Forced Displacement and its Impact on Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in North-Eastern Nigeria

Gbigbiddje, David Lawson
School of General Studies/Foundation
Delta State School of Marine Technology, Burutu, Delta State, Nigeria
Email: lawson4good@gmail.com

Fredrick, Oghenebrorhien Temisere
School of General Studies/Foundation
Delta State School of Marine Technology, Burutu, Delta State, Nigeria
Email: fitemisere@gmail.com

Onwordi, Temishi Mary, (Ph.D)
School of General Studies/Foundation
Delta State School of Marine Technology, Burutu, Delta State, Nigeria
Email: marytemish1@gmail.com

Abstract
This article explores impact of forced displacement on internally displaced persons (IDPs) in north-eastern Nigeria. Forced displacement involves the involuntary movement of people from their habitual place of residence to a location within their country of nationality. The situation exposed the displaced people to some level or degree of vulnerability. Since 2009, the Boko-Haram (BH) insurgency and the counter-insurgency by the government forces have turned north-eastern Nigeria into a conflict zone. The violence has forced more than 2 million people to flee for safety within Nigeria as IDPs. The paper employs qualitative research methodology. Data are gathered from mainly secondary and tertiary sources. From the findings, the IDPs in north-eastern Nigeria are facing critical problems due to lack of a clear national policy, institutional, and legal frameworks to arrest forced displacement. Thus, it is recommended that, the legally backed national policy on IDPs and initiatives be strengthened. Lastly, the rule of engagement between the Government and the international humanitarian agencies be succinctly defined.

Keywords: North-Eastern Nigeria, Boko-Haram, Insurgency, Forced Displacement, Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs).

Introduction
The escalation of violence and insurgency between all parties in North-Eastern Nigeria since 2009 resulted in mass displacement and deprivation of individuals. To better understand the scope of displacement and assess the needs of affected populations, the International
Organisation for Migration - IOM(2020) began its implementation of the Displacement Tracking Matrix programme in September 2014, in collaboration with the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) and relevant State Emergency Management Agencies (SEMAs)(para.1). As a result of the non-international armed conflict between the Nigerian Government and the armed opposition (Jama’atu Ahlus-Sunnatilil-Da’wawal-Jihad / Islamic State West Africa Province group-ISWAP), more than1.76 million people were internally displaced in North-Eastern of Nigeria, making Nigeria host to the six largest IDP population in the world (ICRC, 2017, para.1).

The nature of internally displaced persons is on the increase as a result of the Boko Haram (BH) Insurgency (IOM, 2020). The estimated number of IDPs in conflict affected north-eastern states of Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Taraba and Yobe was 2,039,092 individuals or 420,994 households. The number represents an increase of 3,860 individuals compared with 2,035,232 IDPs that were recorded in Round 29 published in November 2019 (IOM, 2020, para.2). The number of IDPs seem to be plateauing. Round 28 had also shown an increase of 2 per cent or 44,632 individuals compared with 1,980,036 IDPs that were recorded in Round 27 published in May 2019 (DTM, 2019, p. 6). The Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) assessments found the following as movement triggers for internal displacement in the affected areas, ninety three percent (up from 92%) attributed to ongoing insurgency, 6% (down by 1%) due to communal clashes and 1% due to natural disasters and over1,835,429 of the IDPs are concentrated in Borno, Adamawa and Yobe States (IOM / DTM, 2019, p.17).

The humanitarian crisis in north-east Nigeria remains severe due to ongoing conflict, continued internal displacement and the unpredictable return of refugees from neighbouring countries. New population movements continued to be recorded in November OCHA (2017), with 1,862 new arrivals in Gwoza, followed by 729 in Askira/Uba, 428 in Mafa, 373 in Ngala and 358 in Madagali; Jere and Chibok recorded relatively high numbers of departures (para.1). The protracted nature of the crisis with lack of durable solutions is eroding coping mechanisms and further compounding underlying causes of the conflict such as multi-dimensional poverty, entrenched socio-economic grievances, political marginalisation, unemployment, lack of essential services, and the near absence of functional governance especially at the local levels (OCHA, 2020, p.15). IDPs continue to live in already congested camps and population centres, with 500,000 people in need of urgent shelter solution. Lack of land for constructing shelters and expanding IDP camps remains a major constraint, affecting the wellbeing of the affected population. As a consequence, this is expected to further prolong the humanitarian crisis in the affected states over the next few years. (OCHA, 2020, p.15)

