



Arts and
Humanities
Research Council



University of Ibadan

Humanitarian Crises and Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Nigeria

A Situation Analysis



Olufunke Fayehun¹ and Olayinka Akanle²

¹ Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan, Nigeria

² Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan, Nigeria/
Department of Sociology, University of Johannesburg, South Africa

WARWICK
THE UNIVERSITY OF WARWICK



Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	3
Dedication.....	3
List of Acronyms	4
Introduction	5
History of Insurgency in North-East Nigeria.....	6
Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) and The Challenges	8
Multiple unmet needs	8
Rights violations	9
Fluid mobilities while displaced	9
Intersectional vulnerabilities	9
Lagging policy environment	9
Displacement and Humanitarian Funding in Nigeria	10
Distribution of donor contributions to BAY states as of September 2021	11
Humanitarian Response Plan funding trend 2014-2021	12
Humanitarian data in Nigeria.....	13
Data Ethics in Humanitarian Contexts.....	14
Conclusion	15
References	16

Published by:

Department of Politics and International Studies, University of Warwick, United Kingdom & Department of Sociology, Faculty of The Social Sciences, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

Copyright: Olufunke Fayehun and Olayinka Akanle 2022. Photography © Abubakar Adams

Acknowledgements

This report is funded by the UK Arts and Humanities Research Council and Foreign, Commonwealth & Development Office (AHRC-FCDO) Collaborative Humanitarian Protection Programme grant AH/T007516/1, *Data and Displacement: Assessing the Practical and Ethical Implications of Targetting Humanitarian Protection*. We acknowledge Prof. Vicki Squire of Department of Politics and International Studies, University of Warwick, United Kingdom for her exemplary support and encouragement throughout the writing and publishing of this report. We thank Drs Olusola Isola and Kudus Adebayo for the critical review of the draft. Miss. Irenitemi Abolade and Mr. Olusegun Olaniyan are acknowledged for working as research assistants on this report.

Dedication

To all victims of humanitarian crises, Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) and stakeholders working towards sustainable humanitarian crises management and ethical data ecosystem³ in Nigeria and across the world.

3 The term 'humanitarian data ecosystem' is used in this report to refer to the composite of relationships, inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes and impacts of data in humanitarian settings. The data ecosystem is also see as an inherently heterogeneous mix of traditional actors (NGOs, UNAs, Govs) and non-traditional actors (voluntary technical organizations, private sector, academia) (Berens, J., Raymond, N., Shimshon, G, Verhulst, S and Bernholz, L (n.d). The Humanitarian Data Ecosystem: the Case for Collective Responsibility. https://pacscenter.stanford.edu/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/humanitarian_data_ecosystem.pdf. Accessed 03/11/2021.

List of Acronyms

AHRC	Arts and Humanities Research Council	MoH	Ministry of Health
AQIM	Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb	MUJAO	Movement for Unity and Jihad in West Africa
AU	African Union		
BAY	Borno, Adamawa and Yobe States		
CEF	Central Emergency Fund	NCFRMI	National Commission for Refugees, Migrants and Internally Displaced Persons
DSEG	Humanitarian Data Science and Ethics Group	NEMA	National Emergency Management Agency
DTM	Displacement Tracking Matrix		
ECHACPD	European Commission's Humanitarian Aid & Civil Protection Department	NEMAP	North East Marshall Plan
		NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
GBV	Gender Based Violence	NHF	Nigeria Humanitarian Fund
GPI	Global Peace Index	NPF	Nigeria Police Force
HNO	Humanitarian Needs Overview	SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
HRP	Humanitarian Response Plan	SEMA	State Emergency Management Agency
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross	STRESS	Strategic Resilience Assessment
		UNAs	United Nations Agencies
IDMC	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre	UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
IDPs	Internally Displaced Persons	UNICEF	United Nations Children Fund
IMTF	Inter-Ministerial Task Force	UNOCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
IOM	International Organisation For Migration		
IRC	International Rescue Committee	WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
IS	Islamic State	WHO	World Health Organisation

Introduction

Globally, armed conflict, disaster, and violence are the most significant causes of displacement yearly, with about 18% of the world population living with experience of violent conflict and more than 60 million displaced persons across the globe (Global Peace Index, 2021; International Organisation for Migration [IOM], 2021; The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees [UNHCR], 2015). In addition, one out of every 100 people is forced to acquire refugee status, seek asylum, or become internally displaced persons (IDPs) due to conflicts, floods, famine, or other natural occurrences (Global Peace Index, 2021; IOM, 2021; UNHCR, 2015). Insurgencies and associated crises such as displacement generate protection needs and remain the most significant humanitarian challenge across different regions (Ban Ki-moon (2014), with over 30 million IDPs globally. Indeed, violent conflicts, terrorism, and banditry are damaging to immediate, short and long-term development and economic growth (Akanle and Omobowale, 2015), with implications for the progressive functioning of human societies.

Human security and sustainable humanitarian conditions have been focal points of development discourse in various parts of the world, particularly in developing countries (World Health Organisation [WHO], 2018; Gregoratti, 2018; Akanle, Olorunlana and Shittu, 2017). This is especially critical in the Northeastern part of Nigeria, where the insurgency is endemic and has existed for more than a decade. It has also become complicated, transmuting into an everyday crisis that is now called banditry. The insurgency as a pattern of crime committed to causing public disturbance, fear and internal tension, threatening the public and governments (Ladan, 2012). It is an act of rebellion against the governance of a society and a premeditated movement to revolt against the state through armed conflict (Ukpong-Umo, 2016). Internal displacement is an outcome of insurgencies and other conflicts that are particularly dangerous for the most vulnerable people (Kalin, 2010, Adesote and Peter, 2015, Abba and Baba, 2016). Even though humans have experienced rebellions and organised crimes with consequences such as displacement, death, loss of lives and of properties over time, the scale of human displacement and the magnitude of vulnerabilities in recent times remains profoundly concerning. The trends and patterns of insurgency in contemporary societies are more sophisticated as globalisation accentuates it (Akanle, Olorunlana and Shittu, 2017, Akanle and Omobowale, 2015). In addition, there are widening political and economic gaps and

exclusions in different parts of the world, especially in developing nations. These put some groups of people at an economic disadvantage, leading to the emergence of various non-state actors to demand their rights, which can cause tension among citizens and even lead to conflict and insurgencies (Kalin, 2010, Akanle, 2018). Recent discussions present displacement as a major issue of political and economic concern in which the discourses of human rights, data domains and sustainable development must come together (Kalin, 2010).

In Africa, intra-state violence, armed conflicts, and ethno-religious conflicts are significant causes of internal displacements with a record of about 15 million Internally Displaced People (IDPs), which makes the continent an epicentre of insurgency and human displacement (Akanle, 2018, Crisp 2010). Conflict and insecurity remain a symbolic attribution of Africa because of the trend and pattern of violence engulfing the continent (Chabal, 2005). Several African countries have experienced violence during the pre and post-colonial era, as they struggle for national independence and economic strength (Fanon 1963). The Nigerian case is particularly worrisome given the persistence of complications, weak state apparatuses and large-scale humanitarian crises and the consequences of these. The most populous country in Africa with over 200 million people, Nigeria has been severely affected by Boko-Haram insurgency, banditry, ethno-religious conflicts and political violence. The attendant effects of these are millions of displaced persons and loss of lives, livelihoods and properties. These crises persist, generating situations of multi-dimensional need in humanitarian contexts marked by the absence of reliable and valid data (Danlami and Idowu, 2019). While there are global guiding principles on internal displacement, Nigeria has not performed well in domesticating and implementing these principles. The effect is that the numbers of displaced persons continue to rise steadily (IOM, 2021; Crisp, 2010).

