

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background to the Study

Internally displaced persons are usually pushed out of their homes due to insecurity and forced to seek shelter in more secure and peaceful locations. However, in their flight away from insecurity, internally displaced persons are also likely to fall victims of further insecurity and often become sources of insecurity to the larger society themselves. Security is the state of having taken precautions to safeguard one's life, one's privacy, and one's possessions against the influence of other individuals or nations. Peace is when people in a society do not have to worry about being physically or financially harmed while going about their daily routines. In the words of an author, peace requires protection from both long-term dangers and disruptive changes¹.

A sense of security, on the other hand, can be defined as the confidence that comes from knowing you are wanted, loved, accepted, and protected by your community and those around you. With these terms defined, we can have a more fruitful conversation about Nigeria's security situation. When one feels safe, it's because they are surrounded by people and resources that are actively working to keep them safe. However, insecurity is the polar opposite of safety. Absence of or inadequate freedom from danger is what insecurity is all about, according to scholars who described it as "the condition of worry and anxiety originating from a physical or alleged lack of protection"². As a result of human actions, such as armed conflicts, people are always exposed to natural and man-made calamities, leading to a constant condition of insecurity. Insecurity can further be seen as the condition of being vulnerable to harm, anxiety caused by a lack of confidence and a

feeling of vulnerability. All of these are often felt by IDPs due to the condition they meet in the camp or which they are subjected to due to the activities of others. IDPs are different from refugees in the sense that, while refugees seek safety in other countries, IDPs are still within their own countries but not in their natural or preferred home¹. People who have been displaced within their own country are considered IDPs. In contrast to refugees, they are fleeing their homes but they still remain within the borders of their own country.

Internally displaced persons (IDPs) do not leave their home country and are nonetheless protected by the government, regardless of whether or not the government was responsible for their displacement. These individuals are among the most vulnerable on the planet because they frequently relocate to remote locations, making it more challenging for the provision of humanitarian aid². It is estimated that there were 38.2 million internally displaced people in the world as at the end of 2014, the largest number since 1989, the first year in which global statistics on IDPs are available³. As at May 2022, the countries with the biggest numbers of internally displaced persons were Ukraine (8 million), Iraq (6.5 million). Other countries with the largest populations are Syria (7.6 million), Ethiopia (5.5 million), the Democratic Republic of the Congo (5.2 million), and Colombia (4.9 million)^{4,5}. According to recent data by the Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM), a system developed to track and monitor displacement and population mobility across the world, 2,171,600 Nigerians currently reside in various IDP camps across Northern Nigeria. In context, this is about the same population as Lesotho, a country, and more than the population of North Macedonia, Latvia and many

other countries⁵. These people are displaced by various natural and man-made catastrophes.

Millions of individuals have been compelled to flee to areas they are unfamiliar with in search of protection, causing them to lose possessions and exposing them to severe hardship. The rights and wellbeing of these displaced people are tested among these difficulties. Africa is home to more than half of the world's displaced people⁶. Over 6 million people have been uprooted from their homes in Sudan, while an estimated 1.5 million have fled their homes in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). However, only 30,000 Ugandans were forced to flee their country, while 703,000 Sudanese and 469,000 Congolese were forced too from theirs; the remaining displaced people in these countries are classified as IDPs⁶. It has become clear that there are specific causes for the increasing number of IDPs relative to refugees.

A recent development, the shift from warfare between states to wars within states is the most crucial aspect. Along with strong migration rules and antagonism from neighbouring countries, natural barriers like mountains and rivers can make it difficult for migrants to cross national borders in search of new homes. In addition, refugees frequently opt to remain in their home countries, clinging to the slim hope that one day they will return to a normal life. Internally displaced persons are people who are forced to leave their homes, towns or states to settle temporarily in other locations due to various crises and disasters such as inter-tribal war, religious and political conflicts, land and border disputes and related crises⁷. People are also displaced by natural and man-made disasters, such as flooding, drought, fire outbreak, environmental pollution due to oil spill and other industrial activities. For instance, it was reported that in the 2012 flood disaster

which has been dubbed to be the worst natural disaster in recent times, an estimated 2.3 million Nigerians were internally displaced, while another 363 lost their lives^{8,9}. The natural disasters were however, more lenient in creating IDPs than armed conflicts across the country⁹.

Nigeria as a country has always struggled with various crises that have created IDPs in the course of her history. These crises cut across all regions of the country; religious bloodshed in the north, militancy in the Niger Delta, or political crisis in the South West. Security issues have been felt across the board in Nigeria, in almost all of the country's states and geopolitical zones. One thing or other has always forced Nigerians out of their homes. About 470,565 and 143,164 people were relocated in Nigeria between January 2013 and February 2014 due to internal conflicts and natural disasters, respectively⁶. Reports also have it that internal displacement affects 24 of Nigeria's 36 states⁷. All of these are due to various crises.

The oil explorations in the Niger-Delta region have led to environmental deterioration and pollution, and the loss of people's sources of livelihood in the region, according to reports, which has resulted in a large number of people being displaced⁶. In the southwest of Nigeria, more than a million people had to leave their homes as a result of the destruction of their neighbourhoods in Ijora, Oshodi, Makoko, and many others under Governor Fashola's administration in Lagos state¹⁰. Though there are several factors at play, the majority of people who are forced to leave their homes do so because of war or other large-scale violence. However, since 2009, the Boko Haram insurgency in the Northern portion of the country has produced constant and repeated violence, resulting in

a significant growth in the number of displaced people in the region. As at April 2015, more than a million people had been displaced within their own country¹¹.

Each of these crises vary in order of magnitude and the amount of displacement they caused. It has been stated that flooding is the second highest cause of internal displacement after conflict in Nigeria¹². In Northern Nigeria, the post-election violence of 2011 saw about 65,000 persons internally displaced in the Northern part of the country. According to a recent study, communal clashes accounted for 13.33% of the IDPs in the area, natural disasters for 0.99%, and the Boko Haram insurgency for 85.68%¹¹. The preceding data shows that insecurity has been a major factor in the massive internal displacement of people, notably in Borno, Adamawa, and Yobe states, which have been the epicentre of insurgent activities in North-eastern Nigeria since 2009¹³. Bombings, kidnappings, and widespread property and life loss are all hallmarks of the catastrophe, which has been connected to ineffective leadership and religious extremism. The Boko Haram insurgency is known to have killed over 30,000 people, displaced over 1.8 million, and ruined over ₦16 billion worth of properties between 2009 and 2018¹².

In the history of Nigeria, the crisis that has created record number of internally displaced persons is the Boko Haram insurgency. Not even the Nigerian civil war presented a greater impediment for Nigeria to overcome than Boko Haram¹³. As opposed to other kinds of insecurity in Nigeria, the origins and motivations of the Boko Haram cult are convincingly murky and perplexing. The organisation has gone through many iterations since its inception as an "anti-western education" movement. Their goal is unclear in light of the fact that they have been linked to attacks on the former Emir of Kano, on Muslims worshipping in mosques, and on market men and women in places where Muslims are a

majority¹². Their nationality, sponsor, and means of subsistence are all mysteries, much like their goal. Their origins have been debated, with some observers attributing them to disgruntled militants in Africa's states in the midst of crises and others believing that political elites in the region funded and supported them¹. However, the concern of this study is in the amount of displacement caused by this unprecedented crisis and others like it in Nigeria.

Globally, the number of people displaced by violence is rising. In the last ten years, the number of individuals who have been compelled to flee their homes as a result of war, persecution, widespread violence, or other human rights abuses has increased from 40 million to more than 80 million¹². When it comes to forced migrants, refugees receive the most attention and study. This focus has been crucial in identifying, studying, safeguarding, and meeting their requirements. However, there is less focus on internally displaced people (IDPs) worldwide, especially in Africa. Therefore, less attention is paid to learning about and empathizing with their nuanced requirements, vulnerabilities, and life histories.

IDPs are categorized into two groups in literature. The first and the most commonly studied is the 'camp IDPs'¹⁴. That is, those IDPs who are encamped in government approved IDP camps in Nigeria although scholars have noticed that there are some camps that receive IDPs that are not registered or recognized by the government. The other group are referred to as 'self-settled' IDPs. These are the IDPs who moved to other towns and communities to stay instead of joining established IDP camps. The self-settled IDPs are those who have decided to fend for themselves or rely on the generosity of their host communities, instead of waiting for government or non-governmental assistance¹⁵.

Scholars have also reported that a large number of unmapped or undocumented internally displaced people (IDPs) have found accommodation in metropolitan settings as self-settled inhabitants among host communities¹⁶. It is not uncommon for displaced people to move in with relatives, acquaintances and friends in other towns and villages when their own homes become unliveable. This category of IDPs often escape the attention of government and non-governmental agencies tracking the movement of displaced persons globally. While effort of these organisations such as the United Nations Refugees' Agency (UNHCR), has led to better documentation tracking and making life better for displaced person, IDP camps are still more amenable to studies than self-settled IDPs. Perhaps due to ease of research, most studies have focused on IDPs in official IDP camps. As it is the stated objective of IDPs to escape insecurity and find relative peace, the reality often differs from expectations. The issue of individuals being uprooted from their homes for no good reason is still the most pressing of the twenty-first century. The uproot of IDPs and their consequent confinement to closed camps raises various human security issues, such as violations, diseases, among others. This is linked to widespread abuses of individual's civil and human rights. Internally displaced people are a vulnerable demographic that need some investment in infrastructure development due to the breakdown of social structures and informal and official insurance mechanisms, coupled with disruptions in work, healthcare, education, and financial¹⁶. They are acutely affected by issues of food insecurity, hunger, and unfair allocation of resources. Furthermore, the concentration of a large number of internally displaced persons in small sites often lead to an increased pressure on these territories causing all kind of pollution, which often render the land not useful for agricultural use in the future, necessitating an increase in the

corporate social responsibility of the state, enterprises, and society¹⁷. In addition, IDP camps are hardly tourist attractions which significantly decreases the tourist attractiveness of the territories and the need for them¹⁸. The attention of various experts has been on the security of IDPs in the IDP camps. Most of these studies have been motivated by the Human Security Approach which indicates that real security entails freedom from fear and freedom from want¹⁹.

The reports from various areas of displacement indicated that IDPs often experience fear and want due to their displaced status. This Human security approach has therefore been used in studies which examine the horrors IDPs experience due to displacement and the vulnerability that comes with depending on others for sustenance²⁰. As it stands today, internally displaced people (IDPs) face unique risks that negatively impact their daily life. Studies have shown that IDPs often lose their rights to education, political participation and livelihoods once they enter IDP camps. In line with the human security approach, IDPs face various security issues as they are exposed to fear and deprivations²¹. To start with, IDPs suffer deprivation.

IDPs are deprived of basic human needs such as food and clean drinking water. There are many difficult issues that displaced people must deal with in the various camps they have been placed in. Mismanagement by the government authorities in charge, a lack of detailed data, widespread starvation and malnutrition, and inadequate medical care are just some of the underlying issues that make it difficult to rehabilitate and relocate them to their pre-conflict positions. Young people are dying from acute malnutrition every day in Nigeria's internally displaced peoples' camps, according to the United Nations Children's Emergency Fund²⁴. A similar pattern is seen in the IDP camp in Bama, Borno

state, where six malnourished children die every day, according to a study by Doctors Without Borders. One eighty-eight of them died of diarrhoea and starvation in June 2016 alone, while 1,200 graves were tallied of which above 500 were youngsters²⁵. In an effort to combat malnutrition, Borno state has shifted from central feeding of IDPs to household feeding, and the President has ordered a probe into corrupt officials at the camps. Recently, the Nigerian Emergencies Management Authority (NEMA) reported that over 209,577 kids in IDP camps have had health issues like malaria, malnutrition, and more. Consequently, malnutrition is a leading cause of short stature in children who have been uprooted from their homes²². However, neither measure has had any noticeable effect. Another deprivation suffered by IDPs is lack of certainty about their future.

The rehabilitation and resettlement plans of the Nigerian government remains unclear; inferences deduced from interactions with the Director of IDPs at the National Commission for Refugees, IDPs and Migrants in early 2023 show that resettling the IDPs remains an insurmountable task for the Nigerian government. There has been a significant contribution from international partners in the areas of humanitarian aid, data collection, health care, and education for refugees. For example, International Organization for Migrants (IOM) has been performing Biometric Registration of IDPs in camps, camp-like sites and host communities. Information on household members, education, displacement history, livelihood, assistance received, return intention, and much more is gathered through conducting interviews with the heads of households of each IDP. In additions, IDPs are not free from fear. The most prominent being fear of rape and contracting venereal diseases from sexual assaults.

The displacement of people from their natural habitat leads to traditional norms breakdown. One of such security issues is gender-based violence. IDP camps have been plagued by reports of rape, prostitution, and theft. Displacement exposes women and girls to rape by other IDPs, and self-appointed elders may thwart attempts to punish the offenders. Many women have been forced to enter into what is called "protection marriages" in order to avoid sexual assault. The assault is not carried out by male residents of the camps only, but also committed by camp, and humanitarian staff²². In 2002 a report revealed that girls were sexually exploited by humanitarian agency staff and security forces in Guinea, Liberia and Sierra-Leone²⁵. A French soldier was recently accused of child abuse in Central African Republic. In Nigeria some women and girls alleged that they have been raped and sold in the IDPs' camps²². That allegation was denied by the emergency response authorities. Yet this problem still persists, due to corruption.

"Human Rights Watch documented sexual abuse, including rape and exploitation, of 43 women and girls living in seven IDP camps in Maiduguri, the capital of Borno State, in late July, 2016. The victims originated from the following cities and villages in Borno: Abadam, Bama, Baga, Damasak, Dikwa, Gamboru Ngala, Gwoza, Kukawa, and Walassa²⁶. Some of the victims had spent months in a military screening camp before arriving in the underfunded Maiduguri camps, where their freedom of movement is tightly restricted.

Insecurity is a major cause of internal displacement and one of the most pressing issues for displaced people living in camps. They have nevertheless been subject to rape, killings, suicide bombings, and random attacks by insurgents despite being housed in the

camps. Attacks on displaced people were reported at regular intervals. Some of them are as follow. Suicide bombers detonated explosives in the IDPs camp in Dikwa, Borno State, killing 58 and injuring 78, according to the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA). In Yola's Maikohi camp suspected Boko Haram terrorists detonated an improvised explosive device (IED) on September 11th, 2015. Seven people were killed and 20 were injured in the attack^{26,27}.

All signs point to the fact that IDPs camps do not provide a safe environment for displaced people. They are threatened by both foreign violence (Boko Haram) and internal pressures while living in the camps. It can therefore be said that IDPs have gone from one state of uncertainty to another. The human security issues facing IDPs is a problem for the entire country of Nigeria, not just the people who have been displaced. Scholars have submitted that if IDPs are not secured and restored safely to their own homes as soon as possible, people who have been uprooted from their homes often resort to criminal behaviour because of the trauma and hardships they have experienced. This thus become a human security issue for the entire society.

This has already been witnessed by European countries. After the influx of Syrian refugees into different regions of Europe, the continent started to face new security threats, as many of these people are forced to resort to violence and theft in order to make ends meet. Nigeria is at risk of increasing security risks if internally displaced people are forced to remain in camps in an unsafe environment. While forced migration is not unprecedented in Nigeria, this is the first time the country has seen such a large influx of internally displaced people so rapidly. Security problems do not appear overnight; rather, they emerge as a result of a variety of factors like poor administration, animosity, and the

routine violation of human rights. To ensure the security of her citizens, Nigeria needs to ensure the security and immediate rehabilitation and resettlement of IDPs. This has called for studies on the issues of security among internally displaced persons and how that affect the rest of the country. It is against this background that this study seeks to examine the extent to which internally displaced person's crisis constitutes a threat to human security in the Northern Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Internally displaced persons deserve to continue to enjoy the same protection and privileges as citizens and permanent residents while still within their own country. IDPs, like all people, are entitled to the protection guaranteed to them by international human rights legislation and by local customs. The primary responsibility for preventing forced displacement, protecting and aiding IDPs is on the government and national state authorities in the area where they are located. However, once citizens get displaced by insecurity or natural disasters, they deserve to be protected from further harms which may befall them due to their vulnerability resulting from being displaced. The security of IDPs has implications for the whole country as it shows that capability of the government to secure its people and ensure justice and peace within its territory. On the other hand, when IDPs continue to face insecurity, they may become disillusioned and seek for ways to harm others, either in self-defence or as a revenge on the society for perceived injustice. The implication of any of these responses is dire for Nigeria which has suffered so much in the hands of terrorists.

This has made it important to study the security issues facing IDPs in Nigeria and these might affect the larger society. However, while several studies have been conducted, and several suggestions made to the government to improve security, both for the IDPs and the generality of Nigerians, there seems to be obvious inadequacy of programmes and effective delivery of the strategies of government in tackling the challenges of human security arising from forced displacement of IDPs in Nigeria. Thus, the needs to properly re-examine the security issues affecting IDPs in Nigeria and the implication for the whole country. This is aimed at coming up with better or improved strategies that will help the existing effort of governments (federal, state and local) to tackle the problem of the internally displaced persons, becoming imperative at this juncture. This study therefore, investigates the impacts of IDP on human security with particular focus on Northern Nigeria.

1.3 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of the study is to examine the human security issues surrounding the management of IDPs in Nigeria and how this affects the overall security of Nigeria as a country. The objectives of the study are to;

1. examine the nature and dimensions of the human security issues facing the IDPs in the Northeast, Nigeria
2. identify the effect of IDP crisis on human security in North-east Nigeria.
3. assess the impact of response strategies of government and non-governmental agencies in reducing the effect of displacement

4. identify the coping strategies of IDPs in the Northeast, Nigeria against the security issues they face

1.4 Research Questions

The research will be guided by the following questions:

1. What is the nature and dimensions of the human security issues facing the IDPs in the Northeast, Nigeria?
2. How has the IDP crisis affected human security in North-east Nigeria?
3. How has the response strategies of government and non-governmental agencies impacted the reduction of the effect of displacement?
4. What are the coping strategies of IDPs in the Northeast, Nigeria against the security issues they face?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study provides the necessary insights for policy makers regarding the importance of addressing various challenges being faced by the IDPs in North-Eastern Nigeria and the implications of neglecting the security of IDPs in the North-East of Nigerian. The study will also provide actionable recommendations to policymakers on ways of relevant agencies in the management of the IDPs to ensure they are protected from fear and wants

as much as possible. This study will add to the body of knowledge as reference material on IDPs and disaster management.

The findings of the study will also be of use to several agencies such as the National State Emergency Management Agencies, the Ministries of Health and Education, and multi-national aid agencies who have been providing support for IDPs across Nigeria.

The refugees in the specified IDP camps in Maiduguri will benefit from the spread of this information, as they have faced many difficulties on their way to Maiduguri, including being sexually abused because of their fragility. In this way, stakeholders can see how serious the issues are and be motivated to take action.

Lastly, it is hoped that it would pique the interest of future scholars in the field, who will then investigate this further and focus on the areas that have hitherto been either ignored or treated inadequately.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study examined issues associated to the security of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in the Northeast region of Nigeria. Specifically, the study highlighted the challenges facing the IDPs based on the Human security approach, that is, their exposure to violence and deprivation of basic needs such as food, medicine and shelter. The study also examined how the insecurity of IDPs affects the other members of the society who are not displaced.

The study is based on both primary and secondary data. The necessary information for the research is obtained from interviews with key informants, published research,

government publications, data from multilateral agencies and archival resources related to the plight of IDPs in the Northeast of Nigeria.

1.7 Limitation of the Study

The researcher had some limitations to the study which include the level of insecurity in the country which prevented access to the IDPs for the purpose of proper observation and interview. Thus, the researcher has to settle for interviews with a few key informants and secondary literatures. In addition, government agencies are unwilling to release some relevant but sensitive information due to the ongoing nature of the crisis.

Also, the IDPs are not limited to those who are in the official camps; there are self-settled IDPs who have chosen to stay with family and friends or simply become destitute on the streets of other cities. The inability to capture the plight of these category may lessen the impact of any recommendation made in this study.

