

Internal Displacement in Nigeria: Causes, Effects and Prevention

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Abstract

According to the findings of this research, the phenomenon of internal displacement in Nigeria is a substantial problem that can be traced back to a wide range of causes, such as armed conflict, community violence, and natural disasters. The repercussions of internal displacement are widespread and encompass a variety of negative outcomes, including physical and psychological damage to people, as well as disruptions to communities' social and economic systems. It is essential to address the underlying reasons of internal displacement and put effective techniques for risk reduction, early warning, and reaction into place if one want to forestall its occurrence. This may involve actions such as resolving conflicts, managing the risks of natural disasters, and using community-based ways to meeting the needs of people who have been displaced inside their own country. This study posits that there is also a need for an improved level of dedication and cooperation on the part of the government, in addition to help from international organisations, in order to solve the problem of internal displacement in Nigeria.

Keywords

interna displacement;
insecurity; Nigeria; prevention;
causes; effects



I. Introduction

Internal displacement is the involuntary or coerced movement of persons who have fled their homes, communities and livelihoods as a result of disasters such aswar, violent conflicts, human rights abuses, persecution, repression and natural phenemenon but have not sought refuge in another country. It has become amajor global phenomenon of the modern world that is obtainable in many countries and regions (Okon, 2018).Most times, it is the outcome of violence and gross human rights abuse which may lead to dramatic changes in family structures and gender roles, severe hardship, suffering, destitution, vulnerability, social deprivation, need for protection and assistance and death of the displaced persons (Ansa, 2010:12).Globally, a significant number of people live displaced within the borders of their country or country of habitual residence. The rate of internal displacement in any country is determined by multiple factors which may include the country's political stability, respect for the rule of law, intrinsic natural disasters and government responsiveness inter alia.

There exists no legal or universally accepted definition of Internally Displaced Persons as different scholars have espoused different versions of the concept. The concept has been expanded and contractedto accommodate or restrict certain sets or groups of persons based on the schorlars' perspectives. In other situations where a set of scholars adopt a common definition, there has been different understanding and interpretation of the terms inherent in such definition. For the purpose of this study, the Guiding principles' definition of Internally Displaced Persons will be adopted because the document is a product of the United Nations.

Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) according to the Guiding Principles are: persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or 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 generalised violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognised state border (Okon, 2018).

Thus, a person, persons or group of persons can only be considered as internally displaced when forced migration has taken place within a country in a bid to escape disasters of any form. This definition has streamlined and narrowed down the conditions that are necessary for persons to be considered as internally displaced persons. Their migration from their communities must have been forcefully induced by natural or manmade disasters. This does not remove the personal will of these persons as obtained in cases of abductions and kidnappings, but the need for survival which propels them from danger to a safer environment. It is worthy of note that this migration must not transcend the borders of the country.

This definition does not capture those who migrate within a country for social, political or economic reasons because their movement has not been induced by coercion neither are they moving away from grave danger. Evictions are not considered as instances of internal displacement because they usually take place outside the emergency contexts of evacuation. Evictions may be authorised and carried out in accordance with the law, carried out in public interests, carried out when there is no alternative or carried out with just and fair compensation (Adesote & Peters, 2015). This definition also excludes those who are forcefully fleeing from danger but have crossed an international border. On the one hand, they are displaced but on the other hand, they are not internally displaced but internationally displaced and generally known as refugees.

Refugees and asylum seekers may become IDPs after returning to their country if they are forced to flee internally for safety reasons. Their status however remains if they are displaced in the country of refuge. They may become displaced within their country of refuge in the course of a disaster, but this does not alter their status or their rights as refugees. That is to say, that a displaced refugee while seeking refuge remains a refugee. Legal and illegal immigrants and stateless persons can become internally displaced persons if they have always lived in the country within which they are forced to flee. Displaced persons who transit through another country before returning to find refuge in a safer part of their own country are still considered IDPs. It is not their flight route that is decisive, but the fact that they found refuge within the internationally recognised borders of their country. Homeless persons are not considered as internally displaced persons because there is no coercion, disaster, home or flight involved in their case (Okon, 2018).