This report contributes to knowledge on the humanitarian contexts of IDPs in Nigeria and their situation within international frameworks. It discusses the trajectories of insurgency in Nigeria, the nexus and challenges of migration and displacement, data and vital humanitarian matters of concern relevant to policy and practice. Furthermore, this report argues for the need to develop a fuller conception of information typologies encapsulated by humanitarian data collection and use as necessary contributions to understanding different challenges facing IDPs.

Hence, this report brings insights about the ethics of data collection and use that are more far-reaching than conventional ethical guidelines and

operationalise these in terms that may initiate more meaningful change for IDPs in Nigeria and globally.

History of Insurgency in Northeast Nigeria

Over the years, Nigeria has been listed among the nations where a significant proportion of its citizens live below US\$1 per day. The alarming rate of poverty is most evident in Northeast Nigeria, with an estimated four-fifths of the population living in abject and chronic poverty (Ministry of Health [MOH]/World Health Organisation [WHO], 2017). Also, insurgency and displacement have worsened the impacts of poverty as people's social networks and supportive existential systems have been affected by the destruction of businesses and have forced the displaced population's dependency on external assistance (Ishaku, Adeniran, Onyekwena and Castradori, 2020).

The north-eastern region of Nigeria comprises six states, namely Adamawa, Borno, Yobe, Bauchi, Gombe, and Taraba, and covers about 103,639sq miles or 30% of the total land area of Nigeria. The Northeast is dominated by the Hausa and Fulani ethnic groups, who are mostly Muslims. In the pre-colonial era, the area was conquered by the Kanem-Borno Empire and later captured by the Bulala people (Singh, 2017; Abubakar, 2017). Before the attack, the Empire was the centre of Trans-Sahara trading networks where 'pure' Islam was practised based on the Sharia Law and equitable justice principles. The impact of Trans-Saharan trading on the Kanem-Borno and Bulala people was a process of alteration and acculturation, most notably a change of cultural and religious beliefs involving the embrace of Islamic culture. Afterwards, the people of Kanem-Borno divided their caliphate into emirates, with each headed by an Emir. These emirates were further divided into districts for ease of administration (Hiribarren, 2016, Torbjornsson and Johnson, 2017). After the colonial conquest, the region faced numerous challenges, including poverty, illiteracy, high mortality rate, unemployment, insecurity, political and economic issues. This punctuated the region's history during the 19th century, with Kamen-Borno people fleeing to Lake Chad in search of a conducive and economically enabling environment (Onaedo, Samuel & Sejoro, 2017).

There was relative peace and stability in Northeastern Nigeria and Northern Nigeria generally from the 19th century until the 20th century. The Boko Haram sect emerged with radical Islamic beliefs in the 1990s and later formed an alliance with

the Islamic State. Boko Haram and the Islamic State collectively form the basis for the contemporary history of insurgency in North-eastern Nigeria (Torbjornsson and Johnson, 2017). In particular, the emergence of Boko Haram, which later became the principal force of insurgency in the northeast, was initially conceived as a movement to re-establish and institutionalise Sharia in Nigeria. Although many argued that Boko Haram has existed since the 1990s under Abubakar Lawan (Raineri & Martini, 2017; Agbiboa, 2014), 2002 remains the official and widely recognised year of its emergence as a popular terror group and driver of security crises. Many different societal strata initially tolerated Boko Haram for various reasons; the group portrays their emergence as necessary based on the perceived corruption among the region's rulers - behaviours considered unacceptable and at variance with Islamic practices. The group also criticised the political and economic marginalization of the northern parts of the country. It started with some charismatic youths in 2002, specifically in Maiduguri, and later evolved into a terror group due to a drastic, radical shift in leadership and ideology in 2009 (Oyewole, 2017).

Specifically, Yusuf Mohammed, believed to be the group's founder, was a charismatic leader who carried out a youth-led movement against the Nigerian state indulging in corrupt and un-Islamic practices against the group's ideology. Over time, the group challenged the economic and political status quo and called for reforms, particularly regarding the adoption of Sharia. It was against many Western practices, including education. The group was able to recruit new members by dwelling on the economic disadvantages of the region. The youth (both educated and uneducated) were drawn to the group's activities through incentives such as accommodation, food, cash, and other forms of assistance which ought to be the state's responsibility (Olojo, 2013). As soon as the group's activities became radicalised and consistent, the Nigerian media labelled it the "Taliban of Nigeria" or "Boko Haram". The word "Boko Haram" is a combination of two different languages: Hausa and Arabic; in Hausa, it simply means 'Education is a sin'. The Arabic meaning is *Jama'atul Alhul Sunnah Lidda'wati wal jihad*, meaning "People in charge of propagating the teachings and morals of the prophet and jihad" (Gilbert, 2014).

On the 11th of June, 2009, Boko Haram clashed with the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) (Operation Flush) in Maiduguri over the use of helmets by motorbike riders who were conveying Boko Haram members to a burial event of their members (International Crisis Group, 2014). This led to the brutal killing of some of the members and the eventual death of Yusuf while in police custody (Akanle, Olorunlana and Shittu, 2017, International Crisis Group, 2014). After that, there was a temporary calm until 2010 when the group resurfaced with a new leader, Abubakar Shekau, whose only mission was to avenge Yusuf's death and other members of the group with a more radical ideology (International Crisis Group, 2014). After re-emerging in 2010, Shekau launched intermittent and sophisticated attacks across the northeast. Attacks were targeted at religious institutions, law enforcement officials, political personnel, government infrastructures, financial institutions and schools. The strategy of premeditated attacks was used to portray the irrelevance of the Western system of governance and the fragility of the Nigerian state, particularly towards protecting lives and property (Regens, Mould, Vernon, & Montgomery, 2016). Meanwhile, the Boko Haram group also interacted with some international Islamic groups outside Nigeria such as the Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM), Movement for Unity and Jihad in West Africa (MUJAO) and Ansar Dine for advanced training in sophisticated and premeditated attacks and funding (Anyadike, 2013). By 2015, Shekau pledged allegiance to Islamic State (IS) (Anyadike, 2013).

Shekau shifted the group's ideology and methods of operation by radicalising their activities and establishing Boko Haram as a major security threat to the Northeast and Nigeria in general (Akinbi, 2015). From 2009 onward, Boko Haram transformed the north-eastern region into a war zone. The group deployed violence that led to thousands of deaths and injuries and forced many inhabitants to flee their homes (Granville, 2020). Boko Haram is also active in neighbouring countries (Lake Chad, Niger, and Cameroon), causing great devastation as millions of people became displaced from their ancestral homes and established livelihoods. It is estimated that the group's activities have displaced over 2 million persons in Nigeria, with women, children, and youths as the most affected groups (IOM, 2015, 2016). The numbers of IDPs increased by 1.6% (2, 184,254) between December 2020 to May 2021 alone (Displacement Tracking Matrix [DTM], 2021).

Notable Boko Haram attacks include the 2010 Christmas Eve bombing that left many church worshippers dead or injured in Plateau state (Foard, 2013). While the government and the general public

were in shock and doubt that the Boko Haram sect was the mastermind behind the bombing, another occurred on the Eve of the new year celebration at a famous fish restaurant and market close to Mogadishu barracks in Abuja, killing tens of civilians (Anyadike, 2013). In 2011, the group attacked Abuja by bombing the National Police Headquarters with a car loaded with explosives secretly driven into the force compound while the convoy of a senior officer was entering the building. In that same year, Boko Haram bombed the United Nations Secretariat in Abuja, killing over 20 people and injuring many (Bekoe, 2011). On April 14, 2014, Boko Haram invaded Government Secondary School at Chibok, Borno state and kidnapped over 200 girls under the Goodluck Jonathan's administration, leaving many families in pain. This attack attracted international condemnation and led to the group's designation as a very dangerous foreign terrorist organisation. More school children have been kidnapped under the government of Buhari, including the Dapchi schoolgirls and other male students.