While food security has improved throughout the north-east in 2017 as a result of a massive scale-up of humanitarian food and livelihoods assistance, the situation remains extremely fragile with many households, particularly in Borno State, mainly dependent on humanitarian assistance to meet their basic food and livelihood needs. Many remain forced to resort to negative coping strategies to access food. The most recent Cadre Harmonisé analysis (finalized in November) projects that, without adequate and timely humanitarian assistance, 3.7 million individuals will be facing critical levels of food insecurity during the 2018 lean season (June through September). The figure does not include four Borno State local government areas (LGAs) where data could not be collected due to access constraints (in Abadam, Guzamala and Marte) or lack of partner capacity (in Kala/Balge) (OCHA, 2017, para.2). In addition to food insecurity, issues of protection continue to cause extremely serious concern throughout the north-east, including person-borne explosive device attacks in or near IDP camps, and sexual
exploitation and abuse (SEA) of internally displaced persons (IDPs) by those supposed to protect them, as was reported in Bama [Borno State] OCHA (2017), on 1 November, four pupils in a primary school in Kwaya Kusar, Borno State, were gruesomely attacked. Two of them died and the other two were severely wounded. This direct attack against an educational institution, the first one in two years, may impact school attendance as parents may fear for their children’s lives. In addition, following the resurgence of attacks by non-state armed groups in some parts of Adamawa State, 12 primary schools were closed, affecting education continuity for the children enrolled in those schools (para.3). The developments in 2019 have led to an upsurge in the number of people in need of humanitarian assistance. Between 2017 and 2019, the number of people in need of urgent assistance reduced from 8.5 million to 7.1 million. Increased attacks by non-state armed groups against civilians, compounded by the effects of climate change, natural hazards and disease outbreaks, are exacerbating the needs of a population already afflicted by more than ten years of protracted crisis. Millions of people have been plunged into further vulnerability and 7.9 million are now in need of life-saving aid in 2020 – 800,000 more people than in 2019 (RELIEFWEB, 2020, para.1)

In 2019, more than 180,000 people were forced to flee their homes, some for a second or third time since the beginning of the crisis, mainly due to increased attacks. Access to land and livelihoods has become more difficult for most people affected by the crisis. Violations and abuse of international humanitarian and human rights law remain pervasive (RELIEFWEB, 2020, para.2). This worrisome situation has prompted a more resolute response from the humanitarian community and, remarkably, from key Nigerian partners. 2019 was also marked by encouraging new developments and increased engagement by the Nigerian Government. The North-East Development Commission became fully operational in May 2019, and the UN and its humanitarian partners welcomed the establishment of the Federal Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs, Disaster Management and Social Development in August 2019 (RELIEFWEB, 2020, para.5).

However, Humanitarian assistance is not a long-term solution to the protracted crisis in north-east Nigeria. Focus should be directed at the four critical elements: prevention, stabilization, transformation and sustainability. We have to seize all opportunities to save and protect lives as a matter of urgency, prevent further violence, and foster recovery, peace-building, reconstruction and development efforts wherever and whenever possible. Together we can restore hope to the most vulnerable and a chance at a brighter future for the millions of people affected.

The paper is organized as follows, section I contains the introduction of forced displacement and its impact on internally displaced persons (IDPS) in north-east Nigeria, section II discusses the historical overview of north-eastern Nigeria, section III contains a brief history & root causes of the insurgency in north-eastern Nigeria, section IV sheds light on government efforts / responses to the crisis: humanitarian & intervention planning, section V explains concepts and definitions, section VI shows the impact of forced displacement on IDPS and their host communities, section VII contains the recommendation of the phenomenon and section VIII concludes the research work with future directions.

