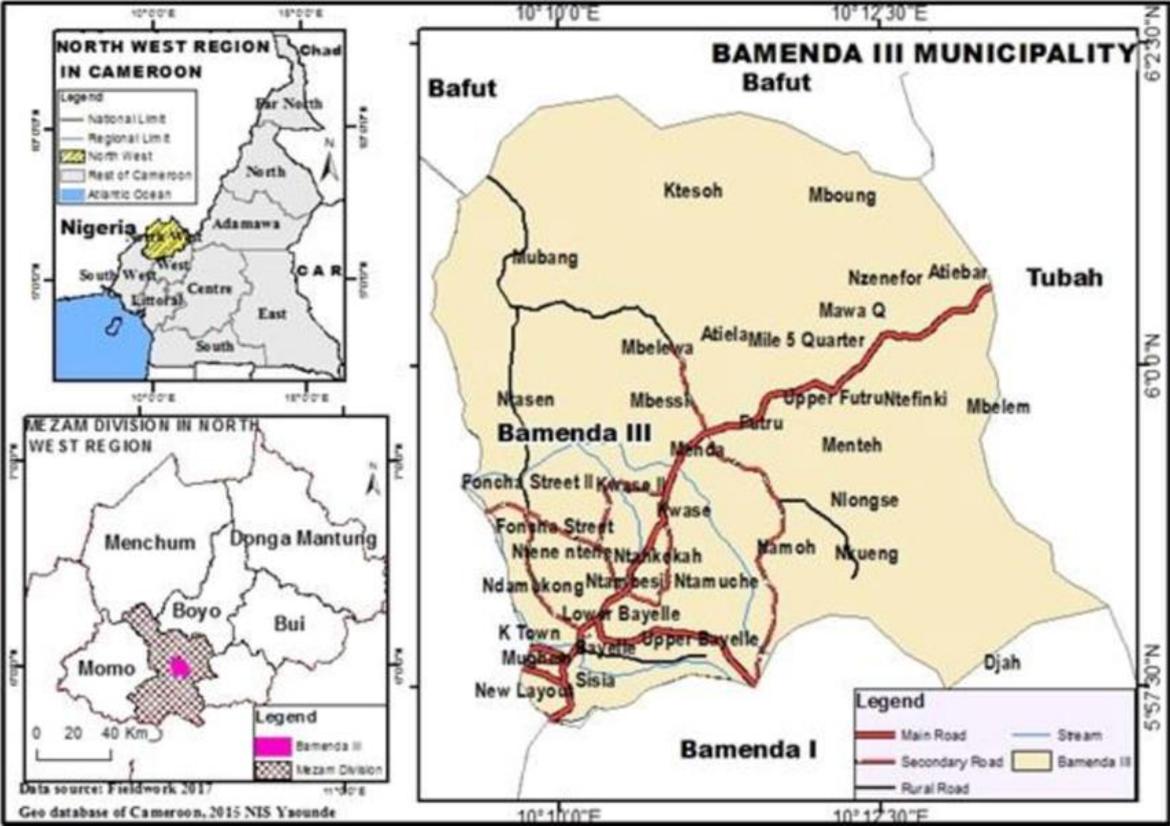
### **3.3.1.1. Mezam Division (Cameroon)**

The Mezam Division is one of the 7 division in the Northwest region of Cameroon. The capital of the Mezam Division is Bamenda Population of the Mezam Division: 524,127 inhabitants occupying a surface area of The Mezam Division is made up of three subdivisions which are Bamenda I (Mendankwe), Bamenda II (Mankon) and Bamenda III (Nkwen) which is the main focus of our study.

#### **Description of Bamenda III Municipality**

Bamenda III Council was created in 2007 by Ministerial Decree. No. 2007/115 of 23rd April 2007. Since then, it has been operating on a temporal site. However, its permanent site is under construction. From its creation, the following persons have been Mayors; Hon. Prince Pius Ngwa Amandou who ran the affairs from 2007-2010 followed by Hon. Fonguh Cletus Tanweh from 2010-date. Bamenda III Council has 02 main clans, Nkwen and Ndzah. The Nkwen people who are part of the Tikari group, and is made up of 46 quarters. Then, there are the Ndzah people, who occupy 9 quaters making it a total of 51 quarters The total population of about 150,000 inhabitants which is steadily increasing, this is because Bamenda III has been relatively calm as compared to other places. It occupies a surface area of 22.9km<sup>2</sup> hectares.

**Figure 1: The geographical limits of Bamenda III subdivision within Mezam division and North west region.**



Source: Google Map

**3.4. Population**

**3.4.1. Population of the Study**

A research population is generally an extensive collection of individuals or objects that is the main focus of a scientific query. It is for the benefit of the community that researches are done. However, due to the large sizes of populations, researchers often cannot test every individual in society because it is too expensive and time-consuming. This is the reason why researchers rely on target population.

**3.4.2. Target population**

The target population is often considered to be the specific population of interest in a study. It is the population from which the accessible population is drawn. The target population was made of the people living in the Bamenda III locality especially the Bayelle I – IV Neighborhood who the Anglophone crisis has affected their activities.

### **3.5. Sample size**

A sample is a smaller group of elements drawn through a formal procedure from a specified population for inclusion in a study and from which the researcher hopes to gain generalizable knowledge about the whole community (Yin, 2004).

#### **3.5.1. Interview guide**

In research terms, a sample is a group of people, objects, or items that are taken from a larger population for measurement. The sample should be representative of the community to ensure that we can generalise the findings from the research sample to the population as a whole (Nworgu, 2006).

A sample of 20 people were selected randomly and were considered for interviews as far as this for this study was concerned.