The Boko Haram insurgency has maintained its radical and sophisticated attacks in the northern region in the past decade. It has caused the forced displacement of many people - plunging entire communities into abject poverty. Heightened attacks also instilled fear within the people. Residents of the affected areas began to see their situation as unbearable, with fleeing becoming the only option for many. Unrelenting kidnappings and killings have increased the vulnerability of millions and forced many to relocate. As a result, the number of displaced populations has grown within Nigeria and neighbouring countries like Niger, Chad and Cameroon (National Emergency Management Agency [NEMA], 2015). In recent times, people forcefully relocated to camps are being forced to relocate again and again as terrorist violence moves closer to displacement camps. In this sense, the escalation of insurgency leaves camp inhabitants with no option but to embrace fluid mobility, rendering them more vulnerable to exploitation by terrorists and possibly opportunist social workers or bandits (IOM, 2021). The Nigerian government has yet to produce a viable strategy for eliminating Boko Haram. Although the armed forces and the Multinational Joint Task Force have regained some territories, the after-effects of the crises and the possibility of a resurgence of attacks continue to displace inhabitants from their home communities (NEMA, 2015). Many are also uncertain whether they could recover all that has been lost to the conflict (IOM, 2021, NEMA, 2015). Although the phenomenon of displacement is not new to the northern region of the country (Adewumi 2014), the intensity and persistence of the recent upsurge

in displacements pose enormous humanitarian challenges and portend danger to the citizens while also undermining the actualisation of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) and The Challenges

The Nigerian state has experienced alarming levels of internal displacement in the last decade due to the Boko Haram insurgency. The radicalization and sophistication of the group's activities escalated the levels of internal displacement and placed Nigeria as the most significant contributor of IDPs in the world (IOM, 2021). The Nigerian government has been making efforts concerning the displacement in the north-eastern part of the country. For example, during the 2nd Regional Security Summit held in Abuja in 2016, there were commitments and assurance to the citizens to provide a sustainable solution to the issue of humanitarian crisis (The International Committee of the Red Cross [ICRC], 2016). As a result, the government has given some attention to building IDP camps, providing food, evacuating affected citizens from their original homes, and signing the Kampala Convention. However, according to the (ICRC (2016), internally displaced persons still have unmet humanitarian assistance needs.

The deplorable conditions, continuous rise in numbers, and unmet needs of IDPs generally show that more effort needs to be put in place to ensure the safety and livelihood enhancements of those displaced by the insurgency in Nigeria. This section highlights the challenges confronting internally displaced persons in Nigeria and reviews the governmental and individual responses towards the humanitarian crisis. Furthermore, it focuses on and engages resilience in the data and humanitarian spaces and contexts of IDPs. Even with multiple data and non-data about unmet needs in humanitarian spaces, stakeholders continue to engage, re/strategise and retool towards resilient and sustainable humanitarian solutions and ethical data standards in the data value chain. This is particularly important against the background of the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA) Data Responsibility Guidelines ('the Guidelines') of October 2021⁴.

Methodologically, an unobtrusive research design was adopted for this report. The data was gathered from secondary sources, including books, technical reports, databases, reliable online sources, journal articles and historical accounts. This was further subjected to content and thematic analysis. The research design

was adopted because of its lack of interference with humanitarian crises in conflict settings, which is unnecessary for the historical and situational review.

Multiple unmet needs

A. Food insecurity

According to IOM (2021), 57% of IDPs relocated to host communities at the height of the insurgency, 43% remained in their original homes living in camps and camp-like settings with several unmet needs. In about 80% of the IDP camps accessible during an assessment, food was cited as the primary unmet need, while others were non-food items and poor shelter (IOM, 2021). OCHA (2014) reported that one of the significant challenges confronting the IDPs is food insecurity. This is so because most rural farmers fled their original homes for safety, leading to a food shortage in the north-eastern part of Nigeria. This was further substantiated by Dunn (2018) as he opined that due to the ravaging food shortage in the Northeast, the Nigerian government declared an emergency on the issue of malnutrition.

B. Health care and housing

Most of the host locations lacked adequate medical services. Internally displaced persons experience multifaceted challenges in the area of health. They lack access to adequate health facilities, and most of the health practitioners have also fled for safety, thereby compounding health challenges (Sambo, 2017). IOM (2021) posited that malaria, cough, fever, and diarrhoea were common among internally displaced persons. This led to the death of IDPs from both minor and major illnesses. Moreover, the round 36 Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) assessment posited that 79% of IDPs live in informal settings that lack proper camp management, uncompleted buildings, schools, slums, hostel buildings, and inappropriate government buildings. These deplorable conditions expose them to the risk of harsh weather conditions and easy targets of petty thieves and bandits. In addition, the assessment showed unmet water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) need (IOM, 2021; UNICEF, 2016).

4 <https://centre.humdata.org/data-responsibility/>. Accessed 03/11/2021

C. Education and livelihoods

Education is another fundamental right of IDPs that are not usually met considering the twin factors of attacks on schools and conversion of educational facilities into camps. Children are the worst hit, as a report (IOM, 2021) shows that over 75% of the children were not going to school in some camp-like settings. The truncated education for some results from the death of their parents following terror attacks. For others, their parents lost their means of livelihood. The majority ventured into menial jobs. Many IDPs who were farmers could not sustain their families as the insurgency forced them away from their primary sources of livelihood (NEMA, 2015).

Rights violations

Nigeria suffers many policy deficiencies due to poor implementation and corruption. Evidence shows that IDPs do not enjoy their rights as stipulated in the international conventions and guiding principles because of weak government commitments and insufficient resources. IDPs suffer right violations in the hands of Boko Haram insurgents, who consistently threaten them, or from state officials who have a responsibility to protect them both within and outside the camps (IOM, 2021). Boko Haram insurgents kill IDPs during their attacks, thereby denying citizens their rights to life (IOM, 2021; The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre [IDCM], 2016). Moreover, while forced out of their homes, IDPs seek shelter in extremely inconvenient and unfamiliar locations such as dilapidated buildings, camps, makeshift tents, churches, mosques, and informal settlements (ghettos and slums). This situation exposes them and can quickly worsen their security and health situations, as indicated above.

Fluid mobilities while displaced

While displaced, affected people move from place to place in search of food and shelter. This increases the fluid mobilities of internally displaced persons, whose continuous search for security generates further existential challenges. In moving from one place to another, many lose their lives either to attacks or to illness. In addition, a high proportion of children become orphans, which often truncates their life chances. In some cases, younger IDPs are conscripted into terrorist groups, while many join insurgents to access basic materials, including food, shelter, medical assistance (IOM, 2021; Displacement Tracking Matrix, [DTM], 2017).

Intersectional vulnerabilities

Women, children, people living with disabilities and the elderly are mostly affected during insurrections (Displacement Tracking Matrix, 2017). Studies have established the unequal effects of displacement on IDPs relative to gender and age, with women and children representing a significantly higher proportion of the vulnerable in displacement contexts (Olanrewaju, Omotoso, and Alabi, 2018; Displacement Tracking Matrix, 2017). These groups face difficult situations such as sexual abuse, forced marriage, and death. Often, children are conscripted as child soldiers, suicide bombers, or sex slaves, especially given the absence of education (Humanitarian Need Overview, 2021, Displacement Tracking Matrix, [DTM], 2017).