**Historical Overview of North-Eastern Nigeria**

Nigeria is Africa’s most populous nation and the biggest oil producer with one of the largest economies in the continent. The North-East region trails behind other regions in terms of education, wealth and health indices due to a complex list of historical, cultural and other socio-
economic factors. The North-East region of Nigeria consist of six States; Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Taraba and Yobe. The region has an estimated population of 23.6 Million (14 % of Nigeria’s population) (2012) and a land area of about 280,419 square kilometres (33% of Nigeria’s landmass) (NBS, 2013). The region is luxuriantly endowed with abundant human and natural resources and is a major producer of livestock, food and cash crops, such as sorghum, millet, cotton, groundnuts and rice. It also has a culturally diverse population and significant deposits of many solid minerals. The majority of the people of the North-East Region are peasant farmers, with a large number engaged in livestock rearing and fishing (PCNI, 2016, p.15). The region’s population is predominantly Muslim. Members of the Hausa-Fulani and Kanuri ethnic groups (who make up approximately 29% and 4% of the national population respectively) are dominant in the area (NBS, 2012).

In the past, the North-East region was a renowned bastion of commerce and trade with prominent local enterprises and well established trade routes across the Sub Saharan and Sahelian economies. It was known for its undeniable agricultural potential, with 80% of the population engaged in farming and contributing significantly to the regional and national GDP. In addition, the region was host to communities of religious scholars and largely regarded as the historic centre for Islamic learning on the continent (PCNI, 2016, p.16).

A Brief History & Root Causes of the Insurgency in North-Eastern Nigeria

According to the Presidential Committee on the North East Initiative [PCNI] (2016), the North-East region of Nigeria in most recent times has borne the brunt of human casualty, loss of properties and diminished livelihoods emanating from the Boko-Haram terrorist (BHT) insurgency (p.19). The States of Borno, Adamawa and Yobe (BAY) have been particularly hard-hit, triggering a State of Emergency that has involved more intense Military presence in those States. While the use of force is a necessary condition to address the terrorist crisis, it is not a sufficient tool to address most of the underlying issues arising from the crisis (PCNI, 2016, p.19).

The group known as Jama’atu AhlisSunnaLidda’awatiwal-Jihad’s commonly known as Boko Haram (which means "Western education is sin") first emerged in 2003, when a collection of some radical Islamic militants led by a young preacher Mohammed Yusuf retreated to a remote part of the region. Mohammed had a strict interpretation of the so called Western and un-Islamic way of life of Muslims. The group’s ideology and operations flourished and became protracted across the region between the years 2008 - 2010. In July 2009, following deadly clashes between Yusuf’s followers and the police, Yusuf was killed extra-judicially while in police custody. Violence between the group and State security forces then dramatically escalated, and nearly 1,000 of Yusuf’s followers were killed in confrontations. These marked the beginning of a spiraling campaign of violence by the group (Katsina, 2011, p.29).

Between January 2014 and April 2015 the group abducted an estimated number of well over 2,000 Muslim and Christian women, girls and boys. Many girls have been forcibly ‘married’ to Boko-Haram fighters, others are being systematically raped and forced to carry out domestic duties. Large numbers have been taken to Boko-Haram outposts and remote communities under the Boko-Haram control (Amnesty International, 2016). The Boko-Haram message of “a just and egalitarian Islamic State” appealed to the majority of people in the zone because of the high rate of poverty, unemployment, ignorance, illiteracy, destitution, and despair. This also makes the region susceptible to religious radicalism and mass recruitment/radicalization of indigenes. This call to arms in the name of “religious justice” has
enabled Boko-Haram to execute a full-scale war of terror in the region; with ready and willing soldiers from among indigenes because the group’s ideology gives them a pervasive purpose to life. Although the Northern populace mostly abhors the violence, there is considerable local sympathy and support for Sharia Law, seen by many as the only way to end what was regarded as a corrupt and inept Government. Clashes between the group and the Nigerian Military culminated in a widely circulated online video of the killing of the sect leader in 2009. Since then, violent attacks on civilians by Boko-Haram have left widespread devastation in the North-East. Today, the unrelenting violence of the insurgency has resulted in a crisis affecting more than 14.8 Million people especially in Adamawa, Borno, Gombe and Yobe States. More than 2.2 Million people have fled their homes and 7.1 million people in need of humanitarian assistance, 6.2 million people targeted, 5.4 million people reached (OCHA, 2019, p.1).