#### **3.5.2. Questionnaire**

##### **Calculation of sample size of the study for questionnaire respondents**

Slovin's formula is used to calculate the sample size (n) given the population size (N) and the margin of error (e). It is computed by using the formula below:

Slovin's formula of computing the sample from the population

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where:

n = the size of the sample

N = the size of the population

e = the margin of error (0.07)

n was computed to be =200

### **3.6. Sampling techniques**

Sampling technique is the act, process or technique of selecting a suitable smaller size of a population of a representative part of a community to determine parameters or characteristics of the whole population (Tollich, M. 2009). Sampling also refers to the method and process of selecting a given number of people from the community (Tollich, M. 2009).

To obtain relevant and correct information, respondents were selected using appropriate sampling techniques for their fair representation and for generalization after the study is

completed. For this reason, the researcher used simple random sampling technique to obtain questionnaire respondents from people living in the study area.

### **3.6.1. Simple Random Sampling technique**

The simple random sampling technique was used to select questionnaire respondents of this study. This was done in order to ensure that they had the right profile to be respondents to the questionnaire. Further, given that the people living in this area were numerous, data from them could be easily sourced via questionnaire administration.

## **3.7. Data collection Sources**

### **3.7.1. Justification of data sources used**

The primary source of data source and secondary source of data were used in this study because they enabled respectively that their ensured that the research questions were answered and the hypothesis were verified.

These sources of data were also used because they are often obtained in a form that usually does not require a lot of condensation before analysis. They were therefore chosen too because of objectivity. When data goes through a lot of treatment before analysis, this reduces greatly the credibility of the results of analysis.

### **3.7.2. Primary sources**

#### **3.7.2.1. Interviews and questionnaire**

Several scheduled in-depth interviews were conducted using prepared semi structured but flexible interview guides with key government officials and people of the civil society. Questionnaire was administered to some sampled persons living in that area.

### **3.7.3. Secondary Data Sources**

Related literature was extensively reviewed in order to acquire an understanding of the topic and what has already been done on it including how it was researched. Attention was also directed to key Government officials and people of the civil society in the sub division who were knowledgeable enough regarding the theme under study. Such a review also highlighted major criticisms of what obtains on the field as well as successes and failures emerging from such practices over space and time. Available literature on the theme of this study including the

relevant government texts and official historical accounts were examined. Information about each document consulted was stored and sourced from the desktop.

They have important information figures, administrative and functional structure, operational definitions, sampling frames and history.

### **3.8. Instruments used to obtain data**

Two instruments were used to collect primary data. That is the questionnaire and the interview schedule.

#### ***(a) Questionnaire***

Primary data was collected using questionnaire made up of closed ended statements and open-ended statements. In constructing the questionnaire for this study, the researcher ensured that relevant variables were incorporated based on the objectives of the study, research questions and hypotheses.

#### **3.8.1. Validation of questionnaire**

An instrument is said to be valid when it measures what it was designed to measure. The research instrument was validated in two phases; the face validity and content validity.

##### **3.8.1.1. Face validity**

The questionnaire was structured to suit the research topic and thereafter, was presented to the supervisor of the thesis for scrutiny. The supervisor rejected and reformulated some of the items after going through the questionnaire. After relevant corrections were made, the student-researcher was authorized to proceed with the administration of the research instrument.

##### **3.8.1.2. Content validity**

The thesis supervisor and some other lecturers of the department evaluated the items on the instruments to ensure their relevance to the topic under study and appropriateness of the content. The copies of the questionnaire were given to them along with research questions, objectives of study and hypotheses. The validates were used to check the appraise the language and clarity of the items in the questionnaire, assess the appropriateness of the questionnaire items for collecting the required information from the subjects and assess the comprehensiveness of the questionnaire items in covering all the matters of the research. On the basis of their inputs, corrections were made and the final version was developed.

### **3.8.1.3. Construct Validity**

This is the extent to which an instrument measures the theoretical constructs it intends to measure. The questionnaire was constructed following the research objectives and research questions, which reflected the research hypotheses. This was good because all the items carried the needed variables to test the hypotheses of the study.

### **3.8.2. Reliability of the questionnaire**

Reliability is trust worthiness on something, and in the context of a measuring instrument, it is the degree to which the instrument consistently and accurately measured what it was designed to measure (Amin, 2005).

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of internal consistency was used to test the reliability of the instrument used. Reliability of a research instrument is the degree to which the instrument produces consistent results. An instrument can be reliable, but not valid.

#### ***(b)Interview Guide***

Primary data was also collected using Focus group interviews. The respondents chosen because they were expected to use their experience, knowledge and observations to provide answers to the items in the interview guide.

## **3.9. Administration of the Data collection instruments**

### **3.9.1. Administration of the questionnaire**

The direct delivery technique (DDT) was used to ensure the proper administration of the questionnaire. By this technique, the student researcher personally went to the various respondents with the questionnaire. This was purposely for data accuracy and in order that clarifications could be made by the researcher where necessary. The student researcher constantly reminded the respondents to ask her questions directly in case they did not understand any item on the questionnaire. The student researcher also made sure that the questionnaire were administered when the respondents were ready to answer the questionnaire depending on their availability. This was to make sure the respondents still had a fresh mind and to ensure objectivity while filling the questionnaire.

The respondents received and filled the questionnaire independently. Monitoring was done to ensure that a respondent was not influenced by another in the course of filling the

questionnaire. After filling the questionnaire, they were collected at the spot thus ensuring a 100% return rate. Two months were used to administer the questionnaire.

### **3.9.2. Interview Guide**

Primary data was also collected using focus group interviews. This instrument was used specifically to address research question three. This was because the ideal respondents could only be the people living in the Bamenda III subdivision. They were expected to use their experience, knowledge and observations to provide answers to the items in the interview guide.

## **3.10. Data analysis**

### **3.10.1. Techniques for data analysis**

#### ***(a) Questionnaire***

In analyzing the data, descriptive analysis and inferential statistics can be used as the analytical techniques. Descriptions could be given to the quantitative data to add more meaning as well as explain their implications.