In recent times, natural disasters have displaced more people than conflicts. Globally, most of the 24 million new disaster displacements recorded in 2016 were linked to sudden weather hazards such as floods, storms, wildfires and severe winter conditions (Guardian, 2017). However, this can not be said of the situation in Nigeria which enjoys favourable weather condition and where displacement has been occasioned by unending violence. When there exist a serious and imminent threat to life and health of citizens, competent authorities have an obligation to protect the population under their jurisdiction, including in some cases through evacuation. This usually takes place during emergencies and is a temporary measure to safeguard the life and integrity of people who would otherwise have been exposed to threats posed by conflict, violence or disasters (Okon, 2018). IDPs live in a variety of circumstances, including in camps, in informal settlements, with host families and in independently rented or purchased accommodation. The majority of the world's IDPs take

refuge outside camps and a single displacement can affect many communities. Communities that bear the burden of internal displacement include the host communities, communities in return areas, and those into which IDPs chose to settle in and integrate.

II Review of Literature

2.1 Internal Displacement in Nigeria

Internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Nigeria have been caused by civil war, insurgency and counterinsurgency, communal violence, religious violence, political violence, natural disasters and conflict over resources (Adeleye & Osadola, 2022). Majority of 36 States in Nigeria are prone to experiencing natural disasters especially, flooding. Electoral violence displaced people in 9 States in 2011 alone (Bauchi, Sokoto, Zamfara, Niger, Katsina, Jigawa, Kano, Adamawa and Akwa Ibom). Communal violence is a prominent cause of internal displacement. It is often accompanied by violent clashes between communities and several violations of human rights. Before the onset of insurgency, communal violence was the regular and constant cause of displacement across Nigeria. The causes of communal violence in Nigeria have historical roots. This has been reflected by the rise in communal violence, which simplified, can be summarised into five categories: ethnic rivalry, religious violence, land conflicts, conflicts related to the demarcation of administrative boundaries and political elections (Osadola, 2012).

Not less than two million Nigerians, slum-dwellers and other marginalized people in particular have been forcibly evicted from their homes since 2000. Most notable in Lagos, Abuja and Port Harcourt. These government-sanctioned evictions are usually carried out in the name of security and urban renewal programmes. In 2012 alone, thousands of people were forcefully evicted in Abonnema and Makoko slums in Rivers and Lagos States respectively. Further demolitions took place in 2013, mostly because of development programmes. Armed militants and insurgents have created and aided insecurity to the level of forcing people to flee from their habitual places of residence. This is widespread in rural areas especially where government security forces had little reach to combat them (Okon, 2018).

Ethnic and religious conflicts are often closely linked to the “indigene-settler” divide, and often related to competition for political and economic influence. Conflicts over land and political boundaries, emergence and activities of militant groups, and creation of new territories have caused displacement in Nigeria, having led to over fifty incidents of communal violence between 1999 and 2002 (Osadola, 2012). In spite of the intensity and numerous incidents of communal violence, the unending Boko Haram terrorism is adjudged to be the main reason for displacement in Nigeria since the civil war. It is responsible for over 90 per cent of displacement and is followed by communal conflict which is the second leading cause (Okon, 2018).

Displacement sometimes lasts for just a few days, but in recent years people have often been internally displaced for several months or years. With regards to internally displaced persons in Nigeria in recent times, the prominent causes of displacement are insurgency and counterinsurgency efforts, communal violence between Christians and Muslims, political violence, flooding, forced evictions, competition for resources. The 2015 reports of United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (September) and International Organization for Migration (August) set the number of IDPs in Nigeria at 2,150,451 and added that the “majority of the IDPs are identified in Borno” (Kushi, 2018).