The Boko-Haram attacks seemed to have reached a climax in mid-April 2014, when about 279 school girls in Chibok town of Borno State were kidnapped, leading to spontaneous outrage against the insurgency, by local and international stakeholders. Stakeholders initiated multi-dimensional responses that include militarized suppression of the insurgency by the State with the formation of the Special Task Force (Operation Zaman Lafiya) and the Multinational Joint Task Force of the Lake Chad Basin Commission (PCNI, 2016, p. 20)

Majority of the areas captured by the insurgents have been recaptured by the Military as successes towards ending the conflict. Nevertheless, those communities in Adamawa, Borno, Gombe and Yobe that escaped major violent disruptions now host most of the Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), thereby overstretching food and water supply as well as the provision of many essential and basic services. Maiduguri, Borno’s capital, alone has received almost half of all the IDPs in the North-East. The National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) and the affected States Emergency Management Agencies (SEMAs) have also been significantly pressed in the distribution of emergency relief materials to Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in and out of camps.

Government Responses to the Crisis

National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) has been at the forefront of the provision of humanitarian assistance. NEMA has been responsible for the management of the different IDP camps, the provision of humanitarian aid through the supply of food and non-food materials, registration and monitoring of IDPs and rapid response to emergencies through ambulance and other emergency medical services. NEMA, and its State counterparts, SEMAs have also worked in the coordination of other humanitarian agencies in the provision of assistance to IDPs both in the formally recognized camps and within the host communities, where the majority of the IDPs reside.

In addition to the role played by the Federal Government through NEMA, the State Governments, particularly in the cases of Borno, Adamawa and Yobe State have played critical roles in the care of IDPs, with the provision of accommodation, food, non-food materials, medical supplies and also in leading the advocacy for support in dealing with the insurgency and its effects both nationally and internationally. In response to this advocacy, various NGOs have contributed in collaboration with Global Development Partners and the State Governments to provide this much needed emergency relief to the victims of the insurgency. Others are the UN partners through the Humanitarian Country Team (HCT); the Presidential Initiative for the North East (PINE); the North East Economic Summit Group (NEESG); the Victims Support Fund
(VSF); the Safe Schools Initiative (SSI), the Presidential Committee on the North East Initiative (PCNI); and the Buhari Plan.

Concepts and Definitions

a. **Forced Displacement:** Refers to the involuntary movements of people due to conflicts, natural hazards or environmental disasters, chemical or nuclear disasters, famine, or development projects.

b. **Refugee:** The archetypical example of forced migration is that of the refugee, who, according to the UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (1951), must be outside his or her country of nationality and unable or unwilling to return due to a well-founded fear of persecution for any one of five reasons: race, religion, nationality, membership of a social group, or political opinion. It is this definition that has been endorsed by 135 UN member states and that guides the work of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees [UNHCR] (Robinson, 2003, p.5).

c. **Internal Displacement:** According to the African Union Convention for Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention, 2009), “Internal displacement” means “the involuntary or forced movement, evacuation or relocation of persons or groups of persons within internationally recognized state borders” [Article 1 (l)].

d. **Internally Displaced Persons:** According to the African Union Convention for Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention, 2009), the term “Internally Displaced Persons” is defined as “persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border” [Article 1 (k)].

e. **Conflict-Induced Displacement:** This refers to displacement resulting from people being forced to flee their homes for one or more reasons including armed conflict such as civil war, communal conflicts, generalized violence, etc and where the state authorities are unable or unwilling to protect them.

f. **Disaster-Induced Displacement:** This category includes displacement of people caused by natural hazards, disasters (floods, volcanoes, landslides, earthquakes), environmental change (deforestation, desertification, land degradation, global warming) and human-made induced disasters (industrial accidents, radioactivity).

The United Nations has defined a disaster as “a serious disruption of the functioning of a society, causing widespread human, material, or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected society to cope using its own resources (Robinson, 2003, p. 9). By this definition, not every fire, earthquake, drought, epidemic, or industrial accident constitutes a disaster, only those where the losses exceed a society’s ability to cope and external aid is required. Most classifications of disaster identify two main types: natural and human-made. Natural disasters may be broken down into three sub-categories-sudden impact, slow-onset, and epidemic diseases, while human-made disasters include two sub-categories-industrial/technological disasters and complex emergencies (Theodore & Moles, as cited in Robinson, 2003, p. 9).
1. **Sudden impact** disasters include floods, earthquakes, tidal waves, tropical storms, volcanic eruptions, and landslides. Floods are the type of natural disaster most frequently associated with sudden migration of large populations and food shortages. Earthquakes cause the greatest number of deaths and overwhelming infrastructural damage.