### **3.10.2. Statistical manipulation**

To achieve the research goals, the researcher used the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) for manipulating and analyzing the data.

Statistical methods were as follows:

1. Frequencies and Percentile was carried out on the demographic data of respondents.
2. Alpha-Cronbach Test was used for measuring reliability of questionnaire fields.
3. Frequency distribution tables were used to present the response data of respondents regarding the items that addressed respective research questions and hence provide answers to the researchable questions.

#### ***(b) Interview guide***

Data analysis refers to the separation of elements of research data to expose some general principles that can be utilized to explain the nature of the phenomenon being investigated and can be applied in other contexts (Denscombe, 2003). For purposes of this study, open-ended questions in the interviews as well as the focus group findings will be analyzed and reported verbatim and in other cases their comments will be integrated in a summary. This study followed the example set out in an article entitled, *Step 5: analyze the*

*results* (Anon, 2009) which demonstrate how to integrate the aforementioned modes of reporting qualitative findings. According to Corden and Sainsbury (2006), the purpose of integrating both verbatim and summarized reports, is to:

- enhance understanding of the research situation;
- give respondents a voice to share their experiences of the problem;
- illustrate the themes;
- explain how things happened; and
- facilitate “a joint production of meaning”.

### **3.10.3. Analysis of focus group interviews**

In order to capture the richness of people’s experiences in their own terms, their level of emotion and thoughts, Krueger’s (1994) framework analysis, as explicated by Rabiee (2004), was used. The latter scholar defines framework analysis as a “process with distinct though highly interconnected stages”, broadly classified under an analysis continuum outlined below:

- Raw data
- descriptive statements
- interpretation

The framework utilizes five key phases in the process of data analysis, namely:

Familiarization; identifying a thematic framework; indexing; charting; mapping and interpretation. In the first phase of this study, all the recorded data from the interview– audio-taped, fully transcribed with notes of observed behavior – was read and listened to for the researcher to familiarize herself with the data. Secondly, themes were developed. Thirdly, the data was carefully sifted and highlighted for comparison within and between cases, thus indexing it. Next, through charting and mapping, data was reduced by reshuffling and rearranging it under newly-developed themes. Finally, the data was interpreted. Verbatim and summarized comments by respondents were used as an integrated mode of reporting.

### **3.11. Ethical considerations**

In carrying out this research, the researcher had to take into consideration some ethical issues. First the student researcher obtained an authorization from the Head of Department, in order to carry out this research. The researcher then went to the various Government offices where she presented a letter of permission alongside the interview guide to the various

respondents of interest. The respondents were all assured of confidentiality and that all the information was going to be used strictly for academic purpose.

### **3.12. Variables and operational definitions**

The major variables found in this study are the Dependent and Independent variables

#### **3.12.1. Dependent variable.**

**The** dependent variable is also known as the criterion variable. The researcher's goal is the dependent variable to the undependable variable, explains its validity and makes predictions in our study. The dependent variable is the socioeconomic activities of the population of Cameroon.

#### **3.12.2. Independent variable**

Independent variable on the other hand is also known as the predicator, or explanatory or casual variable an indirect. And it is the presumed cause of the variation in the dependent variable It thus explain or account for variation in dependent variable. The independent variable is the effects of the Anglophone crisis

**Tableau 1: A systematic table containing research question, hypothesis variables and modalities**

Sujet	Question principale	Hypothèse principale	Hypothèses secondaires	Sous-variables	Indicateurs (Données mesurables, éléments concrets permettant d'évaluer la variable d'une étude)	Modalités (Valeurs que prend un indicateur)		
The effects of the Anglophone crisis on socio-economic activities of the population of Cameroon.case of Bamenda III subdivision	To what extent does the Anglophone Crises (AC) impact socio-economic activities?	There is no statistically significant relationship between Anglophone Crises (AC) and socio-economic activities.	<b>RH1:</b> There is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and the level of education.	<b>V1</b> The Anglophone crisis	-School dropouts -illiteracy rate -High crime rate -Juvinel delinquency	Disagree Strongly disagree Agree Strongly agree		
				<b>Dv 1</b> Education in Cameroon				
			<b>RH2:</b> There is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and level of economic productivity.	<b>V 2</b> Crisis the Anglophone	-Scarcity of baisic comodities - Prize inflation -Poverty -Hunger		Disagree Strongly disagree Agree Strongly agree	
				<b>Dv 2</b> The productivity level in Cameroon				
			<b>RH3:</b> There is is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and the level of culture.	<b>V 3</b> The Anglophone crisis	-Missing identity -Internal displacement -Trauma -Lackof sovrienty			Disagree Strongly disagree Agree Strongly agree
				<b>Dv3</b> The culture of Cameroon				

**CHAPTER FOUR**  
**PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS**

## Introduction

Findings of this study were presented based on demographic information and responses from questionnaire. The findings were presented based on the specific research questions of the study. This chapter focused on the analysis of the data gathered from the field. Demographic data of respondents was analyzed using descriptive statistics.

### 4.1. Demographic information of respondents

#### 4.1.1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

The study findings about socio-demographic characteristic of the respondents to the questionnaire are detailed in the table below.

**Table 1: Gender**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Male	108	54	54	54
	Female	92	46	46	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: Field data**

The results on the table above reveal that 54 per cent of the respondents were male while 46 per cent were female. This means that there was almost equality concerning the number of male respondents and the number of female respondents.

**Table 2: Level of education**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Ordinary level	67	33.5	33.5	33.5
	Advanced level	53	26.5	26.5	60.0
	Degree	55	27.5	27.5	87.5
	Masters	13	6.5	6.5	94.0
	Phd	12	6	6	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: Field data**

The results on the table above reveal that 33.5 per cent of the respondents had ordinary level certificates, 26.5 per cent had advanced level certificates, 27.5 per cent had degree certificates, 6.5 per cent had masters' degrees, 6 per cent had PhDs.