III. Discussion

3.1 Causes of Internal Displacement in Nigeria

Man-made causes: In Nigeria, large displacement episodes are usually facilitated by manmade violent causes. Armed conflict and human right violations remain the major causes of internal displacement (Kushi, 2018). Frequent causes of displacement in Nigeria include ethnic conflicts, religious conflicts, political conflicts especially electoral violence, insurgency and terrorism, counterinsurgency and counterterrorism. Usually, violence occasions stiff competition over land, economic and political resources. Also, violence may be employed when groups have mutually exclusive interests or goals. Dispute over values, political and economic resources does not automatically become violent unless there are available resources such as money and leadership to prosecute the violence (Schmeidl, 2003:136; Soetan & Osadola, 2018). The majority of internally displaced persons who are found in Borno were displaced due to insecurity (Osadola & Emah, 2022). Occasionally, internal displacement has been induced by non-violent causes such as fire outbreak, gas explosion, development and conservation projects.

Natural causes: More often than not, nature wrecks havoc on the environment leading to loss of lives and properties and also, to displacement of persons. The climate of Nigeria is not really vulnerable to natural disasters. This does not imply that the country is immune to natural disasters but encounters few disasters in comparison with some other countries like the United States of America, China, Japan and Indonesia. Natural disaster remains a major cause of displacement. Though a natural phenomenon, its scale of devastation can be mitigated when measures are taken to reduce risks in disaster prone areas (IDMC, 2013:19). The commonest natural disaster in Nigeria is flood. Rivers and other water bodies usually overflow their banks majorly due to heavy rainfall but also as a result of bad waterways, poor drainage system and poor waste management. Other natural hazards include storm and erosion (UNHCR, 2015:99).

Below are displacement causes in Nigeria:

1. Displacement episodes in Lagos

On January 27, 2002, the Ikeja Cantonment bomb blast occurred. The explosion at the armoury sent artillery shells and bombs on the city and caused many residents to flee to supposed safety but they fell into the canal, parallel to the Isolo-oshodi expressway. The stampede at the canal caused the death of at least 600 people (BBC, 2002). The bomb blast was responsible for the death of more than a thousand people and affected more civilian population than the Military (NYT, 2002). It caused injuries for more than 5000 people, left about 12,000 homeless and caused about 20,000 people to flee the city. Relief agencies provided support to the displaced persons. The internally displaced persons from this incident were camped at the Ikeja Police College and the Albati Barracks, Ojuelegba (Okon, 2018).

The North-South conflict is a contemporary development which has intensified following the cancellation of the results of the June 12, 1993 elections by the Nigerian military rulers. The Yoruba saw the cancellation of the elections, which were won by a Yoruba man as the climax of a series of injustices perpetrated by the northern power elite (Alobo & Obaji, 2016). Communal clashes between Yoruba and Hausa-Fulani in Lagos have worsened with the involvement of the Oodua Peoples Congress (OPC). In October 2000 clashes between a Yoruba group and Hausa-Fulani caused the displacement of about 3,000 Hausa. These clashes are viewed as attacks on Hausa or northerners in the southwest and are usually followed by reprisal attacks on Yoruba in the north. In Idi-Araba and surrounding areas in Mushin, Lagos, conflict between Hausa and Yoruba claimed more than seventy lives from February 2nd to 4th 2002. It started off with a minor disagreement which escalated into

an ethnic conflict. People were killed across both ethnic divide. More than a hundred were injured and hundreds of houses and public buildings were burnt. Most of the victims were adult men and the majority of deaths and injuries were inflicted with machetes. Thousands of people were displaced by the fighting in Idi-Araba. About 2,500 people were evacuated by the Red Cross while many others left spontaneously, in the general panic(Okon, 2018).