1.8 Operational Definition of Terms

IDPs: This refers to people who have been forced to leave the town and villages due to the activities of insurgents and bandits and settle in various parts of the Northeast Nigeria.

Camp IDPs: These are IDPs who have been displaced to various government-recognised camps in the Northeast of Nigeria and whose welfare depends on the activities of the government and other relief agencies.

Self-Settled IDPs: These are IDPs who have been displaced from their homes but chose to settle with friends and family or live on their own in other towns and villages within the Northeast of Nigeria.

Human Security: This is a concept that ensures that every human in the Northeast of Nigeria live in a world free of fear, want, and indignity. It is focused on thorough and preventative responses across sectors, the development of contextually relevant solutions, and the adoption of partnerships.

Fear: This is the emotion or state of mind experienced by IDPs in the northeast due to harmful activities of insurgents, camp officials and other violent IDPs who may choose to harass, abuse and molest the weaker IDPs.

Want: This refers to denial or lack of access to basic rights such as food, water, shelter and privacy, among others. It is a situation whereby the IDPs in the Northeast of Nigeria are not provided with food, water, shelter, education and privacy and others basic needs that can make their lives easier to live.

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Chapter Two

Literature Review

This chapter reviews existing studies with relevance to the current study. The focus is on studies on the plights of internally displaced persons and the security issues that surround them. The review is focused on the conceptualization of the key variables in the study which include internal displacement, internally displaced persons, human security, and security interventions. The review also focuses on the approach adopted in the study, the population and the findings. The chapter is organized under the following subheadings:

2.1 Conceptual Review

2.1.1 Concept of Human Security

2.1.2 Concept of Internal Displacement

2.1.3 Internally Displaced Persons

2.2 Theoretical Framework

2.2.1 Human Security Framework

2.2.2 Structural Theory

2.3 Review of Empirical Studies

2.4 Conceptual Framework

2.5 Summary of Gap in Literature Reviewed

2.1 Conceptual Review

This section examines what has been written about the concepts in this study namely human security, internal displacement and internally displaced people.

2.1.1 The Concept of Human Security

Security is the state of being safe from injury (or other undesirable coercive change) brought on by other people by limiting their freedom of action. Security beneficiaries (technically referents) might be individuals, communities, items, institutions, ecosystems, or anything else that could be negatively affected by a change. The conceptualization of security from the viewpoint of freedom from harm is however not naïve as it represents what is called the state-centric view of security. When it comes to traditional State-centred security, non-interference and the territorial integrity of a State stand in for the rights of individuals to protect their own privacy and safety. Regarding human safety, the concept of personal integrity is analogous to that of individual integrity rights; the difference is that the individual is the intended recipient, rather than the State.

Scholars in the field of international relations and the subfield of security studies often use a conceptual framework when talking about security. This framework makes a distinction between the referent object of security, the threats to that object, and the ways that object tries to stop and protect itself from those threats. If the state is the most important thing to traditionalists, then other states that are willing and able to use force against them are their biggest threat. These dangers can be lessened through military deterrence and, if necessary, the use of force in case of an attack. Scholars who look at the topic in a more traditional way say that the meaning of security hasn't changed much

over time, and they do not subscribe to the latest argument, which is about human security¹.

The human security approach has become the latest trend in security studies as a concept to replace the state-centric concept of security which sees security as the absence of war and violence. As a result, state-centric security focuses on the use or threat of force to deter and suppress insecurity. This approach simply seen security as a matter of presence or absence of armed struggles. However, experts have submitted that, while the term "security" is most often used to describe safety from external threats, it can also refer to a number of other concepts, including but not limited to: the absence of danger (e.g. freedom from want); the availability of a necessary resource (e.g. food security); the resistance to damage or harm (e.g., secure foundations); the maintenance of privacy (e.g. a secure telephone line); the maintenance of confinement (e.g. a secure room or (e.g. emotional security). Human security refers to a society's regard for its citizens' lives. It is the originally the elimination of fear and wants².

This means that humans are regarded as secure when there is nothing to make them panic, panic or uncomfortable. It is also beyond freedom from harm as it includes the opportunity to have access to basic things such as food, potable water and decent accommodation. Human security is threatened by anything that lessens people's quality of life. This could be anything from war to a lack of access to resources, pollution, environmental deterioration, or population growth. Poverty, unemployment, conflict, violence, illnesses, and diseases, environmental degradation, natural disasters, domestic violence, transnational crimes, and human rights abuses are all examples of issues that

can cause insecurity in individuals, which can then lead to the displacement of those individuals from their usual places of residence³.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) popularized the term "human security," prompting numerous attempts to provide an adequate definition of the term. Freedom from war and violence, as well as the basic needs and rights to economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, community security, and political security, were all seen by the UNDP as essential components of human security⁴.⁵ Therefore, when people are not safe, they become a drain on society's resources. Human security, as defined by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), is an integrative concept in contrast to the traditional concept of security, which entailed a defensive concept, in that when individuals are able to provide for themselves economically, they contribute to the growth of their communities, nations, and ultimately the world.

Furthermore, a scholar proposed that human security is synonymous with the standard of living in a community. It is a security risk if their standard of living is decreased by factors such as population growth, shortages of essential goods, or political unrest. The converse is also true: human security is increased by everything that raises people's standard of living, be it increased prosperity, greater access to resources, greater social or political agency, etc⁶. A person has to be able to satisfy their alienable wants within the context of the society. In light of this, human security was defined as protection not just from physical harm, but also from threats to one's means of subsistence⁷. human security is also defined as the ability of individuals to have access to and enjoy "those things that men and women everywhere in the world cherish most: enough food for the family;

adequate shelter; good health; schooling for the children; protection from violence whether inflicted by man or nature; and a State which does not oppress its citizens but rules with their consent"⁸. The conventional notion of security are challenged by the human security concept since it places primary emphasis on individuals rather than the state as the referent object. Human security also challenges institutions that prioritize the authority of the state over the lives of its citizens. This means that conventional ideas of safety are vital but insufficient for understanding people's well-being. By giving state security a higher priority, people's safety may be compromised. Therefore, a country might be safe from foreign aggressions while still being vulnerable to the needs of its own people. As an example, Bangladesh has strong conventional safeguards, but its citizens' safety is a major concern.

A significant departure from the state-security viewpoint can be seen in the concept of human security. However, while many scholars have argued that the human security approach is developed to eliminate the state-security viewpoint, others have observed that the two concepts supplement one another and complete one another in many ways. Human security, argues that the security of persons extends beyond simple state security" whilst recognizing the state's continuous relevance as a crucial contributor to that security. A human security viewpoint does not aim to completely replace or reject the traditional state-centric school of national security; rather, it aims to adapt the latter's concept to the reality of the present day⁹.

For instance, the state view of security is that all internal and external aggressions can be ended by the use of higher force. It therefore focuses on military actions to maintain and/or restore security. This approach, on face value, is logical as armed insurgents such

as Boko Haram who killed with impunity may be difficult to reason with without making them understand that the state has a superior fire power and a strong capacity for deterrent actions. When the use of force is able to deter or end security issues such as banditry, insurgence and Kidnapping, among other, it also follows that other securities such as food security, environmental security and others will follow. However, scholars have also observed the difference between state-centric security and the human security approach is that one can be tagged as minimalistic while the other can be regarded as maximalist.

Minimalist and maximalist approaches have been taken toward human security. Minimalists are concerned with preventing "violent dangers," whereas maximalists prioritize "the freedom from chronic threats like starvation, disease, and repression, coupled with the protection from sudden tragedies"¹⁰. As a result, human security holds the values of freedom and dignity of the individual as paramount, making them the bedrock principles of civilization. The UN argues that fascism, dictatorships, and communism pose the greatest threat to these ideals, but that other kinds of State involvement that substitute collective judgements for the free will of individuals pose an equal or greater threat¹¹. Overall, human security encompasses a wide range of issues, including but not limited to the following categories: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community, and political security¹².

Although health security is widely acknowledged to be an important socioeconomic issue, no universally accepted definition exists. As a result, there are substantial variations in how the idea is understood and applied in different contexts. That makes it difficult for people to have a proper discussion about the issue, which hinders progress in the field,

particularly as a connection between health security and health systems¹³. Because of this, there is still a call for a complex and elaborate consensus on what constitutes health security. The longer the issue goes without a fundamental definition, that is, a simple but comprehensive one, stating the heart of the issue but leaving room for possible subsequent explanations and the results of research, the harder it becomes.

Health security is used to describe the proactive and reactive measures taken to reduce the risk and effect of acute public health events that threaten the health of the people, whether as a community state, region or country. Health security has been accepted as an integral aspect of human security¹⁴. The stability of the living environment is being threatened by human activities such increasing urbanization, environmental deterioration, and the inappropriate use of antimicrobials. The emergence of new diseases such as COVID-19 is also having far-reaching effects on people's health as well as the economy and society. There has been a rise in both chemical reliance and public knowledge of the health and environmental risks associated with their use. As food manufacturing becomes more globalized, so does the possibility of contaminated components and the spread of infectious diseases. Traditional defences at national borders are ineffective against the invasion of a disease or vector as the global population becomes more mobile and economically interdependent.

Not only do pandemics, health emergencies, and poorly functioning health systems have a human cost, but they also represent a significant threat to the global economy and national security. The persistent increase in diseases and illnesses has distorted health security. In turn, this has multiplied by three because of sloppy garbage collection and inadequate sanitation. When proper health is not taken, the result can be a significant loss

of human life and depletion of a nation's workforce. For instance, it was reported that the number of lives claimed by the COVID-19 pandemic surpassed the number of people, both soldiers and civilians, who died in the world wars. It was reported that an average of 750 soldiers died daily during the American Civil compared to the 1,200 Americans who died daily at the height of the pandemic¹⁵. This has shown that the threat to the health of the citizens of a nation is as potent as the threat of a war against the nation if not more.

A scholar however averred that it is not a new finding that safety and health go hand in hand. However, in the past, this connection was seen through a restricted lens, focusing on how diseases affected the military might of states and how conflicts impacted human health and the efficiency of health care¹⁶. However, the political and intellectual space opened up for a perspective on security that does not rely on the military after the fall of the Soviet Union and, seemingly, the end of the fight of superpowers based on nuclear might. The direction of the concept of evolution of health security discussion is appropriately stated as "towards man"¹⁷. This mean that the discussion of health security begins to focus the health of the citizens and their right to live normal lives.

In this regard, "The New Dimension of Human Security," a UNDP report was crucial. It laid the groundwork for what is now known as human security, or the safety of a person. The United Nations (UN) defines human security as the absence of both fear and desire, and it identifies seven distinct dimensions to this concept: the economic, food, environmental, personal, community, political, and health dimensions. As a result, a new concept—health security—emerged in the field of societal health promotion¹⁸. Societies, scientific communities, and governmental agencies all have varying levels of interest in health security issues. It spreads when people in diverse social groups experience a shift

in their sense of safety. Whenever the number of health issues grows, the need for a new approach arises, or the quality of the evaluation of the health care system declines, this is what usually happens. A similar trend has been noticed in previous years. The Ebola pandemic was the tipping point, and then new and re-emerging infectious disease threats emerged¹⁹. Before recently, it was believed that immunization and general economic and social growth in most countries would lead to perfect control of infectious diseases. Unfortunately, this was not the case. Furthermore, the COVID-19 pandemic revealed a number of shortcomings in the operation of health systems that impeded access to health treatment²⁰. Closely related to health security is food security.

Food security is a situation whereby all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food which meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. Household food security is the application of this concept to the family level, with individuals within households as the focus of concern. On the other hand, food insecurity is a situation whereby people do not have adequate physical, social, or economic access to food. Evidenced by the numerous efforts at definition in research and policy usage, food security is a flexible concept that lend itself to numerous interpretations. Not long ago, not even a decade ago, there were already almost two hundred published definitions of food security²¹.

Increasing acknowledgment of the technical and policy complexity involved has contributed to food security's ongoing growth as an operational term in public policy. The World Food Summit (WFS), held in November 1996, was the site of the most recent rigorous clarification of food security. When compared side-by-side, these definitions reveal how much the official understanding of food security has shifted over the past

quarter century. These declarations also point the way to the policy studies that have recast food insecurity as a shared global and national challenge.

The notion of food security emerged during the global food crisis of the 1970s, when governments and organizations around the world were discussing how to best respond to the situation. The early emphasis was placed mostly on food supply issues, including the need to guarantee the availability and, to some extent, the price stability of basic foodstuffs on both the international and national levels. The crisis was caused by a shift in the global food system, and this shift was mirrored in the types of issues that were being raised. After some back-and-forth on the global stage, the World Food Conference was held in 1974 to establish a new system of informational, resourceful, and policy-discussion-promoting institutions²².

After the events of the mid-1970s, many people started thinking about concerns like hunger and food shortages. A revised definition of food security emerged as a result, giving more weight to the role played by people's actions, particularly those of those most at risk and most likely to be affected. The realization that the Green Revolution's technical achievements did not immediately and dramatically translate to substantial decreases in poverty and levels of hunger was a third and potentially decisive reason in re-evaluating food security. An insufficient amount of demand has been identified as the root cause of these issues.

Food security is also an issue in the context of Nigeria. Although Nigeria has succeeded in cutting the percentage of its population that is undernourished by more than half, from 19.3% in 1990 to 8.5% in 2010 to 2012, the number of people who are undernourished

increased from approximately 10 million in 2010 to about 14 million by 2016, with more severe conditions observed in the conflict-prone north-eastern zone of the country²³.

Different regions of the country have different levels of food insecurity, and these differences are compounded by cultural and rural/urban divides. Many initiatives at the state and federal levels in Nigeria are designed to boost agricultural output in an effort to alleviate the country's food insecurity (e.g., National Policy on Food and Nutrition in early 2001; Zero Hunger by 2030, 2016 National Plan of Action on Food and Nutrition, FAO emergency programmes, Global Food Security Strategy, etc.). It is estimated that between 2018 and 2050, the urban populations of India, China, and Nigeria will have grown by a combined 35%, with Nigeria's urban population growing by about 190 million. The National Population Commission estimates that the average annual growth rate of Nigeria's metropolitan areas is 6.5%. The ongoing expansion in urbanization, from 34.8% in 2000 to 49.5% by 2017, also has ramifications for food supply and cost.

Growing cities mean more people relying on increasingly meagre yields from meagre farming options to put food on the table. Because of stagnant wages and growing food costs, many families may not be able to afford nutritious meals. The development of environmentally friendly urban areas is a primary focus of the eleventh sustainability target. If people can't reliably get enough to eat, a city has a slim chance of lasting for the long haul. It was estimated that for low-income urban families, food costs can account for up to 60% of the monthly budget. In Nigeria, households spend roughly 56.6% of their total household spending on food. An updated estimate from the Bank of Nigeria places that number closer to 73%, which might have a negative impact on spending on human capital²⁴.

Although there has been some success in growing staple crops such as rice and cassava, huge gaps still remain between domestic output and demand for several staple crops. This means that a significant portion of Nigeria's budget goes toward food imports. According to the Central Bank of Nigeria, Nigeria's monthly import bill in 2015 averaged US\$665.4m. As of October 2018, however, new information from the same source showed that this monthly total had plummeted to US\$160.4 million²⁵. Despite these bright spots, Nigeria has severe food and nutrition insecurity and is at risk of sliding into acute food insecurity if national insecurity continues to erode agricultural productivity.

If handled efficiently, Nigeria's agricultural sector has the potential to significantly increase farmers' incomes, ensure the nation's food and nutritional security, create new jobs, and propel the country to the forefront of the global food industry. A number of challenges, however, stand in the way of retooling Nigeria's agricultural economy. These include, but are not limited to: an unfriendly business climate for agriculture, a lack of investment, corruption, access to credit and high-quality agricultural inputs, ineffective policymaking, limited access to markets, and a lack of national security²⁶. Insecurity caused by groups like Boko Haram and the Fulani herdsmen poses the greatest danger to the agriculture industry. Continued Boko Haram terrorist attacks have hurt farming in Nigeria's troubled northeast. Domestic agricultural output is suppressed, farming communities are uprooted, and access to regional markets is denied when there is an unsafe environment in which to do so. Because of their relentless attacks on farming villages, with tragic results, Fulani herdsmen have joined the Boko Haram as a major menace to the region²⁷.

This analysis of Nigeria's efforts to ensure food safety highlights the challenge that insecurity presents to that goal. It emphasizes that farming activities would be negatively affected by the harmful effects of insecurity, which would worsen Nigeria's already dire food insecurity profile. The study's primary aim was to investigate how food insecurity in Nigeria is related to national insecurity, and it did so using both primary and secondary sources of information. The study's primary data came from in-depth interviews with eight key informants from various walks of life. These sources were selected using a non-probability, convenience-based sampling strategy. The secondary data originated from various archives, such as those of the Nigerian government and other foreign NGOs and intergovernmental organizations. According to the results, national insecurity is a major factor in the decline of agricultural output. This means that the operations of the Boko Haram and Fulani herders are undermining the ability of farming communities to produce optimally, leading to food shortages and ultimately worsening the country's food insecurity profile. A major barrier to the success of the food business in Nigeria's north is the difficulty of moving people there. This is because farmers, fearful of increased insecurity, have limited their mobility to within protected regions. Extreme hunger affects more than a million people in the area.

Some argue that human security as a framework is too ideological, while others point out its extensiveness, normativity, and ambiguity. Although gaining acceptability in many academic and policy groups, the idea of human security lacks a uniform foreign policy mandate and a consensus-commanding analytic framework for its measurement²⁸. Because of its conceptual fluidity and ideological flexibility, it can be given a wide variety of different meanings and be used to different uses. As a result, the notion has

become a vague ideological and terminological nebula with little to no scientifically usable clarity²⁹. Despite these limitations, the human security paradigm is used as the analytical framework in this paper since it aids in locating the humanitarian repercussions of farmer-herder conflicts when combined with relevant evidence obtained via studies and field observations.

Personal security is the ability of individual citizens to feel safe in their own environment. It means that they must not be at risk of harm at the hands of the state (in the form of physical torture), other states (in the form of war), other groups of people (in the form of ethnic tension), individuals or gangs (in the form of crime, street violence), or women (in the form of sexual assault or other forms of violence such as rape, or domestic violence. Personal security aims to protect humans from physical violence of the state and other entities. For many, the greatest fear is falling victim to crime³⁰. When people feel safe, they don't have to worry about being a victim of violence against themselves or others and they can focus on living healthy and productive lives³¹.

The former United Nations (UN) Secretary-General was convinced that the rise in civilian casualties during times of war necessitated the development of a "culture of protection" approach to crisis management. Human security differs from state-based methods by placing human rights at the forefront. Practitioners and scholars of foreign policy have been preoccupied in recent years by the sovereignty argument and the situations under which human rights concerns should take precedence over sovereignty. Therefore, in human security operations, protecting people is the ultimate goal rather than eliminating the enemy.

The concept of personal safety can be traced back to the proclamation of human rights, which dealt with four freedoms fundamental to every person: the freedom to speak one's mind, to worship God in one's own way, to be free of want, and to be free of fear. The United States' secretary of state reported the founding conference's conclusion that "the struggle of peace must be conducted on two fronts". First, there's the security front, where winning means never having to worry again. With success on the economic and social front, people will be emancipated from want. It is only through simultaneous victories on both fronts that a lasting peace can be guaranteed for the world³².

In assessing the concept of personal security, a scholar identified three distinct approaches. The first provides a definition of personal safety in accordance with the rule of law and the laws of nature. The second is concerned with humanitarianism and the work done to bolster international rules against genocide and war crimes, ban weapons that pose a particular threat to civilians, and conduct humanitarian interventions. The third aspect is connected to the concept of social justice. Freedom from want, as in development and human rights protection, and freedom from fear, as in humanitarian operations aimed at defending lives and rights, are central to each of the three understandings³³.

When individuals feel safe, society as whole benefits. By spotting risks and adopting countermeasures meant to make themselves safer, individuals do their part to bolster the security of their communities. Thus, this helps strengthen the safety of the nation as a whole. The question of how much safety one needs to feel independent from society's demands and content with one's own long-term progress arises.