**Table 3: Age range**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Less than 15	11	5.5	5.5	5.5
	16-20	29	14.5	14.5	20.0
	21-25	53	26.5	26.5	46.5
	Greater than 25	107	53.5	53.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: Field data**

The results on the table above reveal that 5.5 per cent of the respondents were less than 15 years, 14.5 per cent were in the 16-20 age bracket, 26.5 per cent were in the 21-25 age bracket while 53.5 per cent were at least 25 years old.

## 4.2. Presentation of Findings

Frequency distribution tables were used to present the analysis of each questionnaire item and hence enabled answers to the researchable questions.

### 4.2.1. Presentation of Findings with Regard to Research Questions

**Research Question One:** To what degree does the AC affect education in Cameroon?

**Table 4: The AC has caused a drop-in attendance in my school**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	A	44	22	22	22
	SA	122	61	61	83
	D	30	15	15	98
	SD	4	2	2	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: field data**

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that the AC has caused a drop-in attendance. 22 per cent and 61 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that the AC has caused a drop-in attendance or school enrollment.

**Table 5: As a result of the AC many children in my area are school dropouts**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	77	38.5	38.5	38.5
	<b>SA</b>	115	57.5	57.5	96
	<b>D</b>	3	1.5	1.5	97.5
	<b>SD</b>	5	2.5	2.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that as a result of the AC, many children are school drop outs. 38.5 per cent and 57.5 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that many children are school drop outs because of the AC.

**Table 6: The AC has caused an increase in juvenile delinquency**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	98	49	49	49
	<b>SA</b>	86	43	43	92
	<b>D</b>	12	6	6	98
	<b>SD</b>	4	2	2	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that the AC has caused an increase in juvenile delinquency. 49 per cent and 43 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that the AC is responsible for an increase in juvenile delinquency.

**Table 7: Most kids in my neighborhood find it difficult to read and write as a result of the AC.**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	85	42.5	42.5	42.5
	<b>SA</b>	104	52	52	94.5
	<b>D</b>	5	2.5	2.5	97
	<b>SD</b>	6	3	3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that children find it difficult to read and write as a result of the AC. 42.5 per cent and 52 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that there is an increase in illiteracy as a result of the AC.

**Table 8: The total number of schools has dropped as a result of the AC**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	108	54	54	54
	<b>SA</b>	89	44.5	44.5	98.5
	<b>D</b>	1	0.5	0.5	99
	<b>SD</b>	2	1	1	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: field data**

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that the total number of schools has dropped as a result of the AC. 54 per cent and 44.5 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that there is a reduction in the number of schools has dropped as a result of the AC.

**Research Question two:** To what extent does the Anglophone crisis affect the economic productivity level in Cameroon?

**Table 9: The AC has caused a drop in the production of raw materials**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	56	28	28	28
	<b>SA</b>	94	47	47	75
	<b>D</b>	34	17	17	92
	<b>SD</b>	16	8	8	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: field data**

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that the AC has the AC has the AC has caused a drop in the production of raw materials. 28 per cent and 47 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that the AC has caused a drop in the production of raw materials.

**Table 10: The AC has caused the inflation of prices of goods in the market**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	66	33	33	33
	<b>SA</b>	84	42	42	75
	<b>D</b>	32	16	16	91
	<b>SD</b>	18	9	9	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that the AC has the AC has caused the inflation of prices of goods in the market. 33 per cent and 42 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that the AC has caused the inflation.

**Table 11: The AC has increased the level of hunger**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	46	23	23	23
	<b>SA</b>	74	37	37	60
	<b>D</b>	42	21	21	81
	<b>SD</b>	38	19	19	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that the AC has increased the level of hunger. 23 per cent and 37 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that the AC has increased the level of famine and food shortages.

**Table 12: The rate of poverty has increased in my area as a result of the AC**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	45	22.5	22.5	22.5
	<b>SA</b>	71	35.5	35.5	58
	<b>D</b>	49	24.5	24.5	82.5
	<b>SD</b>	35	17.5	17.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that the rate of poverty has increased as a result of the AC. 22.5 per cent and 35.5 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that the rate of poverty has increased as a result of the AC.

**Table 13: The AC has caused limited employment in my area**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	56	28	28	28
	<b>SA</b>	103	51.5	51.5	79.5
	<b>D</b>	18	9	9	88.5
	<b>SD</b>	23	11.5	11.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: field data**

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that the AC has caused limited employment. 28 per cent and 51.5 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that there is a fall in the employment level because of the AC.

**Research question three:** To what level does the Anglophone crisis affect the culture in Cameroon?

**Table 14: The AC has displaced me from my place of origin**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	79	39.5	39.5	39.5
	<b>SA</b>	95	47.5	47.5	87
	<b>D</b>	11	5.5	5.5	92.5
	<b>SD</b>	15	7.5	7.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: field data**

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that the AC has displaced persons from their places of origin. 39.5 per cent and 47.5 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that has caused internal displacement of persons.

**Table 15: The AC has caused a lot of fear and trauma**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	56	28	28	28
	<b>SA</b>	94	47	47	75
	<b>D</b>	33	16.5	16.5	91.5
	<b>SD</b>	17	8.5	8.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: field data**

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that the AC has caused a lot of fear and trauma.28 per cent and 47 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that the AC has caused a lot of fear and trauma.

**Table 16: I am scared to move about freely in the community**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	83	41.5	41.5	41.5
	<b>SA</b>	109	54.5	54.5	96
	<b>D</b>	3	1.5	1.5	97.5
	<b>SD</b>	5	2.5	2.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: field data**

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that people are scared to move about freely in the community because of the AC.41.5 per cent and 54.5 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that people are scared to move about freely in the community because of the AC.