Lagging policy environment

Given the increasing numbers of IDPs and the deplorable conditions within which they live, the Nigerian government and relevant stakeholders would ordinarily be expected to find sustainable solutions to the unmet needs of the displaced persons while protecting them from the effects of insurgency. However, a globally acknowledged framework for the protection of rights of IDPs is yet to have significant impacts. Although Nigeria signed the Kampala Convention in 2009 and ratified it in 2012, the domestication of this treaty has not yet been effective in Nigeria due to its poor implementation and deficit of appropriate policies. The plight of displaced persons thus continues to be fragmented and uncoordinated, leading to a continuous increase of IDPs and situations of fluid mobilities as outlined above (Olanrewaju, Omotoso, and Alabi, 2018).

Displacement and Humanitarian Funding in Nigeria

Citizens desire a secure environment where they can live, work and sleep peacefully. However, situations can become dangerous and precarious, especially in contexts of violent conflict like Northeastern Nigeria. In these same contexts, resources such as funding for the support of humanitarian work are limited. This calls for serious attention and support from stakeholders in the global humanitarian systems. The response is particularly crucial at the global level, given that humanitarian crises in Nigeria have critical regional and international implications. Yet findings from International Rescue Committee [IRC], (2021) reveal that, despite the expansion of assistance to IDPs, the lack of high-quality data is a major bottleneck in determining humanitarian needs. Even when funding is available, data gaps impact negatively on the efficient utilisation of resources. IDPs without humanitarian support face unique challenges of food, sanitation, shelter, medical services and financial support (Barau, 2017; Mohammed, 2017). Humanitarian funding has been enshrined in international humanitarian law for all countries to mitigate these problems while upholding the principle of equality, fairness and democracy (Zekeri, 2018). This section explores humanitarian funding structures for Nigeria and considers how this relates to IDPs' social and economic needs.

There have been increased calls for collaborative efforts to improve funding for mitigating the challenges faced by IDPs in Nigeria's insurgency context. Information published by IRC (2021) corroborated this need because Northeast Nigeria has witnessed the violence that left many people in the region with little or no livelihood. In 2009, the African Union (AU) called for the adoption of the Kampala Convention to provide a viable framework on issues relating to IDPs (Olojo, 2019). The Kampala Convention is widely regarded as a binding regulatory framework for the safety and protection of IDPs across different countries in Africa (The *International Committee of the Red Cross* [ICRC], 2016). It is premised on the notion of the humanitarian process by looking at factors that trigger displacement and recognizing displacements as a complex social phenomenon that should be given serious attention (ICRC, 2016). Although the Kampala Convention is yet to be fully implemented in Nigeria's domestic law, ratification of this treaty still manifests itself in Nigeria's policy, especially on issues relating to the needs of IDPs.

The plight of IDPs in Nigeria has drawn support from many international donors worldwide, starting

from the mid-2010s (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs [OCHA], 2019 cited in Ishaku, Adeniran, Onyekwena and Castradori, 2020). Zekeri (2018) argues that the development of humanitarian funding emanated out of the zeal to support those severely affected by the insurgency. To provide immediate and long term intervention funds, the Federal Government set up a committee in 2003 to draft a national policy on IDPs and ensure proper registration of displaced persons, issuance of identity cards and allocation of responsibilities to different government and non-government parastatals (Borton, Buchanan-Smith and Otto, 2005). While the committee's efforts have not improved the condition of IDPs in a significant way (Borton, Buchanan-Smith and Otto, 2005), the government announced the creation of the North East *Marshall Plan* (NEMAP) in 2015. This is to provide quick assistance towards reconstruction and development that are germane for restoring peace to the north-eastern region (Zekeri, 2018). With the creation of NEMAP, information published by Reliefweb (2017) revealed that a total sum of N92.2 billion (over USD\$24 million dollars) was set aside in 2017 for a poverty alleviation programme to cushion the effects of insurgency. Similarly, the Federal Government of Nigeria's Inter-Ministerial Task Force (IMTF) was also established to support the Federal Government on actions surrounding the Northeast insurgency.

Donors have also responded to IDPs needs by reviewing and adjusting their overall humanitarian policies. This is in collaboration with the National and State Emergency Management Agencies (National Emergency Management Agency [NEMA], State Emergency Management Agency [SEMA]) and the National Commission for Refugees, Migrants and Internally Displaced Persons (NCFRMI), as part of a critical and strategic response to IDP needs (Borton, Buchanan-Smith and Otto, 2005 and Carl LeVan et al. 2018). For example, OCHA (2021) estimated that \$1.01 billion is needed to support humanitarian activities in Borno, Adamawa and Yobe (BAY). This total has not yet been met, but the total funding received for BAY as of September 2021 is US\$565.5million with US\$355million for Humanitarian Response Plan (HRP) funding and US\$210.5million for non-HRP. Figure 1 shows the distribution of the donor contributions for BAY as of September 2021; the top five donors are United States of America, European Commission's Humanitarian Aid & Civil Protection Department (ECHACPD), Germany, United Kingdom and Canada.

Distribution of donor contributions to BAY states as of September 2021 (Million \$)

	Total funds contributed	Funds contributed through HRP*	Funds contributed out of HRP
United States of America	330.4	162.6	167.9
ECHACD**	63.6	42.1	21.5
Germany	46.0	39.3	6.7
United Kingdom	24.0	24.0	-
Canada	21.5	18.9	2.5
Sweden	18.7	12.7	6.0
CERF***	15.0	15.0	-
Japan	7.6	7.6	-
Belgium	7.3	7.3	-
Switzerland	6.8	3.4	3.4
UNDP****	6.5	6.5	-
Others	18.7	15.6	3.2

Figure 1: Distribution of donor contributions to BAY states as of September 2021

Source: Nigeria Humanitarian Funding Overview, OCHA 2021

<https://reliefweb.int/report/nigeria/nigeria-humanitarian-funding-overview-1-september-2021>

As of 2018, over 150 non-governmental organizations have provided humanitarian assistance in Northeast Nigeria, especially in Maiduguri (Olojo, 2019 in Ishaku, Adeniran, Onyekwena and Castradori, 2020). Humanitarian actors have also concentrated their activities in the Borno, Adamawa and Yobe (BAY) states most affected by Boko Haram insurgency with Borno accounting for 80% of all IDPs (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre [IDMC]), 2018 in Ishaku, Adeniran, Onyekwena and Castradori, 2020). In addition, the Federal and State governments, the Internal Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) jointly embarked on providing basic and social amenities to the affected areas (Nigeria Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2016). In all, available records show that international donors have provided a key means of livelihood to over 1,152,000 people in the Northeast region (Zekeri, 2018). Furthermore, few (2018) noted that the humanitarian funding delivered to IDPs has increased tremendously over recent years, with over 1.6 million and 2.5 million people receiving food support between January and November

2017. Additionally, the World Bank approved \$775 million of International Development Association (IDA) funding for the Northeast region to cater for basic education, social protection services, agricultural production and livelihood (Humanitarian Programme Cycle, 2020).

Another funding process emerged during the launch of the Nigerian Humanitarian Fund (NHF) in 2017. This was set up to coordinate humanitarian actions by providing funds and support mechanisms to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), international NGOs and the UN agencies responding to critical individual and community needs (Humanitarian Programme Cycle, 2020). The Nigeria Humanitarian Fund (NHF) is responsible for reaching out to affected people and communities and mobilizing assistance and resources through fund pooling managed by the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA). It prioritized urgent strategic issues, especially those relating to unmet needs and support systems for unforeseen circumstances (UNOCHA, 2020). The

trend of Humanitarian Response Plan (HRP) Funding from 2014 to 2021 is presented in Figure 2. Before the emergence of NHF in 2017, the funding for HRP

was low; the 2017 funding is still the highest to date (US\$741.9million).