Security from physical violence, other crimes against life and property, accidents, abuse (including self-abuse, such as via drugs), and neglect were all included under the umbrella term "personal security;" economic security encompassed not only employment and income but also housing, which could have been its own category; discussion of "community security" included topics like inter-community conflict and indigenous peoples; and "political security" referred to respect for "basic political rights." The list was useful at best for organizing a wide range of pressing concerns into manageable chunks that could be referenced in the context of pre-existing policy packages³⁰. Food, health, the environment, and civil and political rights are just a few of the seven that might easily be included into current policy discourses and portfolios. Given the broad breadth of "personal security" and the usual focus of existing security forces with the security of state interests, property, and themselves, this applied less fully. Similarly, the term "community security" was not precisely defined and was not always included in existing portfolios, reflecting the political sensitivity of the topic.

It should be noted that the Commission on Human Security also declined to endorse the list. With the help of a list of frequently asked concerns regarding "security" (Whose security? What kind of safety are we talking about here, exactly? What exactly are we securing? Where do we need protection? Whose protection can be relied upon? What do you mean by that? On what instruments, exactly? Clearly, not all seven of the 1994 categories are created equal when it comes to protecting people's safety³³. The 1994 HDR debate of environmental security was not about a separate set of environmental values but rather about specific distinctive threats. Both food security and environmental security are inputs or tools towards health and other priority values for people's lives. As a result

of being defined by diverse sets of inquiry/criteria, the seven sub-domains have a lot of common ground.

That particular term, "personal security," was a flawed descriptor. Health, access to appropriate food, income, and job, and (under 'political security') civil liberties, especially for freely selected and respected community membership, are all examples of 'personal' categories. Security of what? includes but is not limited to the intangible concept of psychological safety, which was not addressed in the 1994 HDR. However, it is crucial in actual life, being the foundation for peace, human dignity, and successful personal agency. Included in most definitions of 'personal security,' for example. Therefore, "sharing one's story is crucial to establishing safety"³². Subsequent research has paid more attention to this topic.

Human security analysis has often led to an enrichment of security thinking and doing, such as 'deepening' (attending to the interests of persons and not just states) and 'widening' (attending to more threats than violence and more values than physical security), empowerment from below ('secured by whom, with what instruments?'), and stronger attention to subjective dimensions of perception and agency ('security as perceived by whom? Existing security research and security agencies appear to recognize deepening more readily than these other traits. Therefore, some authors have argued that the unique extra area specified outside of existing policy languages and portfolios should be reduced to only what was covered under 'personal security' in the 1994 HDR, or even less³¹. If this idea were accepted, it would increase the risk of focusing too much on one or two factors.

And while it is true that the idea of personal security as being safe from human-caused physical violence and (other) crime has been there for a long time, even if not under that label, it's far from the only long-standing referent of security. It was not until the latter half of the 19th century that the concept of individual financial security (sometimes known as "social security" in later years) began to be discussed openly³². The same holds true for food security, which has been studied under this heading since the 1970s (after having been studied under various names previously).

The term "human security" appears over 2400 times in the new Routledge Handbook of Human Security, which places a heavy emphasis on the management of violence, while "personal security" appears only three times and is not replaced by "citizen security," which appears nowhere in the book. For context, consider the following frequencies: food security (20x), environmental (8x), economic (6x), health (6x), political (6x), and community (2x) security. Here are the rankings of a few synonyms: Security at the national level 136 times; security at the state level 33 times; security at the global level 16 times; security at the military level 8 times. Therefore, with the exception of the more established term "food security," none of the 1994 set of seven labels is widely embraced by the Handbook. While this may be due to the authors' and topics' disciplinary backgrounds, it's also possible that other labels are already in use, some of the categories (especially the least used terms—'personal security' and 'community security') have particular problems, and the all-encompassing term 'human security' matches the unity of a person's life better than does attempted compartmentalisation.

In a similar vein, outside of some national HDRs, the word "personal security" is not used in the same way it was in the 1994 HDR when it comes to policy and planning. To

avoid using the phrase for a more comprehensive emphasis and for comparisons regarding what supports people's security, we first see attempts to reduce to a focus on security against physical harm solely.

Influencing Factors on Human Safety

The UN Development Programme recognized seven categories of threats to human security: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community, and political. Financial stability is the knowledge that one can count on receiving money each month, whether from private sources or government programs. In order for individuals to feel safe, they need to know that they can always find food to eat. People in this area go hungry not due to a lack of food supplies but due to a lack of money to buy it. Since it outlined how everyone needs access to healthcare services, health security is crucial. The absence of physical danger is essential to one's sense of personal security.

As a member of a community, individuals are more likely to feel safe and secure with the assurance of support from other members of the community. Such communities typically have members who agree on basic concepts or share common ideals. To feel safe in a political sense, people need to know they are safe in a society that upholds their basic human rights. During periods of political upheaval, abuses of human rights tend to be in the spotlight³³.

Despite these, though, there are obstacles that make it difficult for governments to ensure people's safety. These range from domestic and international terrorism, poor civil and military relations, the politics of exclusion, and unexpected economic and financial downturns to chronic and persistent poverty, armed violence, human trafficking, climate change, and health pandemics. As a result, four interrelated clusters of fundamental

factors were identified as contributing to human insecurity: "causes that are inconspicuous and hence not easily acknowledged and explained; causes that have historical origins; causes that are systematically reproduced through existing social, political, and economic institutions; and causes that reflect the immediate consequences of existing institutional conditions". These reasons can be broadly classified as either external dangers or internal factors. People in these kinds of unstable civilizations are put in danger because of these issues. Human insecurity problems have recently arisen in Africa, leading experts to conclude that states are both the causes and the perpetrators of this phenomenon³⁴.

Therefore, it could be said that the main causes of insecurity in Nigeria are ethnic and religious tensions, youth unemployment, and the politicized state and widespread political corruption³⁵. The current national security situation in Nigeria is characterized by an increase in armed violence and criminality across the country. This catastrophic state of affairs can be traced back to the widespread security crisis in Northern Nigeria³⁶. The North Central is suffering from a farmer-herder problem at the same time that the North East is still dealing with the plague of the Boko Haram insurgency amidst the government's shaky counterinsurgency operations^{37, 38,39}. The North West has also been mired in the rapid rise of allied armed gangs known as "bandits" and infiltration by shadowy terrorist organisations⁴⁰.

Conflicts between farmers and herders stand out as the most persistent, intractable, and pervasive of the current security threats. The war has progressed from simple skirmishes to a complex situation marked by militancy and the carrying of weaponry⁴¹. Moreover, the crisis is linked to severe humanitarian situations that pose a serious risk to human

security^{42,43}. Recent research by Amnesty International found that "at least 3,641 persons were killed between January 2016 and October 2018 as a result of attacks and retaliation attacks" due to farmer-herder conflicts. Furthermore, they have triggered population displacement, which is associated with negative socioeconomic effects⁴⁴.

Examples of such material problems include the exposure of individuals to health, nutrition, financial, and related social challenges when they are uprooted from their conventional systems of housing and livelihood. The human security of the affected populations is weakened as a result of the interplay between these bleak socioeconomic situations and those generated by unexpected death (widowhood, orphanage). Many studies have been conducted on farmer-herder disputes in Nigeria, as may be expected^{45,46,47}.

2.1.2 The Concept of Human Displacement

Human displacement means that people are taken away from their home or country of origin against their will. Since human beings have learnt to create community and live perpetually in one place, displacement can only arise as a result of forced circumstances. As a result, people also use the term forced migration instead of displacement. Displacement of people, also called forced displacement, is the opposite of a safe environment for an individual, since it compels that person to flee his or her usual dwelling in search of protection in a place that is new and unfamiliar. People's fears are stoked in large part because of the fact that they have to move.

Most people know that forced migration, which is also called forced displacement, means that refugees and internally displaced people are moved or moved away from their homes

against their will. Forced migration is different from voluntary migration because people who are forced to leave do so suddenly or violently, while people who choose to leave on their own do so after planning and preparing⁴⁸. There are many things that can cause people to move. It can be caused by a disaster, development, or conflict, and these things can happen at the same time or be linked⁴⁹. People can be forced to move for more than one reason at the same time, or more than one person can be forced to move for different reasons at the same time. This makes it hard to give forced migration a single cause or driver.

Disaster or climate-induced displacement is when environmental stresses hurt people's lives and ways of making a living. This type of migration shows how environmental issues, like climate change, affect people's decisions about where to move. Environmental problems are expected to force up to 200 million people to move by the middle of the century, so this category is coming up more and more in debates. In these kinds of debates, people try to recognize how much environmental change affects why people have to leave their homes. This is especially important when the weather is bad⁵⁰.

The second factor is "development-induced displacement," which means "the moving, resettling, and relocating of people because of state-defined development processes." Every year, development projects like building cities, improving transportation, and building dams force up to 10 million people to move. This is a key part of helping them find new homes. This kind of displacement, like any other kind, tends to hurt the people who are affected by it. This is mostly because people in these groups tend to have problems in their social, economic, and institutional lives⁵¹.

Even though development activities did not make it into the working definition of internal displacement that was included in the 1998 Guiding Principles of the United Nations, some states have taken the definition from the United Nations Guiding Principles and added development activities as one of the causes of internal displacement in their regions. Governments in places like South Asia and West Africa have said that development projects are one reason why people move within their own countries. Because people who are moved because of development projects don't help themselves, they get less help from their governments and even less from international aid than people who are moved because of war or violence.

The last type of cause of forced migration is conflict-induced migration, which is the focus of this study because it caused the rise of IDPs and the humanitarian crisis in Borno State, Nigeria. It has also been the main reason why people have been forced to move around the world, especially in Africa. This study's definition of "conflict-induced displacement" is people who had to leave their homes because of armed conflict, widespread violence, or weak state protection⁵².

Since the end of the Cold War, forced migration has grown in number and political importance in a way that is very worrying. Some things that happened before and after the Cold War that made this increase worse were the two world wars, the colonial liberation wars, the proxy wars of the Cold War, a variety of internal conflicts in Africa, Afghanistan, and Iraq, state partitions and nationalist claims to territory in South Asia and the Middle East, authoritarian regimes, human rights violations, large-scale development projects, and environmental disasters caused by hurricanes, tsunamis, and earthquakes. All of these things have caused people to leave their homes and look for safety

somewhere else. Refugees have been talked about the most. Even more people have been forced out of their homes but have stayed in their home country. These people are called "Internally Displaced People".

In the last 10 years, the number of people moving within countries and between countries has gone up by a huge amount. This is often because of persecution, war, violence in general, or violations of human rights⁵³. The graph in Figure 2.1 shows this.

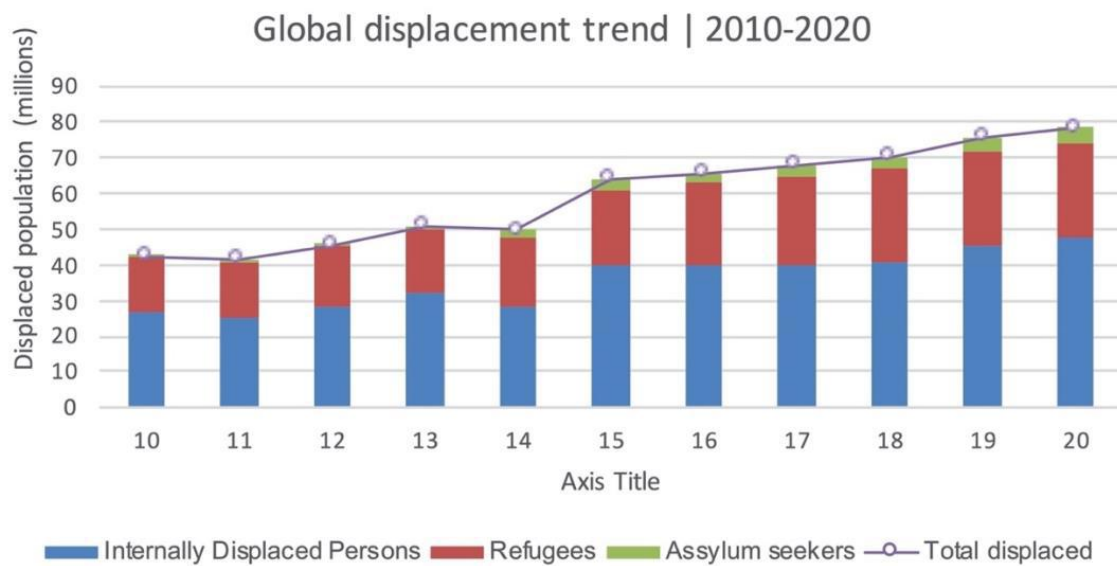


Figure 2.1 : Graphic Illustration of displacement (2010-2022)

Source⁵³

Various opinions have been expressed about why there might be more people who are internally displaced than refugees in the world today. One of them is that sometimes, natural barriers such as rivers and mountains make it hard for people to move across borders. In addition, people who are forced to leave their homes sometimes want to stay in places they know, so they choose to stay in their own countries instead of crossing the national border. Apart from natural barriers, there are also human-made barriers such as international borders and immigration laws. The most important thing is that countries

nearby have strict rules about how refugees can get into their countries. This is as a result of the economic burden, these displaced persons place on their societies.

With all of these things, the number of people who are moving within their own country is going up while the number of refugees, that those who move to other countries, is going down. During the war in Afghanistan in 2001, for example, there were 2 million people who had to leave their homes because of the war. In the same year, only 200,000 refugees from Afghanistan crossed into Pakistan. This is also evident in the African countries at which in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), there was an estimated 1.5 million displaced in the country. But only 469,000 of them were able to leave. As well, in Sudan of the 6 million displaced persons in the country, only 703,000 persons became refugees.

According to the Global IDP Survey, there are more than 13 million IDPs in Africa, between 5 and 6 million in Asia, 3 million in Europe, and between 3 and 4 million in the Americas. This shows that there are more people who have moved within their own country than there are refugees in the world today. When people move within their own country, it disrupts the social and economic systems of both the places they leave behind and the places they move to⁵⁴. One thing about internal displacement is that it happens on a very large scale. So, a large number of internally displaced people moving into an area can cause problems for the whole area, especially if the area isn't ready for the influx or does not have enough resources to help the influx of internally displaced people into the area⁵⁵.

But based on what the United Nations Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement say, scholars have reported that there are three stages of internal displacement: before the

move, during the move, and after the move. By preventing pre-displacement, the state's main goal is to stop the things that cause displacement from happening. During a move, the focus is on protecting and helping the people who are internally displaced. The post-displacement phases emphasis finding long lasting solutions for the affected internally displaced persons as well as building sustainable livelihoods for these persons. Despite the challenges encountered by the internally displaced persons, these displaced persons have the right to some privileges as identified in the Guiding Principles of the internally displaced persons. "Right to life, liberty, and security of person, protection against violence; right to food; right to water and sanitation; right to adequate housing; right to medical assistance and healthcare; right to property; protection against attacks on property; freedom of movement; right to be recognized as a person before the law; right to family life and unity; right to education; right to work and an adequate standard of living; right to freedom of exile". In trying to reduce the internally displaced persons' crisis in Africa, the 2009 African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (the Kampala Convention) was adopted in 2012. The Guiding Principles on internal displacement were a big part of how the Convention dealt with the IDP crisis that was happening all over the continent.

Internal displacement in Nigeria is a recurring and large scale phenomenon and has affected most of the country's 36 states. Africa's largest populated country has seen many waves of displacement, both small and large scale, caused essentially by conflict, generalized violence, natural disasters and human rights violations.

2.1.3 Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs)

IDPs are people who are forced to leave their homes because of armed conflict, generalized violence, human rights violations, natural disasters, or disasters caused by humans, but who stay in their own country. This definition suggests that the phrase “internally displaced persons” refers only to people uprooted by conflict, violence and persecution, that is, people who would be called refugees if they crossed a border. This viewpoint is bolstered by the fact that conflict refugees are the only ones included in global statistics on IDPs. Nigeria has 3.3 million persons displaced by conflict –the highest number in Africa. This information is contained in a report ‘Global Overview 2014: people internally displaced by conflict and violence’ released by the Internal Displaced Monitoring Centre (IDMC)⁵⁶.

According to the report, there are 3.3 million IDPs in Nigeria and 470,500 individuals were displaced in 2013 alone. On a global scale, Nigeria is only ranked behind Syria with 6.5 million IDPs and Colombia with 5.7 million IDPs. The report explains the unprecedented rise in IDPs in Nigeria last year by the increased number of Boko Haram attacks, heavy-handed counter insurgency operations, and ongoing inter-communal violence. After Boko Haram insurgents were pushed out of major towns in the north-east following the declaration of a state of emergency in Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa states in May 2013, they focused their attacks with increased brutality on towns and villages close to Nigeria’s borders with Cameroon, Niger and Chad⁵⁶.

However, there are many who think the term "internal displacement" should be expanded to include the millions of people who have been forced to relocate due to natural disasters and human-made construction projects. Still others wonder whether it is useful to pick out internally displaced persons, who frequently are referred to as “IDPs”, as a group at

all. Similarly, there is no agreement on "when internal displacement stops," or when a person should no longer be classified as an internally displaced person. To further complicate matters, the term "refugee" is sometimes used colloquially to refer to those who have been uprooted within a country, rather than requiring that they have fled their country of origin, as the legal definition of "refugee" does. In a nutshell, there is a desire for definition on several conceptual matters⁵⁶.

At the end of the Cold War, more people moved within their own countries than moved to other countries. The definition of the United Nations Secretary-General on internally displaced persons 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"⁵⁶.

No definition of "internally displaced persons" existed when the problem of internal displacement first appeared on the world agenda in the early 1990s. Still, it was crucial to have a definition in order to pinpoint the populations of interest and their unique requirements, collect relevant data, and draft laws and policies to better serve them. Therefore, the Representative of the United Nations Secretary-General on Internally Displaced Persons had, at the outset of his mandate, the important duty of developing a definition for this group of individuals. This was difficult due to the divergent opinions on the subject.

There were two obvious components to the idea of internal displacement. For one, it was an automatic motion that could not be stopped. That is, it is usually an unavoidable

occurrence in which people have to abandon the home or risk being maimed or killed. Two, this kind of migration occurs within a country's boundaries, which is a key distinction between IDPs and refugees (who are, by definition, foreign nationals) under international law. It was necessary, however, to define the limits of the idea beyond this. Those displaced within their own country due to armed conflict, internal strife, systematic violations of human rights, or natural or man-made disaster were defined in accordance with the working definition put forth by the United Nations Secretary-General in 1992⁵⁶.

This definition reflected a spectrum of contexts in which the essential features of internal displacement - forced relocation within boundaries - may manifest. The reasons given are based in part on the larger refugee definitions used in Africa and Latin America, which go beyond the persecution criterion in the 1951 Refugee Convention to include those fleeing from armed conflict, internal instability, and systematic breaches of human rights. People displaced by both natural and man-made disasters were also included in the definition. It was not possible to rule out the possibility that natural calamities like floods, earthquakes, and starvation, as well as man-made disasters like nuclear or chemical mishaps, were significant contributors to population displacement.

To account for these additional factors, a more inclusive definition was needed. At the same time, it was realized that the 1992 definition was overly limited, especially with regard to the time and number ranges it covered. While the original definition of internally displaced persons (IDPs) focused on people who had to flee their homes "suddenly or unexpectedly" this failed to take into account the fact that in some cases, population relocation was not an accidental occurrence but rather the result of a deliberate state policy carried out over a period of years. Similarly, the criterion of

"forced to flee" would rule out all cases in which populations did not flee but were nevertheless compelled to leave their homes, such as the forced evictions of minorities during the war in Bosnia or, more recently, in the summer of 2005 in Zimbabwe, the home demolitions and forced removal of more than half a million people⁵⁶.

The idea that people were fleeing "in enormous numbers" was also problematic, given that many of the displaced persons actually fled in small groups or even alone. As a result, the definition settled on by the Representative of the Secretary General made time and minimum affected-person requirements unnecessary. There were a number of nuanced changes made. Internally displaced people are those who have fled their homes as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of the causes listed in the definition, which acknowledges that people can become displaced not only as a direct result of experiencing the causes of displacement but also in anticipation of such effects.