2. **Slow-onset** disasters include droughts, famine, environmental degradation, deforestation, pest infestation, and desertification (conversion of arable lands to deserts). These disasters are usually the result of adverse weather conditions combined with poor land use.

3. **Epidemic diseases** such as cholera, measles, dysentery, respiratory infections, malaria, and, increasingly, HIV, etc. generally do not trigger large-scale displacement even during a severe outbreak although they often threaten displaced populations, especially those clustered in overcrowded and unsanitary conditions following a major disaster.

4. **Industrial/technological** disasters result from a society’s industrial and technological activities that lead to pollution, spillage of hazardous materials, explosions, and fires. They may occur from poor planning and construction of facilities or from neglect of safety procedures. Sudden-onset disasters such as earthquakes and floods as well as human factors such as armed conflict or a terrorist attack may trigger secondary disasters such as fires, industrial explosions, and pollution/contamination.

5. **Complex emergencies** are usually human-made with multiple contributing factors (these may include war, internal conflict, and natural disaster) and are marked by large-scale displacement, food insecurity, human rights violations, and elevated mortality.

g. **Development-Induced Displacement:** This refers to a situation where people are compelled to move as a result of policies and projects implemented to supposedly enhance ‘development’. Examples of this include large-scale infrastructure projects such as dams, roads, ports, airports, refineries and oil and gas installations. Forced population displacement is always crisis-prone, even when necessary as part of broad and beneficial development programmes. It is a profound socio-economic and cultural disruption for those affected. Dislocation breaks up living patterns and social continuity. It dismantles existing modes of production, disrupts social networks, causes the impoverishment of many of those uprooted, threatens their cultural identity, and increases the risks of epidemics and health problem (Robinson, 2003, p. 10).

h. **Forced Eviction:** According to the UN Basic Guidelines on Development-based Evictions and Displacement, this refers to acts and/or omissions involving the coerced or involuntary displacement of individuals, groups and communities from homes and/or lands and common property resources that were occupied or depended upon, thus eliminating or limiting the ability of an individual, group or community to reside or work in a particular dwelling, residence or location, without the provision of, and access to, appropriate forms of legal or other protection. The notion of forced evictions does not apply to evictions carried out both in accordance with the law and in conformity with the provisions of international human rights treaties (FRN, 2012, p. 15).
i. **Arbitrary Displacement:** According to the UN Guiding Principles (Principle 6) and the Kampala Convention (Article 4) recognize and construe arbitrary displacement to mean:

1) Displacement based on policies of racial discrimination or other similar practices aimed at/or resulting in altering the ethnic, religious or racial composition of the population; 

2) Individual or mass displacement of civilians in situations of armed conflict, unless the security of the civilians involved or imperative military reasons so demand, in accordance with international humanitarian law; 

3) Displacement intentionally used as a method of warfare or due to other violations of international humanitarian law in situations of armed conflict; 

4) Displacement caused by generalized violence or violations of human rights; 

5) Displacement as a result of harmful practices; 

6) Forced evacuations in cases of natural or human made disasters or other causes if the evacuations are not required by the safety and health of those affected; 

7) Displacement used as a collective punishment; 

8) Displacement caused by any act, event, factor, or phenomenon of comparable gravity to all of the above and which is not justified under international law, including human rights and international humanitarian law. 

j. **Armed Groups:** This refers to dissident armed forces or other organized armed groups that are distinct from the armed forces of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. 

k. **Camps:** These are erected sites with non-permanent shelters (e.g. tents) used for the collective and communal accommodation of evacuated or displaced persons. Camps can be planned (i.e. purposely-built sites, completed before or during the influx) or self-settled (i.e. set up spontaneously by internally displaced persons or host communities without the support of the government or the humanitarian community). 