Humanitarian Response Plan funding trend 2014-2021

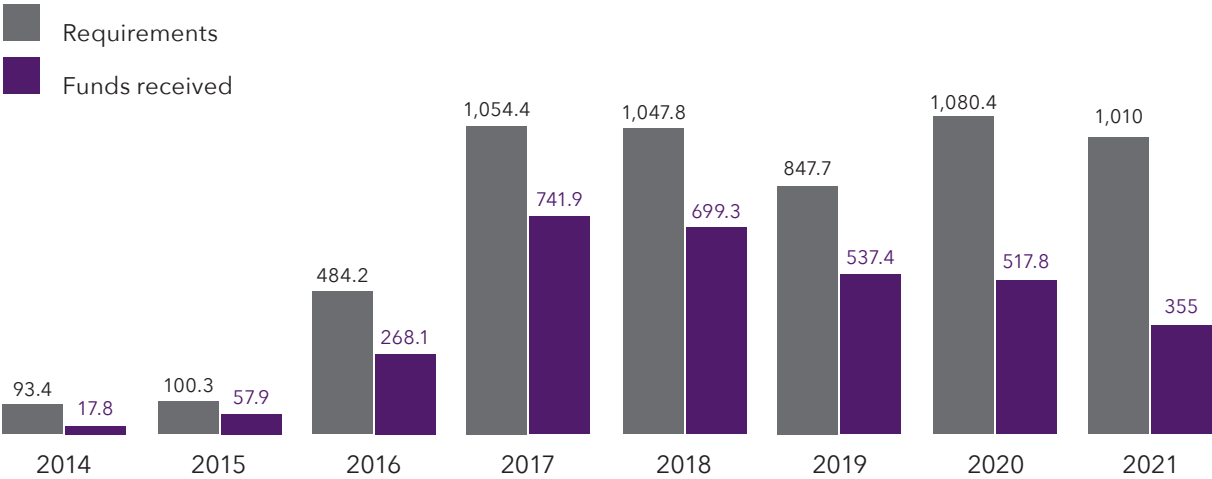


Figure 2: Humanitarian Response Plan funding trend 2014-2021

Source: Nigeria Humanitarian Funding Overview, OCHA 2021

<https://reliefweb.int/report/nigeria/nigeria-humanitarian-funding-overview-1-september-2021>

The low funding in 2014 and 2015 was explained by UNOCHA (2015): in 2014, as part of efforts to curtail insecurity in Northeast Nigeria, the Central Emergency Fund (CEF) allocated a pooled fund of US\$3.3 million in response to the IDP crisis in the Northeast (Start Network, 2015). In 2015, part of the funding was allocated to sectors unrelated to IDPs and security issues. As a result, there has been improvement in humanitarian financing since 2015 OCHA (2015). However, against the background of this funding situation and the dynamics and resources ecosystem, it is evident that there is a requirement for better management and tracking of humanitarian assistance funds and resources to achieve effectiveness and efficiency. Data is vital in this instance; better tracking, coordination, gathering, and sharing data will enhance transparency, accountability, and impact. As funding increases and humanitarian architectures change, there is a need for better data in tracking and performance management processes and to ensure sustainable impact in the longer term.

Despite improvements in the funding situation, the access of international donors to affected people remains difficult in BAY States (Humanitarian Response Plan, [HRP] 2018). According to the 2016 Humanitarian Needs Overview (HNO), about 14.8

million individuals are affected in four North-eastern states. United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF) (2015) estimated that out of the 14.8 million affected, 7 million are seriously in need of interventions, while 3 million are estimated to be inaccessible. In a data report from Humanitarian Response Plan (2018), an estimated 930,000 individuals were hard to reach by international humanitarian actors due to armed groups, ongoing hostilities, and prohibition of movements in the conflict zones. Inaccessibility to IDPs makes humanitarian operations difficult, especially in areas with limited government presence to assist donors and civilians in critical situations (Humanitarian Response Plan, 2018). To gain access to these areas, aid workers rely on helicopters for transporting food and other items (Humanitarian Response Plan, 2018). International Organization for Migration (2016) provided humanitarian assistance to 325,000 people through food relief, shelter, psychological first aid, camp coordination and management. This included the provision of 957 lifesaving shelter kits to support 4,306 new IDPs in 2019, capacity building, mental health and psychosocial support through sensitizing victims of trafficking and gender-based violence (GBV) (IOM, 2016). However, they faced continuous challenging operational environments.

Humanitarian data in Nigeria

Humanitarian responses in Nigeria, most especially in the Northeast, have been commendable, despite a lack of adequate funding. Nevertheless, several gaps need to be filled in the context of insurgency (IDMC, 2018; OCHA, 2019), many of which are contingent on available up-to-date and high-quality data. For example, displacement has become a significant driver of urbanization. People affected by violent conflicts in rural areas find cities to be attractive destinations. Therefore, there is a need to recognize IDP-induced urbanization, the spatial distribution of IDPs, and these movements' consequences.

Although displacement to urban settings can be an opportunity to escape abject poverty, insecurity and threat, IDPs often find themselves running from one form of insecurity to find other – often more harmful – ones (Ishaku, Adeniran, Onyekwena and Castradori, 2020). Indeed, IDPs seeking safety in urban centres can experience shocks that may prevent them from successfully navigating the structures of the new environment. Their employment or occupational prospects can be truncated, rendering poverty persistent. As Adewale (2016) suggests, the city of Abuja witnessed an influx of displaced persons from BAY to seek safety and shelter with their relatives (Adewale, 2016). Yet, the influx also contributes to overcrowding. There is a lack of adequate food for many, leading IDPs to move farther away from the city and often to areas inaccessible to government and donors (Adewale, 2016).

There is a need to understand the many aspects of IDPs' lives in urban centres. However, empirical data is not available to document and explore the issues, including their precarious situation in camps, towns, and cities. Moreover, existing data is relatively old, uncoordinated and can also be gathered, stored, shared and utilised in terms that are questionable ethically. This has led to a call for action from stakeholders such as OCHA, which seeks to coordinate activities towards ethical gathering and management of humanitarian data. According to OCHA, there is need for data responsibility in the humanitarian ecosystem. Data responsibility within OCHA's framework calls for the safe, ethical, and effective management of personal and non-personal data in operational responses. Data responsibility is a high stake matter in the humanitarian context⁵. Key principles are codified in the OCHA Data Responsibility Guidelines

(‘the Guidelines’) of October 2021⁶, and the work of the Humanitarian Data Science and Ethics Group (DSEG) has, amongst other initiatives, also played an important role here⁷. There is, however, a need for a sustained continuous push for more ethical standards and adherence to ethical guidelines in the data ecosystem of humanitarian efforts, especially relative to IDPs existent (Ishaku, Adeniran, Onyekwena and Castradori, 2020).

Rather than focusing on IDP data challenges in general terms, we argue that focusing on IDP resilience data facilitates a more robust approach around which all humanitarian agencies need to collaborate. Resilience data can assist policymakers by creating enabling conditions to help IDPs overcome shocks and prepare them for future risks (Mercy Corps, 2018). In addressing resilience in complex crises, the Strategic Resilience Assessment (STRESS) was adopted by Mercy Corps (2018) to assess the root causes of conflict in the Borno States. This involves examining how conflict can cause a resilience divide, and resilience data can be used to understand and address the root causes of conflict. The STRESS data seeks to answer several questions relating to what coping mechanisms systems do, what the target population depends on, how they are likely to act if under threat now or in the future, and what systematic challenges already existed prior to the situation of crisis rendering people vulnerable to attacks. Other questions explore what shocks and stresses threaten individuals' well-being, how likely these affect individual well-being and goals, and the likely psychological damage should the crisis persist (Mercy Corps, 2018).

Sustainable humanitarian data collection has not been fully achieved in Nigeria. This is due to the inability of donor agencies to access many IDP. Therefore, there is a need to invest and build more resilience data in ethical terms through macro-micro level analysis that provides sufficient information on IDP adversity, support services and coping strategies. This is imperative in order that all stakeholders, including government and international humanitarian systems/agencies/ organisations, take seriously the aim of safeguarding IDP's social well-being sustainably (Mercy Corps, 2018).