There was additional mention of "habitual places of abode" presumably since not everyone had a permanent address. Finally, "who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border" was added to the list of requirements in place of "who are within the territory of their own country" to account for the possibility of sudden border changes, such as those that occurred with the break-up of the former Yugoslavia and the dissolution of the Soviet Union.

The principles, first presented to the United Nations in 1998, are now being used by governments, the United Nations, regional organisations, non-governmental organizations, and other players all around the world to address internal displacement. 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 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, is how they define those who are internally displaced⁵⁶.

All of the original 1992 working definition's identified factors for internal displacement are still in play. Although these are some of the most common reasons for internal displacement, the Principles' definition begins with the qualifier "in particular" to account for the possibility of other conditions that also fit the fundamental basic criteria of involuntary movement within one's country. Some participants in the discussions that led to this definition argued that the definition of internally displaced individuals should be narrowed to include only people fleeing persecution or armed conflict (12 Articles conflict), i.e., refugees. However, several NGOs warned early on that such a narrow definition of internally displaced people (IDP) could lead to the creation of a definition that "did not correctly portray the multiplicity of the root causes of displacement" such as development projects and natural catastrophes.

At the end of the day, the 'overwhelming opinion' was that people who had been uprooted due to both natural and man-made disasters or development projects were also displaced and required assistance, not least because past experience had shown that they, too, could be discriminated against and subject to human rights violations during the course of their displacement. However, there is still some resistance to expanding the definition of IDPs to include these people. In most cases, only people who have been uprooted due to armed conflict or abuses of human rights are included in global statistics on internal displacement.

Additionally, a recent study has suggested that the IDP concept be defined even more strictly, so that it only includes people who have been uprooted due to violent conflict. In reality, however, people whose homes were destroyed by natural disasters are also considered internally displaced. Additionally, they frequently require humanitarian aid and, in certain situations, security measures⁵⁵. Because of the major displacement issue caused by the December 2004 tsunami in Southeast Asia, more people are paying attention to the needs of these IDPs. The importance of unifying the many causes of internal displacement under a single definition has also been confirmed.

This has to the conclusion that “people forced to flee their homes have many comparable categories of vulnerability regardless of the underlying reasons for their displacement”. Indeed, several regional governments have been among those stressing disasters as a cause of internal displacement and a problem demanding greater attention long before the disastrous 2004 tsunami. What's more, "natural and human-made disasters" are specifically mentioned in the UN's advice to its Humanitarian and Resident Coordinators, the people tasked with coordinating the organization's response to internal displacement in each impacted nation.

Confusion has arisen because the IDP definition does not explicitly address development, and some have incorrectly claimed that persons who have been displaced as a result of development projects are not covered by the Guiding Principles. However, it is clear from the substance of the Principles themselves that they were supposed to also apply in conditions of development, as Principle 6 addresses displacement by development projects and the Principles depend upon resettlement criteria from the development field.

As a result, any claim that people who are uprooted due to development projects are not

displaced is likely to be met with scepticism in many parts of the world, especially Asia. It was made clear at a regional conference on internal displacement in Asia in 2000, co-sponsored by UNHCR, the Asia Forum for Human Rights and Development, the Norwegian Refugee Council, the U.S. Committee for Refugees, and the Brookings Institution, that any discussion of internal displacement in the region would not be complete without considering displacement due to development projects.

Underscoring this notion is the fact that natural disaster, and human-made development projects all contribute to South Asians' need to relocate, as detailed in a new volume on the Guiding Principles' implementation in the region. This perspective is not restricted to the area at large. The governments of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) suggested that the Guiding Principles' definition of internally displaced persons (IDP) be expanded to include development as a cause of displacement. While the Global IDP Project uses a number of 25 million internally displaced persons (IDPs) as an example, it notes that the number of people displaced by development projects is believed to be much higher, and that both groups are protected by the Principles. It also notes that unlike persons displaced by war or natural disasters, development-induced IDPs' "plight stays largely undetected" and they typically receive even less support from their government and/or international aid agencies⁵².

It has also been suggested that the definition of IDPs be expanded to include those who are forced to leave their homes due to extreme poverty or other economic concerns. However, these people are not included in the IDP definition. This is due to the hazy nature of the element of coercion in the majority of situations. Even if economic migrants and migrant workers were left out of the IDP definition, that does not mean they do not

have a right to special attention and protection. It just means that other concerns must be given priority. The purpose of the IDP definition was to address the plight of a specific group of people with unique protection and assistance needs due to forced displacement, and broadening the definition would run the risk of diluting this focus.

Indeed, there have been instances in which a government has labelled IDPs as "migrants," ostensibly to divert attention from the fact that their migration was forced. It is crucial to differentiate between internally displaced persons and economic migrants for these reasons. Though IDPs are commonly referred to as "internal refugees," the concept of IDPs encompasses far more than just refugees. Conflict, persecution, natural catastrophes, and even development initiatives can all result in people being forcibly displaced from their homes. Despite the wide variety of reasons for displacement, all of these populations were lumped into a single definition since they share the two essential requirements of being uprooted involuntarily and within a nation's borders⁵⁵.

Thus, the IDP definition seeks to find a middle ground between a too-narrow framework that risks rejecting people who share similar traits and a too-broad framework that risks losing the focus on the particular protection and aid needs stemming from forced displacement. It is vital to bear in mind that the definition of "internally displaced person" is a descriptive, rather than legal, definition. It simply expresses the true scenario of a person being displaced within one's nation of habitual residence. The phrase does not connote or give a unique legal status in the same way that designation as a "refugee" does. This is unnecessary for internally displaced persons (IDPs) because "the rights and guarantees to which IDPs are entitled stem from the fact that they are human beings and citizens or habitual residents of a particular state," whereas refugees, having lost the

protection of their own country and being outside of their own state, require a special legal status⁵⁶. Not all cases of internal displacement will necessarily be of concern to the international community, which is another fundamental divergence with the "refugee" notion. The international community need not intervene if the needs of internally displaced persons are successfully fulfilled by their own government, unless the government specifically requests aid. However, the international community has a right to be concerned if IDPs are refused protection and support by their government.

Obviously, not every internally displaced person (IDP) will be of interest to every organization with a mandate or willingness to act in such situations. As the IDP definition is more of a descriptive than a legal one, it leaves room for organizations to tailor the IDP idea to their own missions and philosophies. Given the nature of its work, the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) will naturally prioritize internally displaced persons (IDPs) who have been displaced as a result of armed conflict. Staff may even define IDPs accordingly.

The organization nevertheless recognises the broader IDP definition, which the ICRC finds to be 'fully suitable for the purposes of the Guiding Principles'. After all, the ICRC acknowledges that internal displacement stems from a number of causes, among which armed conflict is but one and simply the cause with which it is principally concerned. The Guiding Principles, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) provides a definition in response to the question "Who is an IDP?" that takes into account the wide variety of factors that can lead to displacement. However, the UNHCR only assists "some" of these people, in particular those who have been forced to flee their homes due to armed conflict or other forms of persecution. The fact that an organization

chooses to conceptualize IDPs based on the organization's particular mandate and activities does not detract from the definition in the Guiding Principles⁵⁴. To the contrary, it highlights that there is all the more urgency to establish a general definition covering all the varied features of internal displacement.

2.2 Theoretical Review

The theories considered relevant to the current study are the Human Security Approach and the Structural Theory.

2.2.1 The Human Security Approach

The Human Security Approach was an instrument developed by the United Nations in 1994. The UNDP Human Development Report New Dimensions of Human Security coined the term "human security" within the UN system. It represents a paradigm shift in thinking about security which has traditionally centred on the security of the state instead of people. The reason for this, according to the report, being that the world will never be secure from war if men and women have no security in their homes and in their jobs. It stressed that the two fronts in the battle for peace are 'freedom from fear' and 'freedom from want' which the report considered to be the core of the human security agenda. The main postulation of the approach is that human security is not limited to the prevention or elimination of physical harms but also extend to other aspects. The report highlighted four

characteristics of human security: universal, people-centred, interdependent and early prevention. The UNDP provided the overall picture of the human security approach in the following four sentences, “Human security: is not just security of land, it is security of people; is not just security through arms, it is security through development; is not just security of nations, it is security of individuals in their homes and in their jobs; is not just a defence against conflicts between nations, it is a defence against conflicts between people⁵⁷.

It further outlined seven interconnected elements of human security: personal, economic, health, food, environmental, community and political security. The human security approach is a tried-and-true way to think about and plan for a world free from fear, want, and humiliation. It helps the United Nations come up with more comprehensive and preventive responses that work across sectors, create solutions that fit the situation, and form partnerships.

Considering human security as the right of people to live in freedom and equity, free from poverty and despair, a scholar outlined various types and sources of threats to human security to revolve around physical (natural disasters), living (biological disasters such as epidemics) and social systems (war and displacement). The interactions between these systems pose a threat to human security. It has been suggested that two ways to handle human security threats by either reducing the causes or to ameliorate the consequences⁵⁸.

Human security is inherent to human life bearing in mind the incoherence of the worlds’ insecurities as scholars began to question the degree of attention that is given to what they consider less significant threats (perceived threats) such as terrorism and conflicts⁵⁹. Rather they believe that much more critical attention should be placed on the salient real

threats like human trafficking, social exclusion (psychological insecurity), adaptation to climate change and so on. For instance, it was pointed out, that tobacco had claimed more lives than bombs in the year 2003, so tobacco is more of a security threat to the country than bombs. Another scholar alludes to this point when they observed that after the fall of the Berlin wall, it became clear that despite the stability created by the east-west balance of power, the citizens were not necessarily safe as they suffered from environmental disasters, poverty, disease, hunger, violence and human rights abuse even though they were said to be safe from nuclear and outright attacks⁵⁹.

The UNDP Human Development Report of 1994 particularly emphasises that “Human security means safety from the constant threats of hunger, disease, crime and repression. It also means protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the pattern of our daily lives-whether in our homes, in our jobs, in our communities or in our environment”⁶⁰. In the context of this study “human security” means ensuring that children in the IDP camps and the host communities do not die from preventable diseases, no pandemic or epidemic will rampage the IDP camp and the larger society, IDPs would still be able to make a living, especially after reintegration. Most importantly, the approach seeks to ensure that communal tensions will not translate into violent conflict religious and political conflicts are resolved with dialogue instead of arms⁶⁰.

As outlined previously, the human security approach identifies four essential characteristics of human security which are:

- i. Human security is a *universal* concern. It is relevant to people everywhere, in rich nations and poor nations.
- ii. The components of human security are *interdependent*

- iii. Human security is *easier to ensure through early prevention* than later intervention. It is less costly to meet these threats upstream than downstream.
- iv. Human security is *people-centred*. It is concerned with how people live and breathe in a society, how freely they exercise their many choices, how much access they have to market and social opportunities – and whether they live in conflict or in peace.

This implied the change of the concept of security in two basic ways:

- i. From an exclusive emphasis on territorial security to a much greater stress on people's security.
- ii. From security through armaments to security through sustainable human development.

The framework also delineates seven groups of threats to human security which are:

- i. Economic security threatened by persistent poverty, unemployment
- ii. Food security threatened by hunger and famine
- iii. Health security threatened by deadly infectious diseases, unsafe food, malnutrition, lack of access to basic health care
- iv. Environmental security threatened by environmental degradation, resource depletion, natural disasters, pollution
- v. Personal security threatened by physical violence, crime, terrorism, domestic violence, child labour
- vi. Community security threatened by inter-ethnic, religious and other identity - based tensions
- vii. Political security threatened by political repression, human rights abuses, etc.

From an operational perspective, human security aims to address complex situations of insecurity through collaborative, responsive and sustainable measures that are (i) people-centred, (ii) multisectoral, (iii) comprehensive, (iv) context-specific, and (v) prevention-oriented. In addition, the human security approach employs a hybrid approach that brings together these elements through a protection and empowerment framework. The report noted that the concept of security must change-from an exclusive stress on national security to a much greater stress on people's security, from security through armaments to security through human development, from territorial security to food, employment and environmental security.

That security must not only be addressed in terms of defending the territorial integrity of a country but also in terms of protecting people has been emphasised severally in current discourse on the concept of security⁶¹. Obviously sticking to the traditional notion of security is no longer tenable in the light of emerging threats, not only to the state but individuals, ethnic groups, nations, various social groups, minorities, regions, and the global system. The environment itself, which sustains human life is also under threat⁶². In this regard, a scholar observed that for too long, the concept of security has been shaped by the potential for conflict between states and security had been equated with the threats to a country's borders⁶⁰.

For too long, nations have sought arms to protect their security. For most people today, a feeling of insecurity arises more from worries about daily life than from the dread of a cataclysmic world event. Job security, income security, health security, environmental security, security from crime-these are the emerging concerns of human security all over the world⁶⁴.

The publication of the Human security approach had generated so much scholarly attention to the extent that within a period of ten years after the publication of the report in 1994, the Harvard Program on Humanitarian Policy and Conflict Research had compiled a total of 283 bibliographies on human security while at the King's College at the University of Cambridge, 76 pages of bibliographies had been compiled on the subject which carried a great number of research documents⁶⁵. It is however interesting to note that much of this literature is concerned with contesting and defending the concept itself, rather than on its theoretical coherence or associated policy agenda. In 1999, the United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security was set up. Since its inception, it has undertaken over 200 endeavours dealing specifically with human security threats all over the globe. The trust fund is operated under the Human Security Unit (established in 2004) of the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs.

Human security has been severally criticised for its conceptual ambiguity), arbitrariness, vagueness and broadness of its epistemology of threats void of the necessary precision for a useful theoretical construct^{65,66}. There are other criticisms such as scholars who tagged it as 'a normatively attractive but analytically weak concept' while others dismissed it as 'a reductionist, idealistic notion that adds little analytical value'. Other authors are particularly critical of the breadth of the concept and argue that it lacks the analytical and descriptive power of a robust theoretical construct to identify causal relationships and define appropriate responses^{67, 68}.

Unlike the traditional state security paradigm with clear core values such as the notion of wealth which is measured in terms of the amount of a nation's material possessions, and power measured in terms of its ability to control the actions of others. Security here, in an

objective sense, is measured by the absence of threats to acquired values, in a subjective sense, it measures the absence of fear that such values (wealth, power) will be attacked. Such specificity is lacking in human security because of the difficulty of determining what constitutes core values for the wide range of individuals and communities globally since human security is not limited to any state⁶⁹.

In response, exponents of human security not only cite the substantive importance of a wider range of issues (such as poverty, disease, and environmental disasters), but also by arguing that in shifting the referent of security, these issues necessarily fall under the human security umbrella. They posit that the subsequent analytic and normative difficulties are unfortunate but unavoidable consequences of broadening the security paradigm beyond threats to the state.

The debate among proponents of human security has focused on two perspectives: the broad versus narrow conceptualisation. The perspectives have been brought together and summarised in a colloquium below. The narrow concept of human security includes only threats related to violence citing pragmatism, conceptual clarity, and analytic rigor as their reasons for doing so. Krause argues that the broad concept of human security is a potential laundry list of 'bad things that can happen' and points to the danger of including the lowest common denominator of individual vulnerability and well-being under the rubric of security thus securitising everything including education which can have few benefits. Lumping together dependent and independent variables renders causal analysis virtually impossible thus, the need to identify what really constitutes security threat and what is not⁷⁰.

On the other hand, there are scholars who advocate a broadening of human security to include poverty, disease, and environmental disasters as well as social, psychological, political, and economic aspects of vulnerability. This definition includes all critical and pervasive threats to the vital core 'consistent with long term flourishing' captured in the Report of the Commission on Human Security⁷². Floods, famine, and massive refugee flows which present a crisis scenario requiring exceptional policy response as issues that warrant the security label. Although Human Security Audit is broad in scope, it only includes threats with 'identifiable human agents'. Despite the endless debate between proponents and critics and the lack of a firm definition of the concept of human security, it does not reduce its relevance especially in the context of this study⁷².

It looks at the reasons why people are vulnerable, focuses on new risks, and stresses the importance of taking action early. It makes it easier for countries and societies around the world to build resilience and supports solutions that improve social cohesion and respect human rights and dignity. This approach came about because IDPs needed help with their development. Its main goal was to help vulnerable groups such as IDPs deal with security problems. This approach was a direct challenge to the traditional paradigm of human security and development that put the focus on the state. From this point of view, the state's main job is to make sure that basic human security needs are met.

There are two ways to look at the Human Security approach: the Freedom from Fear Approach and the Freedom from Want Approach. While the main focus of the "freedom from fear" approach, is on what kinds of threats IDPs should be protected from, it also talks about the right ways to deal with the dangers that IDPs in vulnerable situations face. So, this approach called for a human security practice that protects vulnerable people

from things like poverty, poor health, inequality, and malnutrition, which are all forms of human insecurity.

Still, this approach added that emergency help, building peace, resolving and preventing conflicts, and other things are needed to keep people in vulnerable groups safe. On the other hand, the "freedom from want" approach pushed for "all-in" approach to achieving human security, especially in times of conflict. This second approach said that the human security approach should be broadened to include natural disasters, hunger, disease, etc., because these are important parts of addressing the causes of human insecurity among vulnerable groups, and that these things may cause more problems for vulnerable groups than conflict.

2.2.2 The Structural Theory

The Structural Theory was developed in 1998 and extended in 2003. It explains the immediate and deeper causes that directly or indirectly force people to leave their natural homes⁷³. As the theory says, political, economic, and social factors are important causes of people moving, but structural factors, such as conflicting inter-group politics, lack of social justice, weak state institutions, and discriminatory political institutions, as well as bitter religious and inter-tribal disagreements and inter-group fragmentation, are the main causes of people moving. Problems with national security, internal and cross-border crime, and insurgency are also structural causes of mass migration. It has also been said that environmental pollution, deforestation, drought, and natural disasters were major causes of people having to move⁷³.

Other factors that lead to forced displacement, according to the structural theory include overpopulation, natural disasters, poor economic opportunities, and social institutions that are not integrated can also cause people to move because they put pressure on where people live. Some of these factors, like violent political competition, natural disasters like famine and drought, inter-tribal conflict, and both internal and cross-border crime, often lead to forced migration, while socio-economic factors, like a lack of jobs and overpopulation, could lead to voluntary migration.

Scholars argued that there is a weak structural relationship between the Nigerian government, the people it governs, and the socio-political and economic institutional structures put in place to help people reach their personal and group development goals. This argument is based on the structural politico-economic and power relations factors that lead to internal displacement caused by insurgents. Once a conflict has reached a crisis level between the government and the governed or among the governed, it often leads to other social disasters, such as the spread of arms, social and economic upheaval, extreme hardship, the destruction of lives and property, the destruction of infrastructure facilities, and the displacement of people, all of which cause more human suffering⁷¹.

And that the ongoing conflict does make it harder for conflict victims, especially the internally displaced, to get the most help they need from disaster responders. Sometimes, the fighters on both sides attack the disaster responders with land and air strikes, which leads to more epidemic disasters like diseases because the IDP camps are too crowded.

The structural theory is relevant for this study because the breakdown of security which has caused the number of IDPs in North-eastern Nigeria to keep going up, is a result of bad governance and religious extremism, which the government has largely failed to stop.

The theory gives a deep understanding of how the factors that keep insurgency and IDPs going in Northern Nigeria are all connected.

2.3 Review of Empirical Studies

2.3.1 The Effects of Displacement on Human Security among Displaced Persons in Nigeria

Studies have documented various security challenges facing IDPs in Nigeria and other countries with similar security challenges. The Boko Haram conflict cost a lot of lives and broke up families. It also destroyed property and infrastructure and took away people's means of making a living. People had no choice but to move away from places they had lived all their lives by which had turned into centres of fear and insecurity⁷⁴. There are four important ways to look at how internal displacement is getting worse and how the people affected are suffering. First, on how the IDPs need help to save their lives, how they need to be protected from human rights violations and abuses, how hard it will be to find long-term solutions, and how there isn't a clear national plan for dealing with the problem.