**Table 17: I can't speak my dialect due to the AC**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	48	24	24	24
	<b>SA</b>	84	42	42	66
	<b>D</b>	35	17.5	17.5	83.5
	<b>SD</b>	33	16.5	16.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: field data**

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that people are no longer able to speak their dialect because of the AC.24 per cent and 42 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that they were unable to speak their dialects because of the AC.

**Table 18: The AC has reduced value of our traditional sovereignty**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
<b>Valid</b>	<b>A</b>	98	49	49	49
	<b>SA</b>	86	43	43	92
	<b>D</b>	6	3	3	95
	<b>SD</b>	10	5	5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	200	100.0	100.0	

**Source: field data**

From the above table, it was the view of the respondents that there is a reduction in traditional sovereignty because of the AC.49 per cent and 43 per cent of the respondents respectively agreed and strongly agreed that there is a reduction in traditional sovereignty because of the AC.

#### **4.2.2. Verification of hypotheses**

##### **4.2.2.1. Research Hypothesis One**

There is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and the level of education.

**Table 19: The relationship between AC and the level of education**

		Anglophone crises	Level of education
Anglophone crises	Pearson Correlation	1	.714*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	200	200
Level of education	Pearson Correlation	.714*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	200	200

**Source: field data**

The result on the above table show that the P-value is .000 and therefore less than .05 per cent alpha level of significance. This leads us to the conclusion that the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant relationship between the AC and the level of education should be rejected while the alternative hypothesis that there is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and the level of education should be accepted.

##### **4.2.2.2. Research Hypothesis Two**

There is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and level of economic productivity.

**Table 20: The relationship between AC and level of economic productivity**

		Anglophone crisis	Level of education
Anglophone crisis	Pearson Correlation	1	.601*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	200	200
Level of education	Pearson Correlation	.601*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	200	200

**Source: field data**

The result on the above table show that the P-value is .000 and therefore less than .05 per cent alpha level of significance. This leads us to the conclusion that the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant relationship between the AC and level of economic productivity should be rejected while the alternative hypothesis that there is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and level of economic productivity should be accepted.

#### 4.2.2.3. Research Hypothesis Three

There is is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and the level of culture.

**Table 21: The relationship between AC and level of culture**

		Anglophone crisis	Level of culture
Anglophone crisis	Pearson Correlation	1	.651*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	200	200
Level of culture	Pearson Correlation	.651*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	200	200

**Source: field data**

The result on the above table show that the P-value is .001 and therefore less than .05 per cent alpha level of significance. This leads us to the conclusion that the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant relationship between the AC and the level of culture should be rejected while the alternative hypothesis that there is is a statistically significant relationship between the AC and the level of culture should be accepted.

### 4.3. Presentation of Interview Findings

#### 4.3.1. Participants in interviews

Participants for the interviews were selected using the purposive sampling method. Prior to selection, the respondents were screened to ensure that the participants were able to share the requisite information sought by the study in order for answers to the research questions raised in chapter one to be answered. The research participants in the interviews were selected from the education sector, economic and social sector as well as some stakeholders in the domain of culture. There were two clusters. Cluster one (1) for education and economic development while cluster two (2) was traditionalist and custodians of culture.

**Table 22: Showing Profile of participants**

Cluster	Location	Pseudo name
1	Bamenda	Adesa
1	Bamenda	Keria
2	Bamenda	Ekeidia
1	Bamenda	Alian
1	Bamenda	Thean
2	Bamenda	Wiol
2	Bamenda	Charma
2	Bamenda	Lemana

**ITEM 1:** Do you think the AC has impacted education in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon?

If yes, can you give details on how you think the AC has impacted education?

Considering the first interview question, the data were first considered relative to the literature before it was matched with relevant codes deduced from the literature.

**Table 23: Thematic codes for interview question 1**

Respondent	Response summary	Theme	Category
Keria	Students have been out of school for a while now. Those that returned to school no longer take schooling seriously. For example, I have noticed that the rate at which students nowadays do “chantier” work has increased greatly.	Education wastage	School enrolment
Ekeidia	The escalation of the AC in several localities led to the destruction of several schools this was common in very remote areas.	Destruction of schools	Attack on education and its infrastructure
Alian	Schools in localities that are deserted are currently being occupied by either of the rival parties however in some situations they are	Occupation of schools	Uses in which schools are put in to

	occupied by internally displaced persons Temporarily.		
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**ITEM 2:** To what extent has the AC affected the economic productivity of the NWSW Regions? Can you support your explanation with statistical figures?

**Table 24: Thematic codes for interview question 2**

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Response summary</i>	<i>Theme</i>	<i>Category</i>
Wiol	At our level, the council, our revenue during the past 7 years since the AC started has never risen the level it used to be before. Most tax payers complain of the numerous lock downs per year.	Fall in Tax revenue	Revenue collection by authorities
Thean	Many Firms belonging to major employers have folded out of business. This has caused the unemployment level to rise. If you Go to the Ndu tea estate even the CDC plantation you will realise that there are fewer employees	Rise in unemployment	Economic performances

**ITEM 3:** Has the AC affected cultural heritage significantly? If yes, what are some the ways you think the crises has impacted culture?

Thematic codes for interview question 3

**Table 25: Thematic codes for interview question 3**

<i>Respondent</i>	<i>Response summary</i>	<i>Theme</i>	<i>Category</i>
Charma	Cameroon has a rich cultural diversity. However, when I look at the two regions hit by the crisis I begin to wonder what legacy we want to leave behind the cultural heritage we could boast of especially in the	Destruction of cultural heritage	Cultural heritage

	Northwest is gradually fading away day-by-day.		
Lemana	I think the AC has diluted the authority that our traditional rulers and Notables use to enjoy. I am thinking about our traditional artifacts have encured as collateral dameges in some localities when the crisis escalated.	Loss of authority by the traditional authorities	Authority of traditional rulers

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION**

## **Introduction**

This chapter concludes the current research by discussing the findings in relation to the research questions. Then a conclusion is made followed by the recommendations, limitations to the study and suggestions for further research.