5 <https://centre.humdata.org/data-responsibility/>. Accessed 03/11/2021

6 <https://centre.humdata.org/data-responsibility/>. Accessed 03/11/2021

7 <https://www.hum-dseg.org>. Accessed 03/11/2021

Data Ethics in Humanitarian Contexts

It is vital to ensure that the process of data collection among IDPs does not violate their fundamental rights. All forms of humanitarian funding and data must be premised on clear ethical principles. Ethical principles should form the basis of data collection, storage, retrieval and utilisation. The ethical principles guiding humanitarian data have a long history, which can be traced to the works of the International Committee of the Red Cross and the National Red Cross (United Nations Resolution, n.d in OCHA, 2012). In addition, the principles centralised on humanity, neutrality, impartiality and independence are enshrined in the UN's General Assembly Resolution (OCHA, 2012).

Similarly, as part of commitment towards upholding the principle of data ethics related to protecting IDPs and other related disasters, these principles have also been expressed at various institutional levels. This includes the Code of Conduct for the International Red Cross, Red Crescent Movement, and non-governmental organisations in disaster relief areas (OCHA, 2012). The codes provide a general framework for all humanitarian organisations to adhere to ethical principles related to IDPs' general welfare (OCHA, 2012), including in the data ecosystem.

Figure 3 shows the four core humanitarian principles that guide the data generation and management ecosystem. The principle of humanity is premised on the notion that all humanitarian organisations must consider individuals' suffering. The principle of humanitarian action is to safeguard life and ensure that the dignity of human beings is protected (OCHA, 2012). The principle of neutrality is based on the idea that actors in humanitarian conduct must not be involved in the dynamics of hostile environments or engage in political, racial, or ideological conversations that provoke controversies (OCHA, 2012). The Impartiality principle holds the notion that humanitarian agents/organisations must be free from partiality. They must execute humanitarian efforts to assist victims by acting prudently on the most urgent cases with no biases based on ethnicity, nationality, sex, religion, or age (OCHA, 2012). The last principle, Independence, holds that the actions of humanitarian organisations must be autonomous from social, political, economic, military issues that may hamper their responsibility in places where humanitarian efforts are needed (OCHA, 2012).

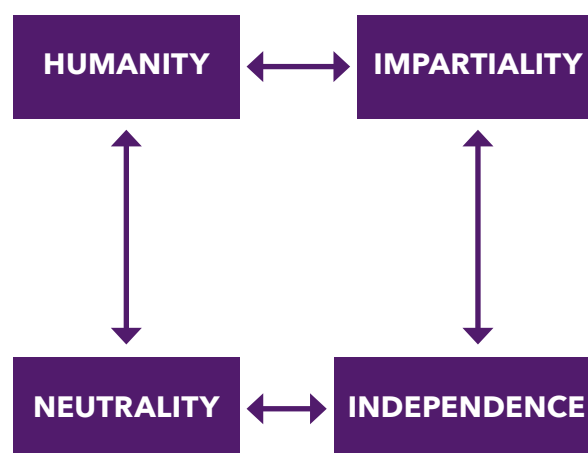


Figure 3: The four core humanitarian principles for data generation and management ecosystem
Source: OCHA, 2015

The humanitarian principles above also fall directly within the OCHA Data Responsibility Guidelines ('the Guidelines') of October 2021⁸. Calls for safe, ethical, and effective data management in humanitarian settings cannot be overemphasized, and these are well guided in the OCHA Guidelines. The principles of humanity, impartiality, neutrality, and independence are central to humanitarian organisations' operational activities, including data gathering, storage, retrieval, sharing, and utilisation. Adherence to these principles is essential because data collection in IDP contexts often occurs in a sensitive, risky, and hostile complex social and political milieu. Therefore, compliance with these principles is imperative if the humanitarian data ecosystem is to meet the needs and help protect the wellbeing and fundamental rights of IDPs. A sustainable humanitarian data ecosystem will emerge when these core humanitarian principles are combined with other ethical principles, such as anonymity, informed consent, beneficence, right of withdrawal and non-coercion

8 <https://centre.humdata.org/data-responsibility/>. Accessed 03/11/2021

Conclusion

This situation analysis has detailed the ecology of humanitarian crises and internal displacement in Nigeria. We explored the interfaces of humanitarian crises and IDPs in Nigeria from scholarly, policy and practice perspectives, paying strategic attention to associated background context issues and emphasising the importance of resilience. It has chronicled the historical development of insurgency and the consequential emergence of the Boko Haram sect as the precursor and driver of violence, displacement and humanitarian crises in Nigeria. The complexity of humanitarian assistance in Nigeria was examined by identifying the challenges of IDPs and the importance of humanitarian funding and data ethics in humanitarian ecosystems.

Access to accurate and ethical data representing the social and economic conditions and realities of IDPs has been challenging, in part because of the weak data gathering approaches, inefficient coordination, limited resources against best practices and global benchmarks as well as insufficient transparency of the activities of several organizations involved in humanitarian assistance in Nigeria. Ethical data collection and management processes are essential in improving IDPs' living conditions and sustainability of humanitarian responses. Such data collection, management and utilisation approaches are better within robust, reliable and valid qualitative data collection methods that can appreciate and

leverage micro-level processes and variables in primary contexts of humanitarian crises and IDPs in Nigeria. Qualitative data collection method will be very advantageous in this instance, as the approach is good for ground-thruthing. It is also good for understanding community norms, culture and forces that determine what is, what will and what can affect humanitarian crises and IDPs in a way that no other method can achieve. It will enable the gathering of in-depth insights into the normativity of challenges, problems, and opportunities in ways that generate generating insights for effective and efficient project development and implementation

The qualitative research method enables the detailed gathering, analyzing, and managing textual (video and audio) data to appreciate and comprehend contexts, perspectives, attitudes, behaviours, practices, worldviews, realities, and experiences, including IDPs and stakeholders within the humanitarian systems. Moreover, unlike other approaches, qualitative data gathering and management give the subjects better and functional voices and involvements. Therefore, the time to engage and leverage qualitative data collection and management methods for effective targeting and data ethics that are inclusive and sustainable is now!