While the structural theory has made it clear the factors that created the IDPs, the human security approach made it easier and straightforward to outline the various security challenges they face and the security issues posed by the continued existence of IDPs in our society. In a study conducted to evaluate the security issues pertaining to IDPs in the Northeast and government efforts to ameliorate the human security issues faced by the IDPs and the host communities, interesting findings were reported⁷³.

The results of this study show that the IDPs in the north-eastern part of Nigeria are having a hard time in their camps because it is hard for them to get back to the kind of standard of living, they had before the insurgency. This is saying a lot as many of them were not actually rich before their forced displacement. Their problems before going to camp include being tired and worn out from long trips to the camp and having mental scars from insurgent attacks, which can lead to post-traumatic stress disorder in some camp inmates. Some IDPs are also in a lot of pain because they were hurt trying to escape Boko Haram and get to the camp. Others, especially pregnant women, had to deal with forced labour and giving birth without help on the road, which in some cases killed them or their babies. The insurgents' mass displacement of people has also made it harder for IDPs to get to their farms, markets, and other sources of income. This has hurt their financial security even before they got to the camp, forcing them to live in misery there. This means that the IDPs are already facing health and financial insecurities.

The health insecurity continues even when the IDPs are admitted set up by the government and run in conjunction with international agencies such as the UNDP. Various studies reported that most of the medical infrastructure in the Northeast has been shut down because most of the doctors have left for safety reasons and there are not

enough drugs and medical supplies^{75,76}. Reports showed that endemic malaria, acute respiratory infections, and watery diarrhoea are major health problems for the IDPs. Malaria is responsible for 50% of all health problems in the camps⁷⁶. Also, the health crisis is made worse by problems with water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH).

Because IDPs were put in camps, the water and sanitation facilities and structures that were there were no longer enough to meet their basic needs. This lack of WASH makes it more likely that diseases, dehydration, and other illnesses will spread. There is no way to get rid of trash, and basic services like clean water and electricity are not available in enough quantity. Poor sanitation and hygiene made it easy to understand why diseases like cholera and others like it, happened so often. Most of the IDPs who live outside of camps stay with host families or in places of worship like churches, mosques, and old, broken-down buildings that cannot be lived in⁵⁹.

The displacement has also led to food insecurity among the IDPs. It was reported that most Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in North-Eastern Nigeria are having trouble in the camp because there is not enough food, there are too many people living there, health care isn't very good, and there isn't much safety. A lot of the displaced people in the camp are going hungry and starving, which they confirmed from studies carried out on them, that they don't have enough food to eat in the camp, they are always hungry because the government don't bring food for them in a long period of time⁵⁷.

This lack of food was reported in various studies. A scholar found that, with a global acute malnutrition (GAM) level of 27.3%, the IDPs in Nigeria are facing a lot of trouble getting enough food and staying healthy. This study found that severe acute malnutrition

was found in 12,871 children under the age of five. The issue was so severe that the Nigerian government had to officially declared a nutrition emergency in 2013⁷⁷.

The IDPs are also facing personal insecurity, meaning that they are fully exposed to the threat of violence and often fell victim to violent activities. Even though both the federal and state governments are trying to keep the IDP camps safe, especially from suicide bombers, they are still having trouble. In September 2015, for example, a suicide bomber from Boko Haram attacked the IDP camps in Madagali and Yola, killing 12 people. In Gwoza, bombs went off inside a tent at an IDP camp, killing the bomber and two IDPs. In 2016, a suicide bombing also happened at the Bakassi camp in Maiduguri, Borno State⁵⁷. There was also small-scale theft and violence in the camp, especially among the children. Also, during counterinsurgency operations in North-Eastern Nigeria, an Air Force fighter jet accidentally shot at aid workers, security officers, and displaced people, killing at least 100 people on the IDP ground.

Internally Displaced Women are vulnerable to sexual abuse and other forms of Gender-Based Violence (SGBV), which is another threat to their safety in the camp. Even though both men and women face SGBV in these camps, women are often the target of sexual violence by the security staff, camp management, and people from the nearby communities in the North-east. Some of the women who live in the IDP camp are lured out by outsiders and people who work in the camp with small amounts of money for sexual pleasures, and in some cases, they are even raped. It is bad enough that the women and girls who were forced to leave their homes because of Boko Haram are not getting the help they desperately need.

This is further supported by several other studies which found that the IDPs in the northeast were put in a dangerous situation that made them vulnerable to exploitation, violence against children and women, human trafficking, family separation, and detention without regard for the law. IDPs are also housed in the most inhumane way possible: in overcrowded camps with few overstretched infrastructure facilities and broken or insufficient non-food items (NFI) like blankets, buckets, mosquito nets, etc⁷⁸. It is even worse that the people who are supposed to protect women and girls are attacking and abusing them.

IDPs in North-eastern Nigeria are having a hard time because they do not have enough places to live. Most of the people who live in the Bakassi IDPs camp are from Monguno, Gwosa, and Baga. It is one of the biggest camps in Borno state. The camp is not a good place for people to live because it is an unfinished housing estate owned by the government of Borno State that was turned into camps for IDPs in 2015 without enough light, water, or good roads. The United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) also built 80 temporary housing units for the prisoners, each of which has their logo on it. Because there are not enough homes, many IDPs live in churches, mosques, town halls, abandoned and unfinished buildings, and other makeshift camps that are terribly unfit for housing the displaced people. Many IDPs had to make do with temporary housing because there wasn't enough of it. They did this by getting grass and sticks and putting them in a circle on the ground, then putting grass on top of the sticks. In many IDP camps, the health care system is a mess. People are mostly given mild painkillers, and serious cases are sent to big hospitals in town, where many camp residents don't have enough money to pay for treatment.

The National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) says that there are an alarming number of IDP children whose educations were cut short because they had to move. Some of these children are alone because their parents died or were separated during the conflict. In northeast Nigeria, the insurgents have destroyed schools, killed students and teachers, and taken them hostage. All of these things have made it harder for the education system to work. IDPs' education is also hurt by the fact that displaced people use school buildings as shelter. Also, the quality of education for displaced children in some camps and communities is poor and far below the standard because there isn't a good place to teach and learn and there aren't enough teaching materials. Most of the time, teaching is done by unqualified volunteers⁷⁹.

Another thing that worries people is that the security forces are making progress against the Boko Haram rebels, but the IDPs still don't want to go back to their destroyed communities because they don't feel safe and there isn't a clear plan for long-term solutions for them. On the other hand, people who were affected by the conflict and fled to neighbouring countries are now coming back to Nigeria, either on their own or because they have to. The needs of these people who are coming back are likely to be greater than the resources that are already there. So, it could make things worse for the people who are already IDPs and the refugees who came back and are now IDPs⁸⁰.

Even though there is a humanitarian crisis in Nigeria, at the initial stage, there seemed to be effective laws, institutions, or policies in place to deal with the problem of internal displacement. This had in turn has slowed down both national and international efforts to help people in need. It has made it hard to plan, carry out, coordinate, and evaluate humanitarian efforts. It has also changed how roles and responsibilities are given to

humanitarian actors. This has led to conflicts of interest among humanitarian actors and the duplication of duties in some areas, while other areas are not handled at all or not handled well. Even the draft National Policy on Internally Displaced Persons in Nigeria, which has not yet been put into place, has been discredited because it is not a law and is just an outline of policy goals that cannot be enforced⁸¹.

A scholar looked into two separate events: a bomb that went off by accident at Ikeja Cantonment and a fight between Yoruba and Hausa people at Idi-Araba, Mushin, a suburb of Lagos. These events, which happened in two different places in Lagos, Nigeria, were important and painful because they made thousands of people homeless, killed hundreds of people, destroyed lots of properties, including buildings, and forced the government to help the people who were hurt. The paper also says that forced or involuntary migration can cause people to move without them having to cross international borders⁸².

Another scholar also attempted to evaluate the help that the government and organizations gave to people who had been moved within their own country. This was done to find gaps in services and see what needs to be improved. The author looked at relevant published and unpublished documents and asked semi-structured questions in interviews to get data. There were interviews with 25 organisations, government and police departments, and 55 people who had moved within their own country. The results showed that none of the organisations, including government agencies, gave internally displaced people social services or helped them avoid getting HIV/AIDS. The main things that 17 organisations (68%) did for 43 (78.2%) of the internally displaced people were to give them food, clothes, and money, but this was done on an as-needed basis.

Only three organisations (12%) offered spiritual counselling and helped solve conflicts between groups as part of their services⁸³.

Another group of scholars studied the problems and ways that internally displaced teenagers in Jos metropolis dealt with them. The snowball sampling method was used to choose 200 people to interview. To get the information that was needed, a self-made tool was used. The results showed that teenagers who have moved within their own country have the most trouble in school and with their feelings. The emotional problems are marked by memories of scary things that happened and bad dreams. Most of the time, respondents don't want to think about their current situation, so they use repression as their main way to cope. Based on their gender, respondents had different problems and different ways to deal with them. On the other hand, they had similar problems and ways to deal with them based on their age and level of education. Based on what was found, it was decided that teenagers who had been moved within their own country should have access to other educational activities. Also, there should be enough and easy access to trauma counselling for displaced teens⁸⁴.

Another scholar did a study to find out what role differences between boys and girls played in how aggressive the internally displaced boys and girls were. 445 people between the ages of 10 and 15 from two communities in Nasarawa State, Nigeria, called Bassa and Igbirray took part. Researchers used a 19-item questionnaire to measure how aggressive children were. This was done to test the hypothesis that there would be no statistically significant difference between how aggressive internally displaced male children and their female counterparts behave. The differences were found using a 3-way between-groups ANOVA. The results show that there wasn't a big difference between

boys and girls in how aggressive they were among Nigerian children. $t=0.74$, $df=443$, $p=.46$. The results seem to show that armed conflict and its effects, such as internal displacement, pose a threat to the general well-being of children because they change the environment in which they grow up⁸⁵. This 'damaged' children are also a source of danger to the larger society because they may get out of the IDP camps and become hoodlums due to maladjustment.

The study of IDPs and insecurity in Nigeria also focus on review of literature. A study looked at the situation of people who had to move within Nigeria. The study uses an ethnographic method to gather information. A semi-structured interview was done with some of the survivors of the bomb attack on the UN building in Abuja who live in Lagos, with victims of the devastating floods that destroyed their homes and properties, and with the relatives of some of the youth corps members who were killed and who also live in Lagos. The study relies a lot on secondary sources of data that are reliable and authoritative, such as National dailies (Nigeria tabloids), journals, articles, and so on. This is a desk-based type of research. The main results of the study showed that the State apparatus (government) did not do enough to make sure that policies were better, more effective, and worked. Its size could threaten the country's ability to stay together as a whole and put a lot of people who moved within the country in danger. The study comes to the conclusion that crises of internal displacement are bad for "development" because of how big and complicated they are. This makes it harder for the country to reach goal 8 of the Millennium Development Goals, which says that people have the same rights to safety of lives and property as they do in other international agreements. People also have

the right to a healthy, creative life, a decent standard of living, freedom, dignity, self-respect, and the respect of others⁸⁶.

Another study also made attempt to determine the effect of displacement on economic security. The study focused on how people who were forced to move within Nigeria because of a crisis decided whether or not to invest in real estate. Samples of displaced people were taken from Ekiti, Ogun, Ondo, and Oyo states in the South-Western part of the country using a process called "snowballing," and the descriptive and inferential analysis of the data was done. The results show that 78.03% of respondents no longer think it's worth it to invest or reinvest in crisis zones because they are afraid of losing their money. The paper says, among other things, that all levels of government should work harder to stop the threat of crisis in the country. This might be possible if local communities worked together to make sure their areas were safe⁸⁷.

In addition to the economic insecurity caused by displacement and the plight of internally displaced people, researchers in Nigeria looked at the effects of terrorism on people in Nigeria from the point of view of the Boko Haram insurgency. Through scholarly interpretation and empirical evidence based on secondary sources, the paper argues that the Boko Haram insurgency has caused a terrible humanitarian situation, as shown by the deaths of people, violations of human rights, population displacement and refugee crisis, livelihood crisis, and lack of public safety. The author argues that this situation is bad news for Nigeria's national security in the long run. As a way to stop the crisis from getting worse, the paper suggests switching from anti-terrorism to counter-terrorism as a strategy⁸⁸.

Another scholar adopted used a mix of methods to get information about the experiences of people who had to move within their own country and were living in Bama and Gwoza Durumi in Abuja, Nigeria. Primary data was gathered through qualitative interviews, which gave an in-depth look at the situation on the ground from the interviewees' points of view. For this research, academic publications, research papers, and policy documents were also used as secondary sources of information. Based on the field research, it was decided that the IDPs in Abuja Area one Durunmi camps are not facing a lack of state policy, but rather an unresponsive state. This is a state that is not helping the IDPs because it wants them to go somewhere else. That is, "the politics of policy application" is a problem for the IDPs. The government doesn't care much or at all about this group of people and their problems. If anything is done at all to improve their terrible living conditions, it isn't nearly enough⁸⁹.

Similarly, another researcher looked at the status of displacement and the welfare of Bakassi settlers in Cross River State in the context of the 1980 UN policy on resettlement programs and what that meant for planning resettlement and for the success of a resettlement scheme. The study is based on the idea that the situation of Bakassi settlers is similar to losing status, becoming poor, losing ways to make a living, being stigmatized, treated unfairly, being treated badly, and having basic human rights violated. In light of these observations, it has been suggested, among other things, that strong education campaigns should be held among the new settlers and the nearby communities. Campaigns should focus on getting settlers and neighbouring communities to change their minds, be flexible, work together, be peaceful, and stick together. The study also says that the government should take a strategic, long-term approach to sustainable

development to help displaced people deal with problems like economic empowerment, job opportunities, infrastructure development, and making sure that settlers are fully involved in the decision-making, planning, and running of the resettlement⁹⁰.

The issue of IDP was also examined from the perspective of climate change, environmental security, and people moving around in Nigeria in 2015. It used a participatory method with primary data sources like focused group discussions (FGDs), questionnaires, and an oral interview guide. Because some of the issues being looked into were sensitive, most of the sampling was done on purpose. Two open-ended questionnaires were used to find out two different kinds of information about coastal flooding, environmental security, and people moving in the three states that were chosen for the study: Bayelsa, Delta, and Rivers. The results showed that the flooding in 2012 had bad effects on the region. There was evidence of people being moved out, getting poorer, food production going down, etc. The paper made some suggestions on how to make people less vulnerable to climate change⁹¹.

Another impact of displacement is the effect on the mental and physical health of IDPs. This was explored in a study which looked into the psychological and social problems that female IDPs who have been forced to move because of a disaster face in official camps in Lagos State. For the study, a descriptive survey research design was chosen. The 200 respondents were chosen with the help of a method called "purposive sampling." For the study, information was gathered using a well-structured questionnaire called "Psychosocial Challenges of Disaster-induced Internally Displaced Women Questionnaire" (PCDIDWQ). The results showed that family breakup is the biggest psychological and social problem for women who have moved within their own country

because of a disaster. It was also found that there were no big differences between respondents' psychosocial problems based on the type of marriage they were in or the number of children they had. Based on what the study found, it was suggested that professional counsellors be involved in giving services like trauma counselling, career counselling, and family counselling to women who had to move within their own country because of a disaster⁹².

In an article about the growing problem of internal population displacement in Nigeria since the start of the Fourth Republic, researchers, looked at the effect of violence on internal population displacement during the administrations of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo, Late Alhaji Musa Yar'Adua, and Dr. Goodluck Jonathan. It says that violence is the main cause of this terrible human tragedy, which has not only destroyed lives and properties but also posed a major threat to peace and security in the country. The paper says that the root causes of violence, which could be religious, inter-ethnic, political, or between communities, are a decade of bad governance, underdevelopment of areas where ethnic minorities live, mismanagement of identity conflicts, chronic abuse of power that leads to egregious violations of human rights, gross inequities in shaping and sharing power, national wealth, and so on. The study comes to the conclusion that there needs to be better management of different conflicts, fair distribution of resources, true federalism, good governance, and national security⁹³.

In a paper called "Between Refuge and Rights: Internally Displaced Persons and Inclusive Electoral Process in Nigeria" that some people were worried about letting IDPs vote. One of their worries was that abuse might happen, if not in 2015, then in the future. This is especially likely if there are not enough institutional checks. A second worry was

whether what was put in place was really for everyone, since it was only in three states and there are hundreds of IDPs all over the country. These things should have been thought about thoroughly, but things have to start somewhere. Not starting at all would have been a terrible injustice, considering that there were 561,999 IDPs in Borno State who could have been disenfranchised if nothing was done. If you also think about the fact that 544,75912 people were registered to vote in Borno State for the Presidential and National Assembly elections on March 28, you can see how big the problem could be. The challenge, however, is to keep building up the walls of inclusion by making sure that other IDPs and other groups that have been left out are given the chance to exercise their basic democratic rights⁹⁴.

The plight of the female IDPs is of major concern to researchers. This was demonstrated in a study that look at the problems that internally displaced women in Abuja, Nigeria had with their reproductive health. The study used questionnaires to get first-hand information from women over the age of (15-49). The study was done at the IDPs camp in New Kuchingoro. Self-administered structured questionnaires were used to get first-hand information about the reproductive health of women in an IDP camp in Abuja, Nigeria. In the study, women between the ages of 15 and 49 who lived in the study area were considered a source population, and 250 questionnaires were taken from this population to meet the study's sample size requirements.

Another issue in IDPs research is the displacement due to natural disasters. Scholars have talks about how natural disaster-induced displacement affect women IDP's mental health. The findings show that most of the sample population's respondents are between the ages of 15 and 24 (35.3%) and 25 and 35 (27%), respectively. It was suggested that the

government should provide the best health care possible. This includes access to reproductive health care services in the camps or the area, as well as prenatal care⁹⁵.

Being displaced has also been linked to depression among IDPs. A study looked at what causes depression in people who had to move because of violence after an election in Kaduna, North Western Nigeria. To choose the 258 adults IDPs, a cross-sectional systematic random sampling method was used. The Hopkins Symptom Checklist was used to figure out if someone was probably depressed, the Composite International Diagnostic Interview to figure out if someone was definitely depressed, and the Community Trauma Event Inventory to figure out if someone had been exposed to psycho-trauma. They used the social provision scale and the Harvard trauma questionnaire to figure out if someone had "symptomatic PTSD." Multiple logistic regression was used to find out what factors predict depression on their own. The conclusion was that IDPs living in the Hajj camp in Kaduna, in northern Nigeria, probably and definitely became depressed after the war. IDPs were more likely to be depressed if they were women, had been beaten, or had been diagnosed with PTSD at the same time. IDPs who were unemployed or retired were more likely to be depressed for sure⁹⁶.

A study analysed the plight of people displaced because Bakassi was given to another country (Cameroon). The study analysed the sources and trends of funds that came to the centre and suggested ways to keep the money coming in. Over the years, less and less money has been coming to the centre, and government funding has been unstable. The centre gets money from all kinds of private sources, such as endowments, NGOs, donations, gifts, and activities to raise money. The latter has become a mainstay of the

centre's budget mix. Through this integrated and creative approach, the centre has been able to offer its users better services⁹⁷.

Studies have also shown that internal displacement of people has a negative security impact on the whole society, not just the displaced. This is shown in a study that examined how the Boko Haram uprising affected humanitarian crises in Northern Nigeria. The study focused on Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa states. The findings highlighted how the growing activities of Boko Haram continue to have terrible effects on the people of the North East, Nigeria, and other countries nearby. This paper used a theoretical framework called "State Fragility" and a survey method that included questionnaires (the regression technique) and in-depth interviews (the index matrix and table technique) to look at three camps for people who were forced to leave their homes. The empirical results show that there is a significant relationship between Boko Haram insurgency and humanitarian crises when variables like impact on human casualties (IHC), food insecurity (FI), and internally displaced persons (IDPs) are held constant. However, there is no significant relationship when variables like loss of livelihood (LoL) and government response (GR) are held constant⁹⁸.