l. **Disaster Management:** Disaster Management is the coordination and integration of all activities necessary to build, sustain and improve the capability to prepare for, protect against, respond to and recover from threatening or actual natural or human-induced disasters. Disaster Management can also be defined as the coordination and integration of all activities necessary to build, sustain and improve the capability for disaster prevention, mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery. 

m. **Disaster:** In this paper, a disaster refers to an unanticipated occurrence resulting in serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society causing widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected individuals, community or society to cope using their or its own resources.
n. **Vulnerability**: Vulnerability refers to “the characteristics of a person or group and their situation that influence their capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from the impact of a hazard.” It involves a combination of factors that determine the degree to which someone’s life, livelihood, property and other assets are susceptible to risk caused by a discrete and identifiable event (or series or cascade of such events) in nature and society.

o. **Host Community**: This refers to a community that, though not displaced itself, experiences the impact or consequences of displacement, either because it has to host a considerable number of internally displaced persons either in camps, collective centres, informal settlements or directly integrated into households. It also refers to a community that has to receive and integrate formerly displaced persons who decide to return to their homes and places of habitual residence or who have decided to settle permanently elsewhere in the country.

p. **Humanitarian worker**: This includes any worker engaged by a humanitarian agency, whether internationally or nationally recruited, or formally or informally retained from the beneficiary community, to conduct the activities of that agency.

q. **Reintegration**: To provide services to assist the displaced into meaningful employment or other forms of economic empowerment within the society and to stimulate the development of effective service delivery.

r. **Resettlement**: Enabling internally displaced persons to voluntarily return to their communities, rebuild their homes and re-unite with their families or enabling them to integrate into another community or a place within the territory of Nigeria other than their place of original displacement for the purpose of durable solution.

s. **Returnee**: This refers to persons or group of persons returning to their communities after displacement by armed conflict, natural or human-induced disasters, situations of generalized violence, forced evictions or human rights violations.

t. **Sphere Minimum Standards**: This refers to internationally acceptable minimum standards for monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness and impact of humanitarian assistance (The sphere Project, 2011).

u. **Durable Solutions**: A durable solution is achieved when internally displaced persons no longer have any specific assistance and protection needs that are linked to their displacement and can enjoy their human rights without discrimination on account of their displacement. It can be achieved through:
   • Sustainable reintegration at the place of origin (hereinafter referred to as “return”);
   • Sustainable local integration in areas where internally displaced persons take refuge (local integration);
   • Sustainable integration in another part of the country (settlement elsewhere in the country) encouraged or compelled to return or relocate to areas where their life, safety, liberty or health would not be at risk.
• IDPs seeking a durable solution must not be subject to discrimination for reasons related to their displacement.
• Likewise, populations and communities that (re-)integrate IDPs and whose needs may be comparable, must not be neglected in comparison to the displaced.
• IDPs who have achieved a durable solution continue to be protected by international human rights, and where applicable, humanitarian law (Brookings Institution, 2010, p.3-4).

Impact of Forced Displacement on IDPs and their Host Communities

(a) Impact of Forced Displacement on IDPs in North-East Nigeria

During violent armed conflict which forces IDPs to leave, most houses and properties are destroyed, looted or burnt down. Most IDPs in Nigeria flee to neighbouring communities that are safe, usually taking refuge in temporary shelters such as schools, police stations, military barracks, public buildings and places of worship among others; having been deprived of their homes and sometimes their lands and livelihoods. This results in their lacking access to necessities of life such as food, water and shelter (FRN, 2012, p. 11). While some efforts are made by humanitarian and faith-based organisations and government agencies to address some of the basic needs of IDPs, their vulnerability tend to be increased by barriers to accessing healthcare services, education, employment, economic activities and information for participation in decision making affecting their lives. With some IDPs camped in school buildings, education is usually disrupted for both local host communities and displaced children.