References

- Abubakar, B. (2017). Kanuri Complete. *UNITAR-GENEVA*.
- Adesote, S. A. & Peters, A. O. (2015). Historical Analysis of Violence and Internal Population Displacement in Nigeria's Fourth Republic, 1999-2011. *International Journal of Peace and Conflict Studies* (IJPCS), Vol. 2, No 3, September, 2015. Website: <http://www.rcmss.com>. ISSN: 2354-1598(Online) ISSN: 2346-7258 (Print)
- Adesote Samson Adesola & Peters, Akin Ola, 2015, 2 (3):13-22 A.
- Adewale Stephen. (2016). "Internally Displaced Persons and the Challenges of Survival in Abuja". *African Security Review*, vol.25, No.2, Pp.176-192.
- Adewumi A., (2014). The Battle of the Minds: The Insurgency and Counter Insurgency in Northern Nigeria. West Africa insight, May 2014 Boko Haram.
- Agbiboa, D. E. (2014). Boko-Haram and the Global Jihad: 'Do Not Think Jihad is Over. Rather Jihad Has Just Begun.' *Australian Journal of International Affairs*, 68(4), 400-417.
- Akanle, O, Otomi, A.O. Nwanagu, G.C. (2021). The Coronavirus Pandemic and International Migration: Nigerian Context in Global Perspective. In Onyeonoru, I.P. Olley, B.O, Olapegba, P.M, Adesina, O.S, Olayinka Akanle and Adeola, F.O. (eds). *COVID-19 Pandemic: Perspectives on Impact and Emerging New Normals*. Ibadan: The Postgraduate College. Pp. 225-246
- Akanle, O. (2018). Non-state Actors as the Strategic Realm in Africa's Development. In. Akanle, O. and Adesina, J.O. eds. *The Development of Africa: Issues, Diagnoses and Prognoses*. Berlin: Springer. Pp. 289-306.
- Akanle, O. Fayehun, O.A. and S. Oyelakin. 2021. The Information Communication Technology, Social Media, International Migration and Migrants' Relations with Kin in Nigeria. *Journal of Asian and African Studies*. 56. 6. Pp. 1212-1225.
- Akanle, O. Olorunlana, A. and Shittu, O. (2017). Culture, Suicide-terrorism and Security in Nigeria, in Adejoh, P. and Adisa, W. eds. *Terrorism & Counter Terrorism War in Nigeria*. Lagos: University of Lagos Press. Pp. 138-149.
- Akanle, O. and Omobowale, A.O. (2015). Trans-Border Banditry and Integration in the ECOWAS Region, in Olutayo, A.O. and Adeniran, I.A. eds. *Regional Economic Communities: Exploring the Process of Socio-economic Integration in Africa*. CODESRIA Dakar: Senegal. Pp. 101-110.
- Akinbi, J. (2015) Examining the Boko Haram Insurgency in Northern Nigeria and the Quest for a Permanent Resolution of the Crisis. *Global Journal of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences*. .3(8).
- Anyadike, N (2013), Boko Haram and National Security Challenges: Causes and Solution. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*. Vol.4, No.5 <https://www.iiste.org>.
- Ban Ki-Moon, (2014). UN Chief urges more action to tackle displacement; recalls youth on the run in wartime Korea. <https://www.unhcr.org>
- Barau A. (2017). "Women and children fleeing Boko Haram: their experiences in Nigerian cities. International Institute for Environment and Development".
- Bekoe, D. (2011), *Nigeria's 2011 Elections: Best Run, but Most Violent* by (Peace Brief, August 2011) Washington: UNO Publication. In Anyadike, N. Boko Haram and National Security Challenges: Causes and Solution.
- Berens, J., Raymond, N., Shimshon, G, Verhulst, S and Bernholz, L (n.d) *The Humanitarian Data Ecosystem: the Case for Collective Responsibility*. https://pacscenter.stanford.edu/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/humanitarian_data_ecosystem.pdf. Accessed 03/11/2021.
- Borton J; Buchanan-Smith M; and Otto R; (2005). "Support to Internally Displaced Persons - Learning from Evaluation". *Synthesis Report of Joint Evaluation Programme*. Sida Published.
- Carl Levan A; Hassan I; Isumonah V; Kwaja C; Adama M; Momale S; Nwankwor C; and Okenyodo K; (2018). "Study on the Marginalized Groups in Context of ID in Nigeria". National Identification for Development (ID4D) Project".
- Castles, S. (2003). The international politics of forced migration. *Development*, 46(3), 11-20. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10116370030463003>.
- Chabal, P. (2005). 'Violence, Power and Rationality: A Political Analysis of Conflict in Contemporary Africa.' In P. Chabal, U. Engel, and A. Gentili, eds., *Is Violence Inevitable in Africa: Theories of Conflict and Approaches to Conflict Prevention*. Leiden: Brill, pp. 1-8.
- Crisp, J. (2010). Forced displacement in Africa: Dimensions, difficulties, and policy directions. *Refugee Survey Quarterly*, 29(3), 1-27. <https://doi.org/10.1093/rsq/hdq031>.
- Danlami, G., & Idowu, O. O. (2019). Analysis of the Effects of Service Delivery on the Wellbeing of IDPs in Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Abuja. Being a paper presented at the 60th Annual Conference of the Association of Nigerian Geographers held at Kaduna State University between 13th to 18th October.
- Displacement Tracking Matrix. (DTM) (2017). Displacement Tracking Matrix: Nigeria Round XV Report 2017. Retrieved from <https://data2.unhcr.org/en/documents/download/56254>.

- Dunn, G. (2018). The impact of the Boko Haram insurgency in Northeast Nigeria on childhood wasting: a double-difference study. *Conflict and Health*, 12(1), 6. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13031-018-0136-2>.
- Duruji, M.M, Oviasogie, F.O, (2013), State Failure and Global Security: An Appraisal of the Boko Haram Insurgency in Northern Nigeria. *Journal for Sustainable Society* 2(1)20-30.
- Edem-Nse, Y. G., Isa, B. M., & Sani, A. M. (2017). User's cultural specific spatial needs in the Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps in Abuja, Nigeria. Department of Architecture, Federal University of Technology, Minna, Niger State.mib@futminna.edu.ng.
- Fanon, F. (1963). *The Wretched of the Earth*. London: Penguin.
- Foard, C., (2013) The Boko Haraam Insurgency in Nigeria. www.cimicweb.org.
- Gilbert. L., (2014). Prolongation of Boko Haram Insurgency in Nigeria: the International Dimensions. *Research on Humanities and Social Science*. 4, (11): 150-156.
- Granville, C.K., (2020). The Impact of Boko Haram Insurgency on the People of Borno State. Walden University. <https://scholarworks.walden.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi>
- Gregoratti, C., (2018) "Human Security". *Encyclopedia Britannica*. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/human-security>. Accessed 30 October 2021.
- Hiribarren, V. (2016). *A History of Borno: Trans-Saharan African Empire to Failing Nigerian State*. London: Hurst & Company. Hurst & Company. London.
- Humanitarian Programme Cycle. (2020). "Humanitarian Needs Overview- Nigeria". [Humanitarian Response Plan \(HRP\) \(2018\). "Humanitarian Response Plan 2017/2018 Report"](https://www.unhcr.org/humanitarian-response-internally-displaced-people-armed).
- ICRC. (2018). Addressing Internal Displacement in Times of Armed Conflict and Other Violence | International Committee of the Red Cross. Retrieved April 6, 2018, from <https://www.icrc.org/en/publication/0867-internally-displaced-humanitarian-response-internally-displaced-people-armed>.
- IDMC. (2017). Nigeria IDP Figures Analysis. Retrieved from <http://www.internal-displacement.org/sub-saharan-africa/nigeria/figures-analysis>.
- IDMC. (2013). Nigeria: Increasing violence continues to cause internal displacement A profile of the internal displacement situation. Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, Norwegian Refugee Council.
- IDMC. (2018). "Nigeria - Patterns". Retrieved from Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC): <http://www.internal-displacement.org/countries/nigeria#79>.
- Ishaku, J., Adeniran, A., Onyekwena, C., and Castradori, M., (2020). Building the Resilience of internally displaced persons in Nigeria. Centre for the study of the Economies of Africa. Institute for Economics & Peace. Global Peace Index (2021) "Measuring Peace in a Complex World, Sydney. <https://www.reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/GPI-2021-web.pdf>.
- Internal Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC). (2016). "Internal Displacement in North East Nigeria: Operationalizing the Kampala Convention in Borno, Adamawa and Yobe States". ICRC published.
- International Crisis Group, (2018) Preventing Boko Haram Abductions of Schoolchildren in Nigeria. Crisis Group Africa Briefing N°137 Dakar/Nairobi/Brussels.
- International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2020) -Global report on Displacement 2020. Retrieved from <https://www.internal-displacement.org/global-report/grid2020/>.
- International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2021)-DMT 36 North-east Nigeria Report.
- IOM. 2016. "Nigeria situation report". Published by International Organization for Migration.
- IRC. (2021). "Nigeria: Conflict and Famine Risk in the Northeast". *Humanitarian Risk in 2021*, IRC Data.
- Kalin, W. (2010). *The human rights of internally displaced persons*. Retrieved from <https://www.brookings.edu/on-the-record/the-human-rights-of-internally-displaced-persons-2/>
- Koser, K. (2007). *International migration: A very short introduction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ladan M. T. (2012). Impact of Insecurity in the North on Internally Displaced People and Migration Flows between Nigeria and Neighbouring Countries. *Being a paper presentation made at the forum of European Union Working Group on Migration and Development*; Organized by the Delegation of European Union to Nigeria.
- Ladan, M. T. (2013). National Framework for the Protection of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Nigeria: A paper presented at a workshop for judges and kadis on Refugee Law organised by National Institute, Abuja, Nigeria. 20th April, 2013.
- Massey, D. S., and Taylor, J. E. (2004). Introduction. In D. S. Massey and J. E. Taylor (Eds.), *International Migration Prospects and Policies in a Global Market* (pp. 1-12). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mercy Corps. (2018). "Borno, Northeast Nigeria Strategic Resilience Assessment: Full Report and Findings". Mercy Corps Published.
- Migration Data Portal. (2018). Forced migration or displacement | Migration data portal. Retrieved April 6, 2018, from <https://migrationdataportal.org/themes/forced-migration-or-displacement>.