To stop the humanitarian crises and Boko Haram insurgency from becoming a bigger problem in the region, the Nigerian government should put more effort into reducing the number of people who die, lose their jobs, and don't have enough food. It should also put more effort into getting people who have been displaced back into society. Scholars looked at the inclusion, teachers, curriculum, and education policy in managing multicultural education programs for rehabilitating Boko Haram internally displaced persons in refugee camps of North Eastern Nigeria. They found, among other things, that

most of the children of Boko Haram internally displaced persons were not included in multicultural education programs, teachers were not provided for multicultural education programs, and there was no education policy for multicultural education programs. Some of the study's recommendations were that Federal, State, and local governments, NGOs, donors, and international agencies should include multicultural education programs in their plans to help Boko Haram refugees in refugee camps in North Eastern Nigeria get back on their feet⁹⁹.

Another scholar looked at the security situation in Northern Nigeria and how it affected people who had to leave their homes. From the beginning of the paper, it's clear that the lack of security in Nigeria today has made a lot of people there vulnerable to all kinds of exploitation, abuse, and neglect, and has left many of them without homes in the northern part of the country. The current number of IDP camps across the country shows that insecurity in the north is hurting the federal, state, and local governments as well as the communities that are hosting IDPs. As the paper suggests, there is a need for intelligence gathering and surveillance so that law enforcement can be proactive and be able to predict potential crimes with near-perfect accuracy rather than just reacting to them¹⁰⁰.

In a related study, two scholars compared how internal displacement is handled in Africa, with a focus on Nigeria and the nearby country of Cameroon. The study used a quantitative research design, collected data through a survey, and analysed the data using both simple percentages and content analyses. With much focus on (dis)similarities in managerial stakeholders and their number, challenges, and degree of success recorded by both countries, it is summed that no one country is more successful than the other in IDPs management, rather both countries have a lot to learn from each other, and there is an

urgent need to improve on the management of IDPs in both countries¹⁰¹. This is important because IDPs also affect the wider society.

2.3.2 Internally Displaced Persons and Human Security in Nigeria

Based on the Human security approach, it can be projected that the presence of internally displaced persons in a region would have implication for health, economic, political, personal and food security in that region. A study examined the implications of the displacement caused by the Boko Haram insurgency on the overall national security of Nigeria. This research takes an illustrative and inquisitive approach based on study and content analysis that draws on the past. The report details the human losses, human rights abuses, population displacement and refugee fiasco, livelihood crises, and public insecurity brought on by the Boko Haram insurgency, all of which bode ill for the future of Nigeria's national security. The research shows that counterterrorism efforts in northeast Nigeria have backfired, doing more harm than good, and that the terrorist conflict has not yet reached a stalemate. To better police its borders, enhance the capacity of its security forces, improve interagency cooperation, and increase cooperation in the sub-region, it is recommended that the Nigerian government refocus its efforts on a people-centric, community-based, and intelligence-driven, whole-of-government approach. The government should give people the tools they need to reach out to the insurgents and offer them peace and forgiveness. It is possible that adopting a more restorative and community-based approach to punishment will lead to long-term results¹⁰².

Out of all the dimensions of human security outlined in the human security approach, food, economic, and health security are the most focus researchers as studies shows that

displaced people are often removed from active economic activities which leaves the rest of the population shouldering the responsibility or suffering the effect of low food production. Most importantly, the displaced have to be fed out of the meagre resources available to the whole society. The term "food insecurity" refers to a lack of money and resources that prevents people from purchasing healthy, nutritious food. Food insecurity arises when people don't eat enough food to meet their nutritional needs, which includes satisfying the body's psychological needs for sustenance. A consistent poor diet is the result of a lack of means to buy and manufacture food. That's why an imbalance between food demand and supply is considered to be the cause of food insecurity. When everyone consistently lacks access to sufficient, high-quality food to maintain a healthy and active lifestyle, a state of food insecurity exists, as defined by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Affordability, safety, and efficiency in using food are the three pillars of food security⁸⁷.

A study was conducted to investigate how IDPs in northern Nigeria affect civilians' safety. This research, which uses both primary and secondary data, is grounded in the theories of forced migration and social inclusion. The research shows that the government's response to the crisis of IDPs in the country has been ad hoc, with no long-term plan in sight. The crisis of displaced people within the country also severely slows down the region's progress and development as economic activities have been largely grounded. The authors of this piece argue that local governments should be responsible for issues involving IDPs, and they propose setting up special offices for IDP representatives. Alternative approaches to dealing with the crisis of internally displaced

people in the region can be found in the increases of funds to enhance and protect human security among the citizens¹⁰³.

For the past twenty years, the international community has put a lot of thought and effort into issues related to food security. In fact, it was one of the big goals that the world's leaders agreed to work hard to reach by 2015, but now they have pushed it back to 2030. So, from the millennium development goals (MDGs) that world leaders set up in 2000 to their successor, the sustainable development goals (SDGs), the global focus has shifted from wanting to end extreme poverty and hunger to making sure there is "no poverty" and "zero hunger" by 2030.

However, it might be hard to reach these two good goals, which are part of the 17 goals that make up the SDGs, in places where there is a lot of conflict. Over time, the idea of national security has changed. So, from the realist school's state-centred view, which is based on the twin goals of regime survival and maintaining the territorial integrity of the state system, national security has grown and become more complex as it draws on deeper and broader ideas from other schools of thought and disciplines. So, national security can no longer be seen from the narrow, restrictive, militaristic, and strategic point of view that focuses on the absence of threats to government authority and the presence of domestic capacity to contain activities from centrifugal forces, whether they are internal subversive activities or external attempts to sabotage and attack the state¹⁰³.

The idea of national security has been updated, which has caused a paradigm shift in how it is defined today because it now has more quality and energy.

It has been said that national security goes beyond the traditional limits of statecentrism and includes both people and the environment in the context of sustainability¹⁰⁵. So, in

this way of thinking, national security can be seen as a multidimensional phenomenon whose main goal is to protect national values. This, in turn, includes all the actions the state takes to further its different policies about its overall security, whether they are symbolic, physical, or psychological. These national values could include the environment, economic security or security of the economy, the long-term health of the planet's ecosystem, and finding a way for the different classes in the state to get along with each other.

Human security is an important part of national security. Human security is, in fact, the most important part of national security. Human security puts the safety of the individual ahead of the safety of the state, since a state can't exist without its people. Human security is expected to "primarily focuses on protecting the whole worth of people against insecurities" by dealing with "circumstances that threaten the well-being and survival of the people"¹⁰⁶. So, human security focuses on "establishing essential needs such as food and water security, economic and political security for the general population as important ways to make state security more stable"¹⁰⁷. Since almost every state's constitution says that it will look out for the best interests of its citizens, their national security framework must include policy directions that focus on and reinforce issues that are good for human security.

So, the main goal of national security is to make sure that both the state and its people are safe by creating a peaceful environment. So, a peaceful environment is what helps people realize how well they are doing. In order for a place to be peaceful, people must feel safe from all kinds of threats, whether they are symbolic, physical, or mental. The reassurance must be based on the state's proven ability to provide a safe environment where people

can go about their daily lives without fear. One of the most important parts of human security is making sure that everyone has access to the things they need to live, which includes food. So, when a country doesn't have enough food or doesn't have enough food, it could lead to all kinds of insecurity¹⁰⁸.

Because food is so important to development, the world is working hard to make sure it is always available. Food security has become one of the most important goals of not only individual countries but also the whole world. At first, food security issues were only about food supply problems, like making sure there were enough basic foods and that prices were stable at both the national and international levels. Good nutrition and health were also taken into account. Since 1974, the idea of food security has gone through a number of changes. At first, it just meant that there were enough food supplies to keep up with a steady increase in consumption. Later, it became more about making sure that vulnerable people could get enough food to live an active, healthy life. Now, the issue of nutrition is an important part of food security, and this is called "food and nutrition security". So, food and nutrition security are thought to exist when all people always have physical, social, and economic access to food that is safe and eaten in enough quantity and quality to meet their dietary needs and food preferences and is supported by an environment with adequate sanitation, health services, and care, allowing for a healthy and active life.

Food security in a country depends on a number of things. Some of the most important factors are good agroecological conditions, access to land, good agricultural policies that keep public and private investment in the sector going, good and enough farm inputs, and a peaceful environment. If these things are missing in states, it may be impossible for

them to meet their food expectations. And if there isn't enough food, enough of the population could face a food crisis, which could cause social unrest and hurt national security. There is a lot of evidence that food shortages cause unrest and even revolutions, which hurt national security. There is evidence from the past that shows that higher food prices can lead to violent riots.

This connection was very clear during the global food crisis of 2007–2008, when record-high food prices caused riots in many countries around the world, no matter what kind of government was in place. Nigeria has a lot of food insecurity, which is made worse by long-lasting armed conflicts between different groups, especially the Boko Haram group and Fulani herders. By invading and robbing farming communities, these groups have killed many civilians and made the situation very dangerous. Insecurity in many of these farming communities has made it hard for farmers to keep growing crops in the best way possible. This has hurt productivity and caused market disruptions that have caused food prices to spike. Because of this, a peaceful environment is a must-have for productive farming, which leads to food security. On the other hand, not having enough food puts pressure on national security and always makes national security worse. So, a peaceful environment and long-term food security are both necessary for ensuring national security¹⁰⁹.

2.3.3 Coping Strategies Adopted by IDPs against Insecurity

Due to the various human security issues facing them, internally displaced people cannot survive without certain coping strategies. However, researchers are also concerned about how the copings strategies adopted by IDPs can alleviate human insecurity among them

without jeopardizing the security of the larger society. This led to the review of various coping strategies among IDPs and people affected by insecurity generally.

A researcher reported that there is a wide variety of coping mechanisms among the displaced people in the Northeast. Food rationing and meal skipping are two of their survival techniques for dealing with food scarcity. As a form of food rationing, many households will only eat once per day, opting instead to forego breakfast, lunch, and dinner. In many cases, adults will go without meals so that there will be enough food for kids. Some displaced people resort to begging in order to get food or money to buy it. In order to purchase the necessary condiments for making soup, IDPs will sell some of their raw foods. However, root flakes, especially the cassava flake "Garri" are consumed raw rather than cooked⁷⁴.

There is a severe lack of food in the prison camp, so many of the inmates must resort to scavenging from restaurants and wealthy residents, which poses serious health risks. While some IDPs cultivate a small garden in the camp's backyard to grow vegetables and other food condiments for family use, others hire motorcycles from neighbourhood resident owners to carry passengers in order to earn money for basic needs. Some inmates, especially juveniles, steal food from other inmates in order to eat, while many women turn to prostitution as a means of either being fed themselves or earning enough money to buy food for their families. There are some children who help support their families by working as sale boys and girls in local markets and commercial areas in exchange for small tokens. Since security has largely deteriorated in the camp, a joint inter-neighbourhood watch has been established to ward off criminals from outside the camp, while serious in-camp offenses are reported to the camp administrators by the security

outfit. Many internally displaced people (IDPs) avoid hospitals because of the high cost of drugs and instead rely heavily on local medications purchased from traditional herb sellers, which can cause health complications despite the effectiveness of the herbs in many cases⁷⁴.

In another study, researcher observed that internal displacement has always been a reality all over the world. The study provided a synthesis of information on the challenges of displacement and the coping mechanisms that have been developed by displaced women in a few of Nigeria's IDP camps. The study used a qualitative methodology and a descriptive survey to provide light on the fundamental issues surrounding forcible relocation. Female participants were included, and a focus group discussion (FGD) guide was used to gather data. A three-dimensional chart was used to describe the data, and this dataset is now widely available for additional study. According to the results, the most effective method of coping for women who have been uprooted from their homes is to seek out economic opportunities. It was suggested that the Nigerian government and humanitarian organizations working there should create a unified legislative and administrative framework for the management of internal displacement and displaced victims¹¹⁰.

In a study conducted in Philippines, the researcher attempted to provide an in-depth analysis and documentation of the living conditions of Marawi City's IDPs. These internally displaced persons (IDPs) have been living in an abandoned building on the outskirts of Iligan City, Lanao del Norte Province, Philippines, for over a year. The findings reveal a diversity of key issues, including access to clean water and power, medical care, and, most importantly, food. There was also evidence of effects on

children's education and, more significantly, the loss of parental income. There is a long line of people waiting for their "turn" to use the government's more permanent makeshift shelters. Ten different heads of households were interviewed for this study using key informant interviews (KII). In the face of inadequate government aid and a widespread sense of isolation, their stories reveal a number of coping mechanisms, the most obvious of which is an overreliance on social networks consisting of family and friends. Yet, the IDPs themselves acknowledged that the same aid was not sufficient. Cutting back on food intake and selling food relief packs aren't sustainable solutions to their poverty. This study illustrates how the coping strategy of IDPs can impact on the wider society because IDPs may turn out to be a drain on the society¹¹¹.

The theme of relying on others, cutting down on food intakes and engaging in petty trading or menial labour was also reported in a study conducted among IDPs in Uganda. The study reported that communities that have been uprooted adapt to their new reality by making do with what they still have. Those working in these settings have the difficulty of balancing the needs of the community with the needs of their own organization in a balanced and fair way. This paper presents the results of a survey administered to 112 people living in four camps for displaced Ugandans. The structural, social, and economic challenges that the respondents faced were the primary sources of worry. Food, health, and poverty were listed as the most common challenges, with many people believing that these problems originated with the camps itself and their organizational and material shortcomings. Assistance from others (such as neighbours, family, agencies, and community organizations), employment and income generation,

personal attributes (such as determination, ability to work hard), and social support were the four most often mentioned responses¹¹².

2.4 Conceptual Framework

Do Not Copy, Lead City University, Nigeria

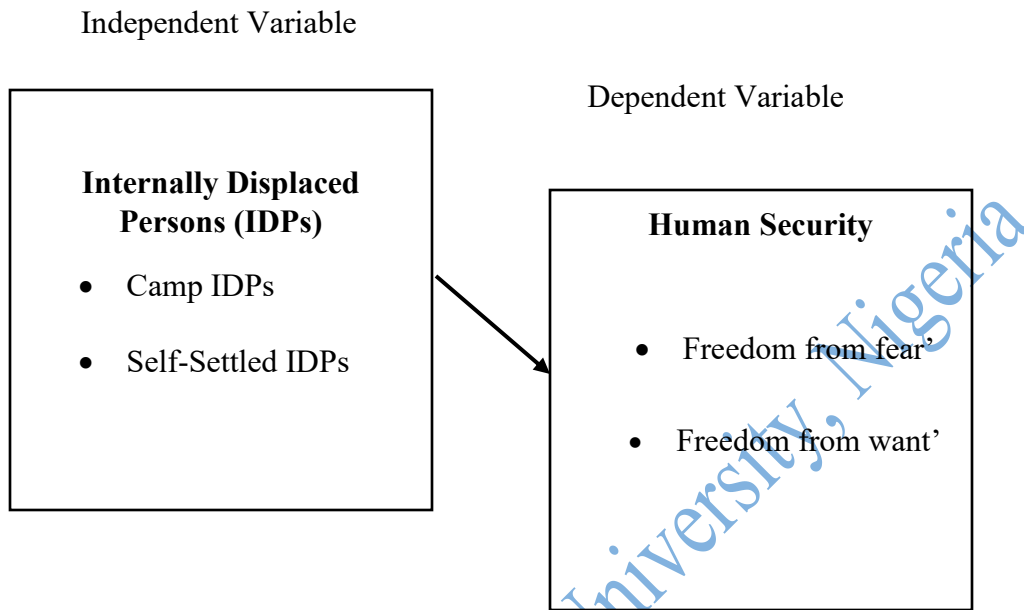


Figure 2.2: Conceptual Framework on the influence of IDPs on Human Security in Nigeria

Source: Researcher's Compilation, 2023

2.5 Summary of Gap in Literature Reviewed

The review of literature has shown that the subject of forced displacement has taken a global dimension. However, the management of internally displaced persons lies solely on the shoulders of the government of each country. All other agencies can only act in supporting capacity. As an internally displaced people often fare better than each other based on the quality of people in authority. It is universally agreed that internally displace persons are those who have escaped their hometowns for a more secure place within their own countries while refugees are those who have crossed the border to other

countries. Another issue that has been clarified is that the term ‘internally displaced person’ does not necessarily represent people affected by armed conflicts but it also extends to people displaced by natural disaster and developmental activities such as flood, fire outbreak, landslides etc. IDPs also include those who have been removed from the homes due to developmental projects such as railways, schools. No matter the catalyst for displacement, the central issue for IDPs is security.

The current approach is not to seek to defeat the insurgents with guns and bombs alone but must adopt a holistic view of human security. This entails the consideration of a set of related issues germane to human security and the wellbeing of the people instead of fighting to regain lost territories. This new approach is advocating a fight against insecurity that empowers the people along with eliminating the threat of harm and death. It is important not only for physical security but also food, health, political, personal and economic security.

The reviewed study shows that the major security facing the IDPs include food insecurity, health security, political security. Majority of the IDPs also reported economic insecurity as many of them have lost their source of livelihood as soon as they were uprooted from the ancestral homes. The human security issues affecting the IDPs have lots of implication for the larger society.

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Chapter Three

Methodology

This chapter discusses the approach or framework followed in this study. It is an outline of the process and procedure involved in the conduct of the study. The chapter discusses subheadings such as research design, study population or subjects, sampling, research instrument, method of data collection and procedure for data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

Explanatory research design is adopted for this study. The research design has to do with performing research in order to understand the phenomenon. It allows an in-depth investigation of the interaction between variables as they relate to a certain study issue¹. Thus, explanatory method does not require the collection of quantitative data from a huge number of respondents. It gets data through observations, interviews, focus groups, and review of existing literature. Due to the focus of this study on a continuous phenomenon, the explanatory technique is employed in order to acquire a comprehensive insight on the connection between internally displaced persons and human security in the North-east of Nigeria.

3.2 Population of the Study

The population of this study covers internally displaced persons in various government recognized camps in the North East of Nigeria.

The IDPs in IDP camps are selected because of abundance of documents that have recorded their plights and their interaction with the larger society. Also, by focusing on ‘Camp IDP’, the study gained insight into tangible issues that can be solved by a proper understanding of the outlying factors.

3.3 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The North East region of Nigeria is made up of six states, namely, Adamawa, Borno, Bauchi, Taraba, Gombe, and Yobe. All of these states have internally displaced people, either from their own states or from neighbouring state.

For this study, purposive sampling technique is used focusing on IDPs from Borno state. This state is purposively selected because it is one of the most affected by the Boko Haram and other insurgencies that have plagued Nigeria since the turn of the millennium.

3.4 Instrument for Data Collection

The data is collected from key informant interviews and existing literature based on the common parameter used in measuring human security. As such, the researcher developed a checklist focusing on literature relating to IDPs, food security, health security and personal security.

3.5 Validity of the Research Instrument

In order to ensure that the instruments of data collections were relevant to the study, the validity level of the research was tested to correspond with the theme of the research. In doing this, the researcher ensured that the interviews and most of the article studied and

analysed are within the scope of the study. All these were done to ensure that the content validity of these sources corresponds with the objectives of the research.

3.6 Reliability of the Research Instrument

Reliability in research has to do with the accuracy and precision of the measurement procedure of research. Reliability is therefore seen as the degree of consistency which allow the research instruments to be free from errors². The reliability of the research ensured that the interviews, reports, articles, journals and so on, gathered and studied were consistent with the theme and objectives of the research.

3.7 Method of Data Collection

There is no doubt that the quality of data is inextricably tied to the methods used for gathering the data. Thus, in generating relevant data for this study, interviews and various extant literature were consulted to a critical content analysis. The research work is based on primary and secondary sources.

3.8 Method of Data Analysis

For the analysis of data, the researcher deployed content analysis methodology. Furthermore, analysis of data is based on deductions from the issues raised in the study, the issues and prospects pertaining to the connection between the displacement of people in the North-east and human security issues in the region, primarily in the light of various data gathered from primary and secondary sources (periodicals documentaries, archives,

textbooks, journals, seminar paper, newspapers and magazines, internet printouts, government documents and other relevant documents) consulted.