Furthermore, IDPs in north-east Nigeria are facing insecurity and all forms of exploitation and abuse. Findings from individual camps revealed significant rates of sexual and labour exploitation akin to sex trafficking, in NYSC camp (62%), Teachers Village camp (50%), Doro camp (41%), Gubio camp (39%), Mogcolis camp (37%), Dalori 1 camp (61%), Dalori 2 camp (56%), Bakasi camp (77%), Farm Centre camp (61%), Muna (2%), GoniKachallari (2%), Custom House (2%), Madinatu (59%), and El Miskin camp (58%) - (UNHCR, n.d, p.5). From all the 14 camps significant challenges were observed – including difficulty in getting firewood, irregular food and water supply, and poor shelters as major factors fuelling sexual exploitation in the camps. Female IDPs, mostly single women under 20 years of age, are often sexually exploited when on their way to collect firewood or water; when begging for money on the streets; and when spending nights on the streets as a result of poor shelters in camp (UNHCR, n.d, p.6).

IDPs are also largely separated from their families especially, unaccompanied children and teenagers, the elderly and sick persons with disabilities and pregnant women, whose special needs and privacy are not attended to, due to fragmented and uncoordinated humanitarian response to the needs of IDPs. IDPs in Nigeria also face lack of access to justice, whether in relation to cases of human rights violations such as discrimination against ethnic and religious minorities, lack of tight security, and deprivation of means of livelihood (FRN, 2012, p. 12).

Even when the situation of most IDPs improves, potentially durable solutions have remained out of the reach of specific groups with particular needs or vulnerabilities. These include the elderly or sick people, widows barred from recovering the property they had lived in, or members of minorities facing discrimination, marginalization and
exclusion or whose livelihoods depend on a particular attachment to their areas of origin or settlement. For such groups, strategies or incentives that had encouraged others to move towards a durable solution may not have been effective or accessible, and the tailored support they needed to rebuild their lives was not available (FRN, 2012, p. 12).

(b) **Impact of Forced Displacement on Host Communities of Internally Displaced Persons**

When internally displaced persons are accommodated by host communities, these communities also experience immense pressure. There is overcrowding of internally displaced persons who create informal settlements on communal and private land. There is also overstretching of social basic amenities as water and social services such as schools, clinics, and other social infrastructure including housing. Trees are cut down for firewood, building material and charcoal burning, causing environmental degradation in the long run. More often than not, where the host community is urban, a number of internally displaced persons turn into migrants, deciding to settle and re-integrate into urban life, seeking new livelihood opportunities and a hope for a better life (FRN, 2012, p. 12).

Sometimes, as internally displaced persons over-burden existing community services, resources and job or economic livelihood opportunities, tension arises between the two populations, making effective local integration difficult. Cost of living in host communities increases, especially cost of food, housing, healthcare and education.

**Conclusion**

From the foregoing analysis, the non-international armed conflict between the Nigerian Government and the armed opposition (Jama’atu Ahlus-Sunnatilil-Da’wawal-Jihad / Islamic State West Africa Province group have uprooted almost 2 and half million people from their homes. As a result, Nigeria has the highest number of IDPs in sub-Saharan Africa. The IDPs mainly suffer from three significant angles. One, they lack the most basic life-saving assistance, two, they are not adequately protected from abuses and deprivation, especially the Child, and Gender-Based Violence as succinctly discussed above. Three, is the absence of a definite prospect to achieve durable solutions for the IDPs. These challenges of the IDPs in north-east Nigeria are more related to the lack of specific policy, institutional and legal frameworks in addressing the problem. The Government mainly concentrated on ad-hoc efforts in responding to the scourge. This momentary approach has made planning, coordination, evaluation and accountability difficult.

**Recommendations**

The Government of Nigeria and humanitarian partners have channeled a considerable amount of resources both human and material in ameliorating internal displacement in northeast Nigeria. However, no commensurate result has come out of the effort. Therefore, in this paper, it is recommended that:

* There should be the strengthening of the national policy on internally displaced persons (IDPs) to address long-term issues associated with the displacement such as return, resettlement and the integration of IDPs.
The legislation should include punitive measures for corrupt camp and military officials that syphon relief materials and other resources for personal gain at the expense of the victims or take advantage of their vulnerability to abuse them. Mostly, female and children fall victims in this case.

The framework should include definite and clear rules of engagement by the Government to the international humanitarian organization.

There should be institutional centralization of the national humanitarian agencies to avoid the clash of the interest and duplication of work by various humanitarian agencies of the Government.

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