## **5.1. Discussion**

### **5.1.1. Degree to which the AC affects education**

The study sought to determine if the armed AC affects education especially in the conflict-stricken regions. This study highlighted the impact of the armed violence AC on education and the schooling system as a whole. The crises have had a direct or indirect impact on the reduction in students' enrolment and the rise in out-of-school children, although there are other reasons why kids leave school like to study in the other safer regions of Cameroon. Adeline, N., Bin, M., and Parfait, (2023). Analyzed the socioeconomic consequences of the Anglophone Conflict in Cameroon. They made mention of how the crisis has affected several aspects like Education, Public security, Economic productivity, culture just to name a few. Forbe, Vukenkeng, Adamu, (2019) Investigates in to the socioeconomic consequences of the crisis

The crisis in the NWSW regions of Cameroon has had a significant negative effect on the education sector. Education is central to the growth of any country, but by 2023, the conflict had caused the closure of more than 3,000 out of 6,515 Anglophone schools. Also, the crisis has reportedly deprived over 600,000 schoolchildren of regular classes. The number of secondary school enrolments reduced from 213,277 in 2016 (before the crisis) to 2,908 in 2018 (during the crisis), representing a drop of 98.6%. Accordingly, only about 19% of primary and secondary schools (collectively) remained open in the NWSW regions. Additionally, tertiary school enrolment dropped from 15,898 to 14,164 students between 2016 and 2018, representing a 10.91% drop at the University of Bamenda. The increase in the number of school dropouts within the Anglophone regions might lead to an increase in crime wave.

The results of the findings reveal that the conflict has severely affected the educational system in the two regions facing the crises. An indebt revelation of the findings shows that the crises has impacted education in three main ways namely; education wastage, destruction of schools and occupation of schools.

#### **5.1.1.1. Education wastage**

Education wastage brought by the AC is the increasing number of students dropping out of school. The study finding unveils that the school dropout rate is 2.3% in larger towns. And in smaller localities only central schools function normally. This demonstrated the detrimental causal effect of conflict exposure in terms of reducing the number of school years spent by students and limiting their ability to advance through the grades. Armed violence can undermine the educational process in numerous ways, which may be the cause of this in some cases (Mayai, 2022).

#### **5.1.1.2. Destruction of Schools**

The destruction of schools because of AC has rendered educational infrastructure and related facilities unusable and thereby diminishes a child's access to education. Such destruction has taken place in the form of either direct attacks on schools by the conflicting parties, or indiscriminate attacks due to armed combat, shelling. Whether schools are attacked indiscriminately or as prime targets, school systems and educational infrastructures have been heavily destroyed across the many localities in the North West and South West Regions.

#### **5.1.1.3. Occupation of Schools**

Access to education in the two crisis region is also be obstructed because educational facilities lose their educational use as schools become occupied by rival parties. School grounds have become tactical targets for armed groups for various physical and symbolic qualities, and schools provide a physical space for housing or bring additional financial and human resources. Moreover, educational infrastructure is often appropriated for alternative use in the context of the conflict and displacement, in serving for example as administrative receptions or as refugee shelters. Displacement in itself brings difficulties regarding accessing (formal) education as well, by the actual fact of children in the two regions constantly being on the move. sOther related difficulties here are the loss of documentation when fleeing or migrating, or migration flows causing enormous overcrowded classrooms in areas in the two regions with some degree of security like the regional capitals.

Furthermore, conflict affects education in other ways. Most tragically, it results in the death or displacement of teachers, staff and students. For example, more than two-thirds of teachers in primary and secondary schools in the two affected regions were displaced and some proportion OF them were killed as a result of the conflict. The conflict has also had a significant negative effect on human life in the two regions. About 6,000 fatalities have

been registered, and there are an estimated 60,000 refugees and 900,000 internally displaced persons.

### **5.1.2. Extent to which the Anglophone crisis affects the economic productivity level in Cameroon**

The Anglophone conflict has had a significant toll on the economy of the two conflict-stricken regions and even that of Cameroon as a whole. The NWSW regions are two major contributors to Cameroon's economy. In 2017, the country registered a fall of more than 30% in the performance of the industrial services, a drop of 5.3% in exports, 3.4% in consumption and 10.2% in investment compared to the pre-crisis period (3). Due to the crisis, over 2,000,000 people have lost their livelihoods (4). For infrastructural damages, Cameroon registered a total value of destroyed assets of about US\$64 million (5), destruction in the agribusiness sector of about US\$35 million, and in the energy sector of about US\$27 million (3).

The conflict has negatively affected businesses. Some public and private enterprises like PAMOL and the Cameroon Development Corporation (CDC), with an employment capacity of about 10,000 people, have been partially shut down. It is estimated that 6,434 and 8,000 employees in the formal and informal sectors lost their jobs, respectively. As a result, hunger and food insecurity have drastically increased in households and the affected communities. A finding from the Cameroon Doing Business in 2018 showed that the Cameroon government lost about CFA5.9 billion from taxes due to this conflict.

World Bank estimates have even shown that national GDP of Cameroon could drop by 9% and household welfare by 5% if the conflict lasts until 2025, which can prevent Cameroon from achieving its development plans.

### **5.1.3. Level to which the Anglophone crisis affects culture**

Results of the findings show that the AC has impacted culture in three main ways. That is destruction of cultural heritage sites, loss of respect for traditional authorities and loss of pride regarding peoples own culture.