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Chapter Four

Results and Discussion of Findings

This chapter provides a content analysis of data obtained from interviews and existing literature to answer the various research questions raised in this study. This is essential in achieving the objectives of the study bordering on the insecurity among IDPs in Nigeria and how IDPs can constitute security risks to the society at large. The questions to be answered are as follows;

1. What is the nature and dimensions of the human security issues facing the IDPs in the Northeast, Nigeria?
2. How has the IDP crisis affected human security in North-east Nigeria?
3. How has the response strategies of government and non-governmental agencies impacted the reduction of the effect of displacement?
4. What are the coping strategies of IDPs in the Northeast, Nigeria against the security issues they face?

4.1: Nature and Dimensions of the Human Security Issues Facing the IDPS in the Northeast, Nigeria?

About 3.3 million people in Nigeria are considered to be internally displaced, making up about 10% of the world's total of 33 million IDPs. This number is growing as a result of ongoing conflict caused by Boko Haram militants in the North East, Fulani herders/marauders in the North Central, and natural disasters and border adjustment concerns in other parts of the country. According to reports, the vast majority of Nigeria's IDPs are female and young. More than half of the people in the IDP camps are women and

children, according to most estimates. Under normal circumstance, female and children are seen as vulnerable people¹. By being stripped of the protective aura of their home communities and be made to live in makeshift camps, women and children are exposed to security issues.

From an ethical perspective, scholars have identified a vulnerable population as one that is comparably (or completely) unable to safeguard its own welfare, leaving it open to abuse. Economically disadvantaged people, racial and ethnic minorities, the uninsured, low-income children, the elderly, the homeless, people living with HIV (PLWH), and those with other chronic health conditions, such as mental illness, are all considered vulnerable populations².

Physical, psychological, and social vulnerabilities were identified as the three main types of at-risk populations³. Mothers and new-borns at high risk, the chronically ill and disabled, and those with HIV/AIDS are also at a heightened risk of physical fragility. People with major depression, schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, and attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, as well as those with a history of alcohol/substance abuse and suicidal tendencies, are more vulnerable from a psychological standpoint. People living in abusive homes, the homeless, refugees, and immigrants are all examples of socially vulnerable people. Being vulnerable mean that IDPs are not free from fear and want, two basic dimensions of human security. This means that internal displacement is a virtual guarantee of insecurity to the displaced even as it is to those who may not be directly affected by the violence that cause or led to the displacement.

This research examined secondary and tertiary sources of information to paint a picture of violence against IDP in North-east Nigeria. The nature of IDP camps often makes it

difficult to collect qualitative data with few researchers often able to make quantitative reports about what is happening in IDP camps. Despite this, the conservative data available indicates that IDPs are often prone to security challenges by the virtues of being displaced. In addition, they also constitute security risks to the society or community that host them. For instance, the review of literature revealed the following about the Teachers Village IDP Camps in Maiduguri;

In 2022, an online Newspaper reported that the Nigerian army has trained at least 40 security guards in an effort to improve security in internally displaced persons (IDP) camps within Maiduguri, Borno's capital. It was reported that guards were also trained on how to disarm adversaries during attacks and how to defend themselves using combinations of physical combat techniques. This is instructive in that the training was a response to a need; the need to eliminate insecurity. It is obvious that there have been incidences of violence among the IDP themselves. It is also obvious that there have been clashes between the IDP and the peoples in the communities that surround the IDP camps. This is shown in by the observation that the security training for guards would be helpful in cementing civil – military relationships with the host community while encouraging them to be actively involved in securing their own communities⁴.

In another newspaper report, it was revealed that 5,623 incidents involving child abuse and other sexual and gender-based violence occurred from January 2018 to July 2022 for Borno, in which the Teachers Village IDP camp belongs. The report shows the link between displacement and insecurity as it was found that out of the 640 people arrested for sexual and gender-based violence incidents in four years, were recorded, only 82 offenders have been charged across various courts located in the three States⁵.

IDPs do not have freedom from fear. One of the major security issues facing IDPs in Nigeria is sexual harassment. A study examined data from 4,868 internally displaced people in North-East Nigeria. The data showed that one in three of the IDPs had experienced a form of sexual violence while a fifth reported physical violence. IDPs in Nigeria like anywhere in the world, women and girls experienced Gender and Sexual-related Violence (GSV) and other forms of gender related violence. For instance, rape has been the experience of significant number of women and girls. Similarly, kidnapped women and girls were raped by abductors. Hence, kidnaped women and young girls are often used as a weapon of war and a form of attack on the enemy, and as way of conquest and degradation of the women or captured girls. Rape is also used as a way of punishing women and girls for transgressing social or moral codes. For example, those prohibiting adultery in public. Women and girls in IDP camps in Maiduguri Borno State may also be raped.

Thus, GSV can be directed against both women and girls. Studies have indicated that from January to December 2019, BAY had 1,666 incidences of GSV reported cases. Borno was reported to have the high cases of GSV being the epicentre of BHI⁶. Moreover, it is observed that the insurgency has tampered with peace and harmony of Nigeria as a nation and particularly Maiduguri Northeast Nigeria. The victims of GSV includes those who live to tell the story live with pains and memories that may never make them remain the same again.

A study conducted in IDP camps in Maiduguri also found that female IDPs are ready victims of sexual violence-related pregnancies. However, this often goes unreported by the victims making interventions nearly impossible. The researchers had to review clinic

records of the victims. Forty-seven women with SVRP were identified by the health care providers using a snowball technique to reach as many of the women with SVRP as possible⁷. In a related study, the nature and form of sexual violence against women was clearly enumerated by the victims themselves.

In a qualitative study, the researchers reported that sexual exploitation goes on daily in camps as displaced persons have to be married or attached sexually to camp officials in order to get the best supply of aids. To corroborate this, a woman from the Borno IDP camp, stated in an interview that she fled from her home after members of the dreaded terrorist group, Boko Haram killed her husband. She described her experience thus; “shortly after my arrival on camp, a soldier came to ask me to marry him. He was bringing food and clothes for me. After a lot of pressure from him, I allowed him to have sex with me. Two months later he just stopped coming. Then I realized I was pregnant. I feel so angry with him for deceiving me. When he was pretending to woo me, he used to provide for me, but as soon as I agreed and we began having sex, his behaviour changed towards me”. This pattern of enticing vulnerable women with basic needs seems common.

Another respondent, a woman said a soldier showed interest in her by bringing food items and clothes for her: “he is one of the popular soldiers here. I accepted him because I needed help to take care of my children. Feeding in the camp is only once a day so you have to accept any help that comes. We started having sex in my camp tent at night. Five months later when I realised that I was pregnant and told him, he stopped coming to me”.

Similarly, a young girl narrated her ordeal with a member of the Civilian Joint Task Force in the camp:

“Ahmed was one of the camp officials. He promised to help and marry me. He usually takes me out in his car. When I told him I was pregnant, he asked me to abort the pregnancy. I refused and he said if I would not abort the pregnancy, we should separate. I reported him to the Army officers but nothing was done to him”.

These reports show the complexity of the violence that IDPs suffer. The sexual acts could be deemed consensual which makes it difficult to lay a charge of rape against the men. However, what is obvious is that the women were exploited based on their being helpless IDPs. As soon as there is a need for greater responsibility, all the men absconded meaning that they were only interested in having sex with the women. The women were seen basically as sexual objects to gratify the sexual needs of the ‘predators’. It is possible to argue that, were they not made helpless by being displaced, the women would have had the agency to make better choices.

Analysis of the perpetrators of sexual violence against the women IDP camps have been identified to include members of the police and armed forces, intimate partners, and other relatives. Most women also suffer sexual and physical violence from insurgents such as Boko Haram insurgents. Overall, a third of women who experienced sexual violence and almost half those who reported physical violence sought care⁸. Another link between IDPs and insecurity can be seen in the perpetrators of sexual violence against female IDPs. Most of these perpetrators are people who have gained authority over their existence due to their position in and around the IDP camps. It is simple to deduce that insecurity in Nigerian IDP camps is a serious issue that affects the living conditions and well-being of internally displaced persons. The media coverage of gender-based violence against women in IDP camps in Nigeria is inadequate. Newspaper reports do not expose

the implications of the crimes to attract public condemnation and application of the law for its control.

As IDPs in Nigeria are not free from fear, they are also not free from want. Available qualitative and quantitative data suggests that IDPs are often deprived of basic needs. There is a report that the provision of latrine facilities in IDP camps in Borno State is inadequate and the facilities are not dislodged frequently enough, which violates UNHCR and SPHERE standards. Poor sanitation can lead to illnesses such as diarrhoea, STDs, and fever⁹. In the same vein, it was also found that the quality of water sources in IDP camps is poor, and the water often contains physical, biological, and chemical contaminants harmful to health. Water provision is inadequate for the IDPs, and the distance travelled and time spent at a fetching point are not conforming to UNHCR and SPHERE standards¹⁰.

In addition, malnutrition and food insecurity are major challenges for small children living in IDP camps. Poor diet is a key driver of malnutrition in young children who depend on their household's socioeconomic standing and access to food, as well as on the family's caring and feeding practices⁶. The IDPs interviewed complained that they were not allowed to go out of camp in spite of shortages in the supply of food and other items. They stated that they had to beg camp officials to intervene with the guards before a pass can be given. Hence, it was very easy for camp official to take advantage of the Internally Displaced Persons. One of the informants had this to say: they are not allowed to go out to find work or get extra food. Tickets are sometimes distributed at midnight. If the IDPs do not get ticket, they will not get food. A study also substantiated this, that the IDP officials usually distribute the tickets to their families and girlfriends first before others¹¹.

This shows that there is no security of basic human need in the IDP camps as inmates do not have access to basic facilities. Indeed, there are some IDP camps that are not recognized by the government, hence they do not receive any help.

The government recognized or 'official' IDP camps are not faring better either. Infectious diseases such as measles and urinary schistosomiasis are prevalent in IDP camps due to poor sanitation, inadequate healthcare, and inadequate vaccination coverage. Urinary schistosomiasis is a parasitic disease caused by *Schistosoma haematobium* and is usually associated with lesions in the genitourinary tracts of affected people^{11,12},

They are exposed to various physical and mental harms. Despite the presence of security agents, IDP camps are among the most insecure human habitat in the world. A study of three IDP camps in north-east Nigeria show that the elderly, widows, single and even married women in IDP camps face challenges such as lack of freedom, financial insecurity, Lack of adequate care (LAC); and family dis-integration. Lack of adequate care was mostly accounted for by respondents. This is due to their unmet care expectation. It was reported that they lack good food, good shelter, proper clothing etc. all of which were not adequately provided by government and non-governmental agencies. Averagely, 20 of the elderly respondents representing 51.7 percent mostly reported this problem across the sampled camps, followed by 14 widowed (36.4 percent) and 14 married women (36 percent), while 10 single girls (26.1 percent) had the least responses (Figure 4.1). This suggests that the government and the management agencies seemingly need to improve the provision of healthcare, food, clothing, and shelter for IDPs in the selected camps. The lack of freedom was also observed as a major problem observed by IDPs about the management of IDP camps. This was prominent among the single respondents

in Camps 1 and 2 respectively. 11 single respondents averagely representing 28.2 percent in Camps 1 and 2 stressed lack of freedom as a major concern. This was followed by 3 widows and 3 elderly women with the equal percentage¹³.

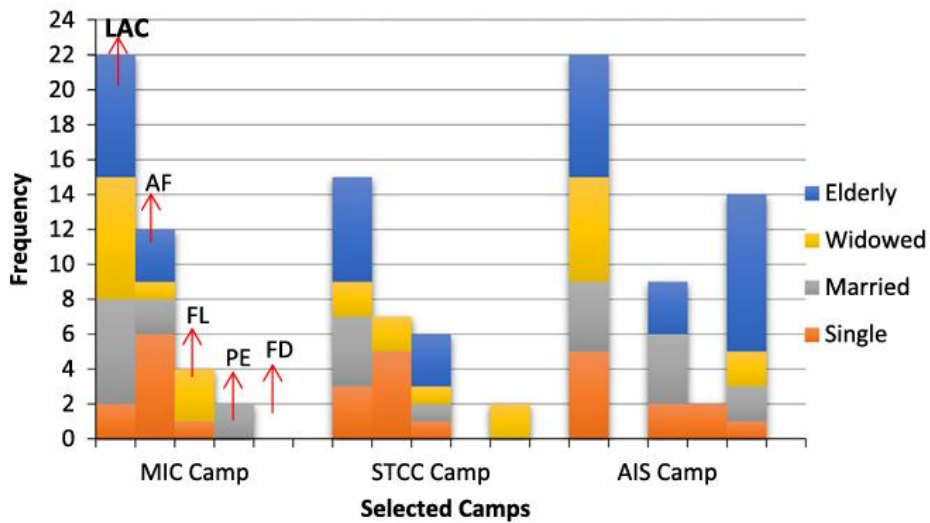


Figure 4.1: Challenges Facing Vulnerable IDPs in Yola and Abuja IDP Camps

Food insecurity and inadequate health care supply are two additional difficulties caused by the rising number of women and children caught in the cycle of violence. Few studies have delved into the food insecurity and health issues experienced by the vulnerable population, while many have focused on the general circumstances IDPs in the country experience. This conceptual paper sets out to investigate the issues of food insecurity and poor health experienced by marginalised groups, with an emphasis on women and children¹⁴.

4.2 Effect of IDP Crisis on Human Security in North-east Nigeria.

The IDP camp as it is constituted in Nigeria is a breeding place for insecurity. This is made manifest by the socio-cultural framework in which many of the IDPs, particularly

in the Northern, parts of the country exist. In the camp, there are able bodied men who are full of energy often have nothing to do but while away time. This is often a difficult task for people who have been culturally conditioned to be bread winners for their families and good example of industrious alpha males. These idle males are often a security threat to the IDP camp inmates and the neighbouring communities. Several clashes have been reported within IDP camps and between inmates of IDP camps and neighbouring communities. However, this is not only caused by the criminal activities of bored and frustrated displaced men. The IDP crisis in North-east Nigeria has significantly undermined various components of human security in the region. The displacement of people and subsequent packing them into camps have created threats to physical, health, community and political security in the affected region.

IDPs face heightened risks to their physical security due to the volatile and unstable environment in which they find themselves. They are exposed to the threat of violence, including attacks from extremist groups, communal clashes, and criminal activities. The lack of adequate protection measures and the overcrowded conditions in camps further exacerbate these security risks. The IDP camps are not as secure as government would want people to believe. In addition, many of the facilities are makeshift meaning that they are often not adequate protection against harsh weather condition, animal attacks and pest infestation. In term of physical security, IDPs are at the mercy of fellow human beings as well as animals and natural elements.

IDPs also contribute to food insecurity. Displaced populations often struggle to access sufficient and nutritious food. Limited resources, disrupted agricultural activities, and restricted movement due to conflict impede their ability to produce or purchase food. As

a result, people who are hitherto producers are now turned to consumers due to displacements. The reduction in the number of active farmers and increase in the number of people who need food constitutes food insecurity because both the IDPs and the general population will suffer from having to share the little food available.

Evidence from secondary data available shows that most IDP camps have limited access to sanitation requirements; hence, some IDPs shared the resources of neighbouring communities, which posed some challenges to both groups. For instance, in IDP locations with no access to direct water sources, they sometimes travelled far distances to get water from neighbouring non-IDP communities. Thus, the IDPs were then often faced with long waiting times because they had to wait for the local community residents to collect water before they could. Similarly, most camps had either poorly organised toilets or none at all, so IDPs sometimes shared toilets with neighbouring communities or defecated in nearby outdoor bushes, in the process contaminating the shared surrounding environments and affecting neighbouring communities. Such negative adaptive actions cause environmental pollution and consequently increase the risk of infectious diseases, such as contamination of water, which could heighten the risk of diarrhoea diseases¹⁸.

In camps with toilets, the share number of users often turn them from convenience to health risks. IDPs often make effort to ensure sanitation, but it is often not enough. For instance, it was reported that the women in Gurku IDP camp, Nassarawa state often take care of the toilets and make sure that the children washed their hands after using the toilets. So, the women were mostly in charge of keeping the camps clean and sanitary. In another camp; Mullum IDP camp in Taraba state, sections of the camps were encouraged to dig their own pit toilets for human waste and do less defecating outside, but this was

not always done in a safe way. For example, pit toilets were often built inside the camp and left open, which contributed to air pollution. Also, non-human solid waste was thrown away badly. It was either piled up outside, burned in the open air, or left on the ground for rain to wash it away. Disease-carrying insects like mosquitoes and the high number of recorded vector-borne diseases are likely linked to the way waste was handled.

As reported by some IDPs, there dedicated waste dumps, but most of the time, IDPs simply throw their refuse in the drain, and when it rains, it piles up, and sometimes they just throw it away anywhere. This unsanitary camp condition does not inconvenient only the IDPs, it also affect their neighbours who are equally exposed to various pathogens created by improper waste management practices in the IDP camp. So, IDPs can be source of health insecurity for themselves and other communities that surround their camps. In addition to this, IDPs also contribute to insecurity in outside their camps through the struggle for sustenance.

The social fabric of communities hosting IDPs is often strained due to competition over scarce resources and the potential for social tensions. This can lead to the breakdown of social cohesion, discrimination, and marginalization. IDPs may face challenges in accessing justice, protection, and participation in decision-making processes, further undermining their community security. IDPs are often at odds with the people who are hosting them because they are seen as taking too much of the community's resources, like water, which is not always enough for everyone, and because they of their unsanitary behaviour brought about mostly by lack of resources. When these different needs come into conflict, it creates a "us vs. them" situation where both sides, when pushed to the limit, start to see each other as enemies. It is clear that many IDP camps in Nigeria don't

have enough supplies. Because of this, it is only normal for the IDPs to look for food outside of the camps. But when this search gets in the way of the rights of the community, the safety of everyone is at risk¹⁸.

4.3 Efforts of Government and Non-Governmental Agencies in Reducing the Impact of Displacement?

It is common to see human rights advocates and IDPs themselves protesting about the poor condition of IDP camps and the strains of displacement. However, evidence suggests that it could have been worse without various intervention efforts from government and nongovernmental organisations. Various agencies have put a lot of work into mitigating the impact of displacement on the displaced as well as other people, especially those hosting the displaced people. On the government side, one of the foremost agencies is the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA)¹⁹. The agency and others like it are responsible for ensuring that the plights of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), including hunger, rape, insecurity, and death which have assumed a frightening dimension in North-eastern Nigeria are ameliorated.

Researchers have assessed the impact of NEMA's response strategies on the managing issues to the IDP situation. The study found that IDPs are facing lots of challenges in the camps with weak coping strategies while the intervention of NEMA through the provision of relief materials, rehabilitation and resettlement programs, and linking of the displaced with family members have reduced the plights of the IDPs. However, the Agency currently has the minimal operational capacity to ameliorate the plights of the

IDPs due to the protracted nature of the insurgency, legal restriction on the operational mandates of NEMA, corruption and limited funding of the agency¹⁶.

Other local and international organisations also played a role in the management of the impact of displacement. Largely irked by the precarious conditions of the Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), prominent international humanitarian bodies took interest in complementing the efforts of the Federal and State Government in ameliorating the sufferings of the victims of the insurgency. As a corollary to this, the United Nations Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF), United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR), Victims Support Fund, Medecins Sans Frontier (Doctors without Borders), Royal Norwegian Government, among others intervened by providing necessary supports. These organisations worked closely with National Emergency Response Agencies (NEMA) and the State Emergency Management Agency (SEMA)¹⁹.

One of the standout organisations is the UNICEF. One far reaching role of UNICEF in Borno State in the wake of the Boko Haram crisis was the training of teachers on pedagogy and psychosocial support. The provision of Psycho Social Support (PSS) in the education response is within UNICEF's mandate, 3rd core commitment for children in emergencies (Education) and in the UNHCR Education Strategy (2012-2016)²⁰. For the purpose of inculcating teachers with the requisite skills in assisting children in Borno State to erase their traumatic experience, UNICEF began the training of 492 teachers in IDP camps in Maiduguri and Biu in batches. This training was considered essential not only for promoting healing and resilience building among students and teachers but also for activating processes of peace building and social cohesion promotion through education.