- MoH/WHO. (2017). "Northeast Nigeria Response: Health Sector Bulletin #32". Maiduguri: World Health Organization, Government of Nigeria, Health Cluster.
- Mohammed F.K. (2017). "The Causes and Consequence of Internal Displacement in Nigeria and Related Governance Challenges". Working Paper. Division Global Issues, Stiftung Wissenschaft und politik. German Institute for International and Security Affairs.
- Musa, A., Abba, K. & Baba, G. k. (2016). Effects of Insurgency on Law and Society: An Overview. *International Journal of Research in Humanities and Social Studies*. Volume 3, Issue 4.
- Nail, T. (2016). A tale of two crises: Migration and terrorism after the Paris attacks. *Studies in Ethnicity and Nationalism*, 16(1), 158-167. Retrieved from <http://du.academia.edu/thomasnail>.
- NEMA (2015) Overview of Humanitarian Situation in Nigeria Presentation, January 2015.
- Nigeria Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA). 2016. "Communiqué 2nd Regional Security Summit". Abuja, para 3(h), p.2, http://eeas.europa.eu/delegations/nigeria/documents/press_corner/news/20160517-2nd-security-summit-communique_en.pdf
- OCHA. (2012). "OCHA on Message: Humanitarian Principles.
- OCHA. (2019). "Humanitarian Needs Overview". UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs.
- OCHA., (2014). www.internaldisplacement.org/subshaharn-africa/nigeria/2014/nigeria-multiple-crises-overshadowed-by-boko-haram. Retrieved on October 3rd, 2015.
- Ojeh, V. N. and Amrevurayire, E. O., (2016). Consequences of rural-urban migration on the source region of Ughievwen clan Delta State Nigeria. *European Journal of Geography*, 7(3), 42-57.
- Olanrewaju, F.O., Omotoso, F., and Alabi, J.O. (2018) Boko Haram insurgency and the management of internally displaced women in Nigeria: A situational analysis. *African Population Studies*, 32, 3622-3633.
- Olojo, A. (2019). "Humanitarian aid in Nigeria's north-east: helping or hurting?" Retrieved from Institute for Security Studies; https://issafrica.org/iss-today/humanitarian-aid-in-nigerias-Northeast-helping-orhurting?utm_source=BenchmarkEmail&utm_campaign=ISS_Today&utm_medium=email.
- Olojo, A., (2013). Nigeria's Troubled North: Interrogating the Drivers of Public Support for Boko Haram. http://www.icct.nl/download/file/ICCTOlojoNigerias_Troubled-North-October-2013.pdf.
- Onaedo, E., Samuel, O., & Sejoro, J. (2017). An Assessment of the Impact of Internal Displacement on Human Security in Northern Nigeria, 10(1), 42-65.
- Otto, F. O., & Akinboye, S. O. (2016). It Is not yet tUhuru': Overcoming the challenges of citizenship and nationality questions in post-separation Sudan and South Sudan. *Journal of International Studies*, 12, 81na1
- Oyewole, S. (2017). Making the Sky Relevant to Battle Strategy: Counterinsurgency and the Prospects of Air Power in Nigeria. *Studies in Conflict & Terrorism*, 40(3), 211-231. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1057610X.2016.1188533>.
- Palát, M. (2011). Economic causes and consequences of international migration of labour. *Discussions on Estonian Economic Policy*, 121-137. Retrieved from http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1998852.
- Raineri, L., & Martini, A. (2017). ISIS and Al-Qaeda as Strategies and Political Imaginaries in Africa: A Comparison between Boko Haram and Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb. *Civil Wars*, 19(4), 425-447. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13698249.2017.1413226>.
- Regens, J.L, Mould, N., Vernon, E., & Mentgomery, A. (2016). Operational Dynamics of Boko Haram's Terrorist Campaign Following Leadership Succession. *Social Science Quartely*, 97(1), 44-52. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ssqu.12251>.
- Sambo, A. S. (2017). Internal Displaced Persons and Their Information Needs. *Library Philosophy and Practice. (e-Journal)*. University of Nebraska, Lincoln. Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/libphilprac>.
- Singh, H. (2017). *Central African History: The Kanem/Kanem-Bornu Empire (700 AD - 1893 AD)*. Retrieved from Right for education: <https://rightforeducation.org/2017/08/central-african-history-kanemkanem-bornu-empire-700-ad-1893-ad/>
- Start. (2015). "Global Humanitarian Assistance - A Development Initiatives". START Network.
- Torbjörnsson, D. Jonsson, M. (2017). *Boko Haram On the verge of defeat or a long term threat?* Report No FOI-R--4488--SE. Försvarsdepartementet.
- Ukpong-Umo, R.E. (2016). insurgency in Nigeria and the challenge of nationhood. *Nigerian Journal of Rural Sociology*. 16. 3. Pp. 64-69.
- UNHCR. (2017). *Nigeria situation UNHCR regional update*. Retrieved from https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/UNHCR_Regional_Update_-_Nigeria_Situation-May_2017.pdf
- UNHCR, (2015). Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2015. <https://www.unhcr.org/576408cd7.pdf>.
- United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). (2015). Nigeria Humanitarian Situation Report," http://www.unicef.org/appeals/fles/UNICEF_Nigeria_Humanitarian_Report_1_Oct_2015.pdf.

- UNICEF. (2016). UNICEF Nigeria-water, sanitation and Hygiene-Providing lifesaving intervention in water, sanitation and hygiene for internally displaced persons in north-east Nigeria. Retrieved from https://www.unicef.org/nigeria/wes_10558.html.
- United Nations Office on the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA). (2020). "2020 Humanitarian Needs Overview". *Humanitarian Country Team*. Available at: http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/nigeria_hno_2016_23122015.pdf.
- United Nations Office on the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA). (2015). "2015 Humanitarian Needs Overview". *Humanitarian Country Team*. Available at: http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/nigeria_hno_2016_23122015.pdf
- United Nations Resolutions. *n.d.* Available at: www.un.org/document/ga/res/46/a46r182.htm
- World Health Organization (WHO). (2018). *Nigeria Humanitarian Response Plan 2018*. www.fews.net/west-africa/nigeria/key-message-update/january-2018
- www.reliefweb.int/report/nigeria/north-east-nigeria-humanitarian-situation-update-january-2018
- Zekeri .M. (2018). "Development Partners, Humanitarian Assistance and Quest for Reconstruction of North-Eastern Nigeria". *International Journal of Social Science and Humanities Review*, vol. 18, No. 2. Pp. 33-48.