#### **5.1.3.1. Destruction of cultural heritage sites**

Throughout history, all types of cultural heritage have been affected by conflict. Buildings and monuments have become collateral damage and artwork and artefacts have been looted. During the ongoing AC it has been revealed too that the rival parties may not actually

have plans of targeting cultural heritage but rather that it takes precautions to avoid such sites being damaged. Thus, some of the destruction could be as a result of collateral damage.

The targeting of cultural heritage is not a historic problem, however; it continues to be a feature of many recent conflicts. In some conflicts around the globe, deliberate and systematic acts against cultural heritage have spread to a considerable extent. In her book 'The Protection of Cultural Heritage during Armed Conflict: The Changing Paradigms' (2020), Noelle Higgins, associate professor of law at Maynooth University in Ireland, argued that the deliberate destruction of cultural heritage has become a hallmark of recent conflicts in some parts of Africa, citing conflict Mali as example. In some cases in Africa, cultural sites and objects have also been deliberately targeted and destroyed. In situations where cultural heritage is targeted, various commentators have argued that the targeting of cultural heritage is intended as an attack on the communities for which the heritage is an essential part of their unique cultural identity.

#### **5.1.3.2. Loss of respect for traditional authorities**

During the conflict, tradition authorities like chiefs and fons and top-ranking persons have faced a lot of challenges. Because of insecurity, some have had to leave their areas of jurisdiction for some time. Those that stay behind have equally found it difficult to commune and communicate with their subjects because of movement challenges during some point in time during the crises.

#### **5.1.3.3. Loss of pride regarding peoples own culture**

The organisation of annual cultural festivals as it used to be in the past has become very rare or almost inexistent due the crises. As a result of the AC, and insecurity in some localities, village development meetings organized in towns hardly raise funds to carry out development projects back home. The members believe that the projects they may carry out may become subject to collateral damages in case of any escalations.

Children on their part from homes that had a lot of attachments to their village roots no longer travel home for vacations in order to learn more about their vernacular and ancestral origins.

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to gain insight on the Anglophone Crises and its Socio-economic Effects on the Activities of the 'Population of Cameroon; the Case of Bamenda III Sub Division. The consequences of the AC on education are far reaching and include education wastage, destruction of schools as well as occupation of schools for non-educational motives. In addition to these consequences, there is widespread loss of lives of education stakeholders ranging from parents, teachers, students too as well as school administrators. The AC has had a direct or indirect impact on the reduction in students' enrolment and the rise in out-of-school children, although there are other reasons why kids leave school. There has also been a severe drop in the standard and quality of teaching in some of the affected areas because of the on and off nature of classes when there are escalations between the rival parties.

The AC has had also severe impact on the economic activities in the two concerned regions (North West and South West Regions-NWSW). The employment level has fallen due to the shutting down of some firms belonging to the main employers in the two regions especially some firms of PAMOL and the CDC. B This has negatively affected the contribution of the NWSW to the national GDP.

Unrest cannot be on and off and does not have negative spillover effects on cultural heritage in the areas hit by the AC. Whether deliberately or considered destruction due to collateral damage, the end result is that the cultural heritage in the affected areas has been negatively impacted. Traditional notables have lost a lot of respect and in some cases their authority is undermined. Furthermore, a lot of young people are now growing without firm attachment to their ancestral roots and lack sound cultural identity. Some no longer know the joy of enjoying 'home' in the true sense of tradition and cultural values.

### 5.2. Recommendations

In the light of the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made;

- Measures should be taken by the government to drastically improve the infrastructure in central schools in localities that have students in order to encourage more enrolment of students. This is because such schools at moment have large student population but often lack classrooms to accommodate the displaced learners,
- The construction of houses for teachers in areas that are safer should be done by the state in order to encourage teachers to stay in such localities and teach students.

- Measures should be taken to improve the quality of communication technology especially the internet in the conflict-stricken regions. The reason is that students in such areas will need a lot of online classes so as to boost their participation in physical lessons they receive in schools.
- The organisation of cultural festivals should be rekindled and such initiatives should receive both financial and material support from state and private organizations.
- Based on these consequences, it is important for the government to take appropriate measures to end the conflict if it wishes to achieve emergence in 2035
- To counter the destructive consequences of the AC on education and schooling, parental and local community involvement and their role played in school activities should be summed up in three dimensions. 1) After any area with some level of security and no longer under the grip of the conflicting parties of the AC, parents and members of the local community should help restructure school activities. 2) Parents and teachers should frequently have conversations about the education and academic development of their kids. 3) The parents who attend parent association meetings and participate in school decision-making sessions should make an effort to collaborate with the school administration to solve the myriad social and academic problems caused by the AC.
- The teaching of mother tongue languages in the conflict regions should be encouraged more than ever before in order to boost student's moral to take pride once more in their cultural identity.
- Measures should be taken by the state and private organizations to protect cultural heritage sites in the already affected and non-affected areas.

### **5.3. Limitations**

- Data for this study was sourced through the administration of questionnaires and conducting interviews. Data for the survey was therefore based on memory. This was a limitation. Respondents had to think back before completing the questionnaires and answering interview questions. Whenever one relies on memory for completion of questionnaire or answer questions during an interview, accuracy reduces.
- Finance was a limitation. Limited finance caused the researcher to use only questionnaire method to source data. The researcher couldn't use telephone calls and so on because of limited financial resources.

- Another limitation was the collection of questionnaire when completed. To avoid situations where questionnaires are not returned, the researcher had to wait for respondents to complete questionnaires. This limits sample size and increases the time to be dedicated to the administration of questionnaires.
- The period during which this research was conducted was an impediment. That is during the semesters of the first year of studies, the researcher was involved in attending class work. This limited the time dedicated to research work.