To mitigate the impact of displacement on the society, UNICEF launched a vast teacher training programme aiming at building the capacity of the education sector to effectively provide Psycho Social Support in the classroom of crisis affected areas. The basic assumption of the UNICEF for conducting the PSS was to give teachers confidence and psychological frame of mind to face their work in the face an unpredictable conflict. Another effort of the UNICEF to develop human capital and mitigate disaster was the enrolment drive/back to school campaign conducted in eleven Local Government Areas in Borno state by the UNICEF. The Agency's effort was felt in MMC, Jere, Kaga, Konduga, Mafa, Magumeri, Biu, Hawul, Bayo and Shani in addition to 16 camps. This covered 429 schools which were made up of 324 primary schools and 105 Junior Secondary Schools. Following this campaign, a total of 94, 297 pupils and/or students were enrolled which was a commendable and remarkable feat. The breakdown shows that 50, 280 boys and 44,017 girls got admitted into primary one and JSS one for 2015/2016 session²¹.

Another important effort by the government is the creation of a policy on internally displaced persons. This policy was developed to prevent security breach from improper handling of matters pertaining to IDPs. It is designed to foster a proactive and responsive approach to ensure the right to a life of dignity for all internally displaced persons. It has the vision of "an equitable and stable Nigerian society that is proactive and responsive to emergency situations that could lead to internal displacement, where the right to a life of dignity is guaranteed for all internally displaced persons and where adequate measures and durable solutions exist to prevent and mitigate the impact of internal displacement on vulnerable populations"²².

In places where the situations have led to displacement of persons already, the policy looks forward to the protection and assistance of IDPs through provision of relief materials, deployment of the National Emergency Management Agency, institute mechanisms for coordinated management and administration of IDP camps, give special protection and assistance to women, children, the elderly and those with disability, activation of humanitarian agencies to intervene, etc. Efforts would be made towards the rehabilitation of the IDPs through providing post-traumatic disorder counselling services, reconstruction of damaged facilities and restoration of social amenities, restoring economic livelihood, rehabilitation of environment, provision of peace building and conflict resolution services and re-issuance of lost documents. Efforts would also be made towards their return, or relocation or local integration of the internally displaced persons.

These shows the concerted effort of both the government at all levels and other nongovernmental agencies to mitigate the impact of displacement on IDPs and the larger society has centred on provision of relief, education and support as well as policy development. However, the effectiveness of these efforts is left for the judgement of critics and stakeholders alike.

4.4 Coping Strategies of IDPs in the Northeast, Nigeria

Faced with the most intimidating challenges of their lives and with no or little hope in sight, it is natural for IDPs to develop certain coping strategies which can help them to overcome the mental and emotional strain of the camp environment. These coping strategies are well detailed in various documents examined and interviews conducted.

Studies have shown that, in addition to experience of mental health problems, vulnerabilities and profound psychological symptoms for some displaced persons, displacement constituted a complex life-changing process for all¹⁵. High-risk coping strategies such as ‘seeking support by begging’ and ‘transactional sex for exchange of need were predominantly adopted by female participants. According to the interviewees, some of them that are females have to sleep with the officials in the camps (transactional sex) in order to get food and some necessities, while their male counterparts have to go begging and some goes outside the camp to farm, or do some other menial jobs just to keep their bodies and souls together (some females do this too). Some participants demonstrated resilience by engaging in religious behavioural coping, which they considered necessary to mitigate their past traumatic memories¹⁶.

In some camps, the IDPs had set up a health support team to manage medical-related issues. Sick people were generally taken to see a medical doctor, often at distant facilities, who would prescribe some medications. These health services were in most locations that often required direct financial payments since no insurance or subsidy schemes were available to the IDPs. In such situations, the IDPs often contributed to supporting each other. But when out-of-pocket expenditure exceeded their budgets, they resorted to alternative treatments like traditional remedies, including herbs, and obtaining medicines from street vendors. The use of herbs and medicines from street vendors was reported to be sometimes ineffective, and as a result, the conditions the IDPs experienced were often not well adequately treated. Overall, the lack of finances influenced healthcare access and prioritization as described by an interviewee, that they do not have the financial capabilities to even treat malaria and some die in the camp due to this, especially children.

The IDPs have also developed certain coping strategies to mitigate the lack of food and healthcare financial shortage. Some IDP leaders advised their camp residents to find means of generating some income, for instance, by farming and selling firewood. When food was provided to the IDP community from external support groups, three approaches were commonly used to distribute the resources: quantity of the food supplied, number of households (shelters), and family size (number of people in one household). In some camps, specific food rations were used to ensure fair distribution. Pre-collated information about each household, including household sizes and members, was often used to guide the process.

However, the use of food portion sizes and household information were more common in formal camps where food supplies were provided by the government or supporting humanitarian organisations that often used a standard supply and management protocol. Still, the supplies were often insufficient for the IDP needs, contributing to under nutrition, malnutrition and weakened immunity, which is needed to fight diseases. In addition, due to the shortage and duration between food supplies, some IDPs have resorted to begging for alms to meet their daily needs as mentioned earlier. The IDPs in Bakassi camp, Maiduguri Borno state reported that camp officials often short-change them on the food supplied by government and non-governmental agencies.

It was reported that, while the food items were supposed to be delivered every twenty days, officials often stretch the delivery to 30 days in order to corner some of the supplied items. This means that the food that was supposed to last 20 days must be stretched to reach 30 days. This is often difficult for households with large families especially when

the children are young. Such families often have to resort to begging their neighbours for food and when necessary, they go out of the camp to beg the general public.

Another coping strategy used is the attempt to maintain some sort of familiar structure in the IDP camps. For instance, it was found that IDPs prefer to structure their internal leadership structure in line with their pre-existing practices. An example of such practice was using local regions of origin before displacement, Local Government Areas (LGA), as a criterion for leadership selection. LGA represents the administrative division of states in the country and is a national administrative management protocol. Hence, the IDPs adopted the LGA selection criteria in nominating their camp leaders and representatives.

Addressing the psychological and emotional well-being of IDPs is crucial for their overall resilience. Psychosocial support programs, including counselling, group therapy, and community-based activities, help individuals cope with trauma, manage stress, and rebuild their lives. Such interventions contribute to the mental health and emotional well-being of IDPs. Communal living and sharing were also common among the IDPs before displacement and camp settlements. Cultural practices and traditions play a significant role in the coping mechanisms of IDPs. These practices provide a sense of identity, continuity, and community cohesion. Rituals, ceremonies, and storytelling offer a means to express and process their experiences, transmit cultural heritage, and foster a collective sense of hope and resilience¹⁷.

Maintaining and strengthening social support networks is a vital coping strategy for IDPs. Communities, families, and friends offer emotional support, practical assistance, and a sense of belonging. Solidarity among IDPs creates a support system that helps individuals

cope with trauma, share experiences, and find solace in their shared struggles. The most common personal and collective assistance required was often related to food and healthcare, especially medication payment. To avoid feelings of isolation, new proactive communal relationships were developed to support each other. For instance, individuals close to someone with undisclosed personal challenges informed the leadership committee about those challenges on their behalf, and the IDP leaders, in turn, intervened and provided support within their capacity. Such actions exhibited positive social support, which helped improve IDP's mental health by reducing the factors that increase anxiety and depression.

Another coping strategy among the IDP is the adaptive livelihood strategies. Displaced individuals often face economic challenges and limited job opportunities. To address this, IDPs employ adaptive livelihood strategies, such as engaging in small-scale entrepreneurship, agricultural activities, and informal sector work. These strategies enable them to generate income, improve their economic situation, and enhance their self-reliance.

Despite the challenging circumstances, IDPs recognise the importance of education and skills development for their future and that of their children. Many IDPs prioritise accessing educational opportunities, including informal learning initiatives and vocational training programs. By acquiring knowledge and skills, they enhance their employability prospects and long-term resilience.

The coping strategies employed by internally displaced persons (IDPs) in North-east Nigeria reflect their remarkable resilience in the face of immense challenges. Through social support networks, adaptive livelihood strategies, education and skills development,

cultural practices, and access to psychological and emotional support, IDPs demonstrate their ability to overcome adversity and rebuild their lives. Understanding and acknowledging these coping mechanisms is vital for designing effective interventions that promote the well-being and long-term stability of IDPs in the region.

4.5 Discussion of Findings

The analysis of the qualitative data available has led to several findings in line with the objectives and research questions of the study. The first question is to understand the dimension of human security issues related to the IDP crisis in Nigeria. It has been shown that the security issues encompass the presence of fear and want among the IDPs. The lack of freedom from fear and wants which constitute human security is more acute among female and children. Overall, the insecurity issues associated with displacement include physical insecurity of people, health insecurity, food insecurity, and environmental insecurity.

The activities of IDPs often poses harms to them and their neighbours. Female are prone to physical and sexual exploitation, children are also abused. The unsanitary nature and overcrowding in the camps also constitute environmental pollution and contribute to disease outbreaks. In addition, IDP contribute to food insecurity because they are unable to contributing to food production which was the initial occupation of most of them. In addition, to fulfil their basic needs, IDPs often have to encroach on the right of others,

especially the host communities. Issues such as sharing of water resources, basic amenities and other essential things can cause clash between IDPs and the indigenes. In addition to this, some male IDPs often engage in criminal and disruptive activities. This may be out of boredom, frustration or simply the need to be noticed. This is not always appreciated by the communities who are victims of these activities.

It was also that the intervention of both governmental and nongovernmental organisation in mitigating the impact of displacement on security in the North-east include making policies, providing humanitarian support, improving access to education and capacity development for key stakeholders such as teachers, security experts, counsellors and others who can alleviate the sufferings of IDPs.

On the question which borders on the coping strategies of the displaced persons, it was found that majority of the IDPs have relied on several strategies such as sticking to their traditions, forming communities to provide physical and emotional support, engaged in trading, skills acquisition and participating in group activities. Most importantly, IDPs have made attempt to replicate governance and administrative structures they had in their hometowns and villages in the camps to maintain some form of order and familiarity.

Internally displaced persons have however, resulted into negative strategies such as begging for alms, engaging in transactional sex and outright prostitutions in order to make ends meet. Some have also engaged in these activities to keep themselves occupied and overcome the mental and emotional emptiness they feel due to the loss or forced separation from their husbands due to the displacement.

All of these findings are consistent with what various researchers have reported about Nigeria and other countries in Africa and around the world.

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Chapter Five

Conclusion

5.1 Summary of Findings

The findings of this study can be summarized as follows;

1. The internally displaced persons in the North-east of Nigeria are exposed to various human security issues such as physical violence including sexual related violence, hunger and emotional torture.
2. The internally displaced persons are sources of security breach both for the camp inmates and people in the community surrounding the camps. In addition, the IDP camps also attract various forms of violence from insurgents and criminals.
3. Government and nongovernmental organisations often play significant roles in softening the impact of displacement on both the displaced and the society in general.
4. The internally displaced persons in the north-east of Nigeria often adopted various strategies to cope with the strains of displacement. These strategies include, forming groups, maintaining familiar structures. Some also adopted negative coping strategies such as transactional sex and begging.

5.2 Conclusion

The crisis of internally displaced persons is a big challenge in Nigeria's effort at enhancing human security in the north-east region. It is evident that the crisis of internally displaced persons threatens every sphere of human security and if security is

not assured, a lot of challenges which affects the people will arise. Hence for the Nigerian state to fully attain high level of human security in the region, the all concerned stakeholders must take into recognition the needs of internally displaced persons as they have a great role to play in the development of the region and the nation at large. Perhaps the best way to deal with the problem of internally displaced persons is to ensure that there are no further displacements, while all those who are currently displaced are resettled back to their natural homes. There is an emerging understanding that states will not be secured and cannot be secured until the people feel secured as well.

5.3 Recommendations

In line with the findings of this study the following recommendations are considered relevant on the use of internal displacement and human security in Nigeria.

1. It is important that state and federal governments in Nigeria strengthen conflict resolution mechanisms. Government should invest in comprehensive conflict resolution mechanisms at the community, state, and national levels. They should also promote dialogue, mediation, and reconciliation to address the root causes of conflicts that lead to displacement.
2. Improved early warning systems should also be established. It is important to enhance early warning systems for potential conflicts and displacement. This can be achieved through the integration of local community networks, technology, and information sharing platforms to detect and respond to early signs of tension or violence.
3. Government and other stakeholders should strengthen humanitarian assistance. It is important to secure increase funding for organizations and agencies such as NEMA

working on internal displacement in Nigeria. Government should also support the provision of emergency shelter, food, healthcare, and psychosocial support to affected populations. This will require collaboration between the government, NGOs, and international partners in order to achieve an effective response. Other strategies that can help the IDPs to cope more effectively include the development of resilience and livelihood programs. This can be achieved by implementing long-term programs to enhance the resilience and livelihood opportunities of displaced populations. It is also important to provide vocational training, access to education, and economic empowerment initiatives to help individuals rebuild their lives and reduce dependency on humanitarian aid.

4. There is also the need to enhance security measures. Government should work to improve existing security infrastructure and personnel in the north east and other regions prone to displacement. Increase the presence of law enforcement agencies, particularly in areas affected by insurgency, banditry, or communal clashes, to protect vulnerable populations and prevent further displacement.

5.4 Contribution to Knowledge

Internally displaced persons are residents of their country and they deserve to live and enjoy all the rights that citizens enjoy. They are entitled to protection and security like any other citizen. But, on the contrary, IDPs face all kinds of insecurity (human insecurity, food insecurity, health insecurity, economic insecurity, etc.), which can make them become disillusioned and seek for ways to harm others, either in self-defence or as a

revenge on the society for perceived injustice. The implication of any of these responses is dire for Nigeria which has suffered so much in the hands of terrorists.

This has made it important to study the security issues facing IDPs in Nigeria that might end up affecting the larger society. However, several studies have been conducted, and several suggestions have also been made to the government to improve security, both for the IDPs and the generality of Nigerians, but there seems to be obvious inadequacy of programmes and effective delivery of the strategies of government in tackling the challenges of human insecurity especially the ones arising from the forced displacement of IDPs in Nigeria. Thus, the needs to properly re-examine the security issues affecting IDPs in Nigeria and the implication for the whole country. This made the study to come up with better and improved strategies and recommendations that will help the existing efforts of the various levels of government (federal, state and local) to tackle the problem of the internally displaced persons.

5.5 Suggested Area of Further Research

The issue of internally displaced persons is multifaceted and there are various dimensions to it. This study has only examined a part of the issue, there are areas such as self-settled internally displaced persons which has not gained much prominence in its study, violence and assaults in the IDP camps where and when the ones to protect them become the perpetrators of the violence and assaults and other aspects.

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Appendix I
Interview

1. Where are you from?
2. Kindly share your experience on what made you to come to the camp
3. How long have you been in the IDP camp?
4. What are your experiences so far in this camp?
5. How have you been coping especially for survival in the aspect of basic necessities such as food and healthcare

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Appendix II



IDP Camp in Pulka Town, Borno State

Source: Geneva @ Reach-Initiative.org

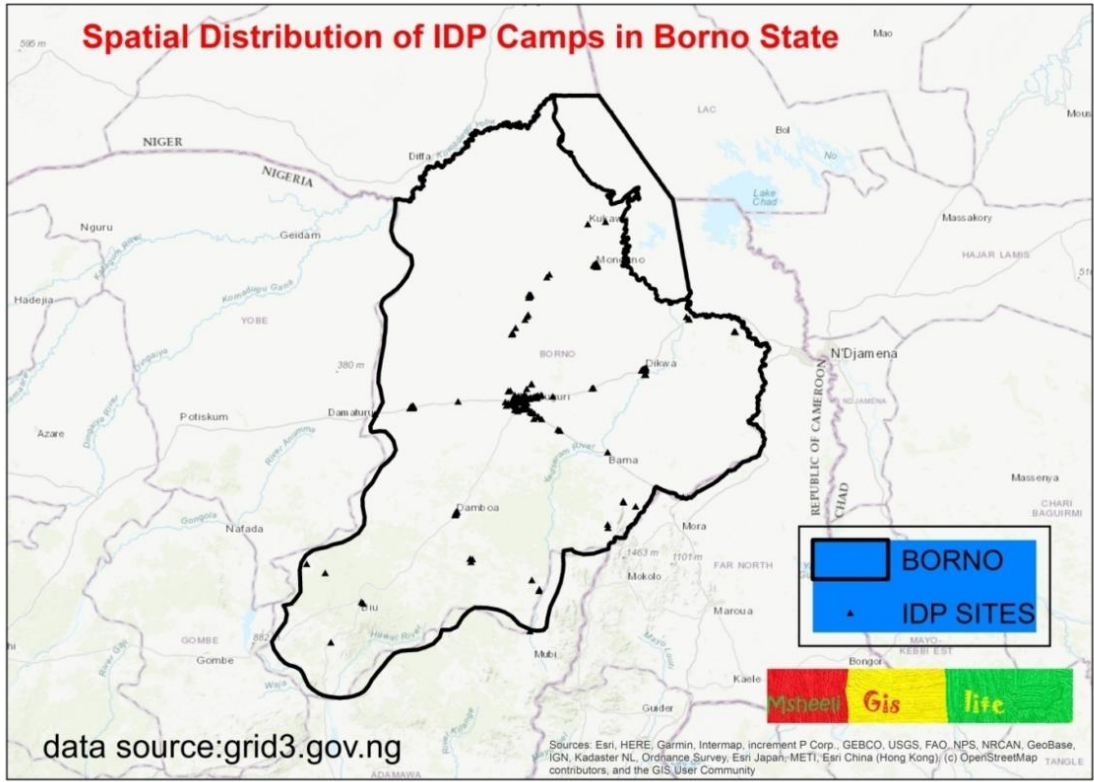
Do Not Copy, Lead C



IDP Camp in Kuchingoro, Abuja

Source: Churchtimesnigeria.net

Do Not Copy, Lead City University



Spatial Distribution of IDP Camps in Borno State

Source: grid3.gov.ng

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Bio-data

A. Personal Data

Full Name: Titilola Olubunmi ODEDE
Email: abeke20@yahoo.com
Phone No: +2348023195805
Date and Place of Birth: 28th September, 1971 Ijebu-ode
Nationality: Nigerian
Name and Address of Next of Kin: Adebayo Adetunji
1, Substation Street, Divine Estate, Obada

B. Educational Background with Dates

Educational Institutions Attended with Dates and Qualifications

- Primary Education: University of Ife Staff School 1976-1981
- Secondary Education: Moremi High School, Ile-Ife 1981-1986
- Tertiary Education: Osun State College of Education Ila-Orangun 1988-1991
Obafemi Awolowo University 1992-1995
Ambrose Alli University 2001-2003

C. Working Experience with Dates

- Equity Merchant and General Assurance Limited 1998-2001
- Metropolitan Bank Limited 2001-2003
- Next Call Limited 2003-2005
- Gateway Savings and Loan 2005-2009
- Fidelity Bank PLC 2009 till Date

D. Awards and Fellowships

N/A

E. Membership

Nigerian Institute of Managers Management	2009
Institute of Chartered Economist of Nigeria (ICRN)	2010
Institute of Professional Managers and Administrators of Managements	2022
Chartered Institute of Human Resource Management	2022

F. Publication

- i. IDP Crisis on Human Security in North-east Nigeria (Unpublished)

G. Major Conferences Attended with Dates

N/A

H. Referees

- i. Mr. Folaranmi Jemirin
Regional Bank Head
Fifelity Bank PLC
- ii. Mr. Oladimeji Oke
Financial Controller
Pertinence Group Limited

Signature

Date

The University Compliance Certification

This is to certify that this thesis was written by Titilola Olubunmi ODEDE with Matric No. LCU/PG/002790 in the Department of Politics and International Relations, Faculty of Management and Social Sciences, Lead City University, Ibadan is in full compliance with the approved University format and style.

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Signature

Date