#### **5.4. Areas for further research**

Other researchers should examine

- The impact of the AC on health sector of NSW.
- The psychosocial effects of the AC in the NSW region.

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## Appendix 1: Research Authorization

UNIVERSITE DE YAOUNDE I  
*The University of Yaoundé I*  
\*\*\*\*\*  
FACULTE DES SCIENCES DE  
L'ÉDUCATION  
*Faculty of Education*  
\*\*\*\*\*  
DÉPARTEMENT DE L'ÉDUCATION SPÉCIALISÉE  
*Department of Specialized Education*

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F E

RÉPUBLIQUE DU CAMEROUN  
Republic of Cameroon  
\*\*\*\*\*  
Paix - Travail - Patrie  
*Peace - Work - Fatherland*  
\*\*\*\*\*

LE DOYEN  
*The Dean*

Yaoundé le 14 MAY 2024

### AUTORISATION DE RECHERCHE

Je soussigné, Professeur BELA Cyrille Bienvenu, Doyen de la Faculté des Sciences de l'Éducation (FSE), autorise l'étudiante, NJONG Sheron LEINYUY, Matricule 22V3531, inscrite en Master II dans le Département de l'Éducation Spécialisée, option : *Intervention et Action Communautaire*, avec pour encadrant le Pr BANGA AMVENE Jean Désiré, à réaliser ses travaux de recherche sur le thème intitulé : « *The Anglophone Crises and its Effect on the Socio-Economic Activities of the Population of Cameroon : Case of Bamenda 3 Subdivision* ».

En foi de quoi, la présente autorisation est délivrée pour servir et valoir ce que de droit.

  
*Jacques Evouna*  
Professeur

## Appendix 2: Fieldwork Stamps



### Appendix 3 : Research questionnaire

UNIVERSITE DE YAOUNDE I  
\*\*\*\*\*  
FACULTE DES SCIENCES DE L'EDUCATION  
\*\*\*\*\*  
CENTRE DE RECHERCHE ET DE FORMATION  
DOCTORALE EN SCIENCES DE L'EDUCATION  
ET INGENIERIE EDUCATIVE



THE UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I  
\*\*\*\*\*  
FACULTY OF SCIENCES OF  
EDUCATION  
\*\*\*\*\*  
DOCTORAL RESEARCH AND TRAINING  
SCHOOL IN EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL  
ENGINEERING

Dear Respondent,

I am a master's student from the faculty of Science of Education of the University of Yaounde 1, I am conducting a research to find out the effects of the Anglophone crisis on the socio-economic activities in Cameroon: case of Bamenda 3 sub division. The answer you provide will be strictly for this master's research and any information you disclose will be highly confidential. I therefore plead that all answers be honest, concise and objective so as to serve the purpose for which it was designed. Thanks in advance for your collaboration.

#### A. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATIN

**Instructions: kindly place a tick on the box that best describes your opinion.**

1. Gender: Male  Female
2. Highest Certificate: Ordinary  Advanced  Degree  Masters  PHD
3. Age: below 15  16-20  21-25  Above

#### Section B

**Information:** tick in one of the boxes labeled (SD, D, A, SA) that best suits your opinion

**KEY:** SD= strongly disagree, D=disagree, A=agree, SA=strongly agree

AC= Anglophone crisis

SN	I) EDUCATION	SD	D	A	SA
1	The AC has caused a drop-in attendance in my school				
2	<b>As a result of the AC</b> many children in my area are school dropouts				
3	The AC has caused an increase in juvenile delinquency				
4	Most kids in my neighborhood find it difficult to read and write as a result of the AC				
5	The total number of schools has dropped as a result of the AC				

SN	II) ECONOMIC PRODUCTIVITY	SD	D	A	SA
1	The AC has caused a drop in the production of raw materials				
2	The AC has caused the inflation of prices of goods in the market				
3	The AC has increased the level of hunger				

4	The rate of poverty has increased in my area as a result of the AC				
5	The AC has caused limited employment in my area.				

SN	III) CULTURE	SD	D	A	SA
1	The AC has displaced me from my place of origin				
2	The AC has cause a lot of fear an trauma				
3	I am scared to move about freely in the community				
4	I can't speak my dialect due to the AC				
5	The AC has reduce value of our traditional sovereignty				

## Appendix 4: Interview guide

UNIVERSITE DE YAOUNDE I  
\*\*\*\*\*  
FACULTE DES SCIENCES DE L'EDUCATION  
\*\*\*\*\*  
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DOCTORALE EN SCIENCES DE L'EDUCATION  
ET INGENIRIE EDUCATIVE



THE UNIVERSITY OF YAOUNDE I  
\*\*\*\*\*  
FACULTY OF SCIENCES OF  
EDUCATION  
\*\*\*\*\*  
DOCTORAL RESEARCH AND TRAINING  
SCHOOL IN EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL  
ENGINEERING

### STRUCTURED/FOCUSED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

**Structured interview questions developed in line with the objectives of the study objectives, research questions, for respondents.**

*Dear Sir/Madam,*

This interview is designed to enable us obtain data on the Research titled: The Anglophone Crises and its Socio-economic Effects on the Activities of the "Population of Cameroon; the Case of Bamenda III Sub Division. Please kindly answer all the questions to enable us understand the level of employability of persons living with disabilities through government employment agencies.

#### **Demographic information**

1. Gender.....
2. Age: 25-34 [ ]    34-43 [ ]    43-52 [ ]
3. Level of Education.....
4. Years of experience.....

#### **INTERVIEW ITEMS**

1. Do you think the AC has impacted education in the North West and South West regions of Cameroon?

If yes, can you give details on how you think the AC has impacted education?

2. To what extent has the AC affected the economic productivity of the NWSW Regions?

Can you support your explanation with statistical figures?

3. Has the AC affected cultural heritage significantly?

If yes, what are some the ways you think the crises has impacted culture?