2. Bakassi Peninsula

In October 2002, the International Court of Justice (ICJ), Hague decided that Bakassi was part of Cameroon and not Nigeria. Until then, Bakassi had been part of Nigeria and was one of the 774 units of local government in the country. Cameroon undertook not to compel Nigerian nationals to leave or to change their nationality and agreed to respect their culture, language and protect their property and customary land rights. An estimate of over 100,000 people from Bakassi have moved to Nigeria while majority of these people moved to Cross River State (Okon, 2018). Apart from their apparent displacement, Bakassi people are at the risk of being stateless. Many of the displaced persons from the Peninsula are settled in Cross Rivers, Bayelsa, Rivers, and Akwa Ibom with the predicament of not having a nationality. They are Nigerians and want to remain Nigerians but Cameroon does not permit dual Nationality. Thus, those who choose to remain Nigerians will become aliens in their own land. This is in addition to the Bakassi returnees that were internally displaced from Bakassi Peninsula that was handed over by Nigeria to Cameroon in 2008 (Alobo & Obaji, 2016).

3. Middle Belt

The Tiv-Jukun conflicts are centred on land disputes, political power tussles and environmental stress occasioned by population growth. Violence erupted when Tivs were blamed for the death of a Hausa traditional ruler in Nassarawa state. Subsequently, the series of armed confrontations from June to July 2001 in Nassarawa and Taraba states forced more than 25,000 people to flee to Benue State. Several hundred thousand IDPs from neighbouring states had ended up in camps in Benue State by October 2001 when it witnessed a major displacement brought about by military operation.

By October 2001, about 300,000 people were displaced in Nigeria's central region as a result of communal clashes and attacks launched against several communities by the army. As at January 2002, IDPs continued to arrive in Benue as fresh threats of reprisals were reportedly issued against Tiv settlements in neighbouring Taraba State by members of the Jukun community (Okon, 2018). The numbers overwhelm the National Commission for Refugees and it became impossible to assemble credible statistics on displaced persons fleeing the Benue/Taraba violence and the Army reprisals. The entire population of displaced persons was spread across camps in Benue State, including Agasha, Daudu, Yelwata, Ukpian, Udei, Torkura, Kyato, Jootar, Chito and Kaseyo camps (Tajudeen & Adebayo, 2013).

4. Kaduna episodes

Displacement occurred in Kaduna in 2000 as a result of violence which marred a march organised by the Christian Association of Nigeria (CAN) to protest the proposed introduction of Islamic law (Sharia) in the state. The clashes in the state capital, in which at least 400 people were killed, created fear among people who formerly lived as neighbours (Okon, 2018). Physical segregation of the city increased after these clashes, leaving the population deeply polarised along religious and ethnic lines. The crisis spilled over to outlying Local Government Areas, particularly Kachia and Birnin Gwari. In 2000 over 63,000 people were displaced within Kaduna and its surroundings. Ethnic and religious violence caused renewed displacement in July 2001. Large scale violence broke out after the introduction of Sharia law in Kaduna state but tensions go back as far as the British rule, with ethnic, agricultural, and

political undertones. This excludes thousands of others that fled to their places of origin or fled to live with relatives elsewhere. More than twenty refugee camps were opened in military barracks, Police barracks, private residences, schools and churches (Okon, 2018).

5. Kano

The June 2000 riot in Kano was a sequel to the February violence in Kaduna which was to protest the introduction of Sharia law in northern Nigeria. Kano and Kaduna have large Christian populations, unlike the states of Zamfara and Sokoto which met with little or no resistance upon their adoption of Sharia. Religious riots in Kano intensified when US air raids against Afghanistan provoked religious violence in 2001. Thousands of protesters took to the streets to denounce U.S. air raids on Afghanistan and met with a group of Christians, thereby causing violence. Thousands of residents fled their homes and sought refuge at police stations and military barracks (Okon, 2018). About 30 people were killed and 10,000 displaced in two days of violence between Muslims and Christians in the northern city of Kano in May 2004 (Alobo & Obaji, 2016).

6. Plateau State

Major displacement was caused by the September 2001 clashes in Jos between the Hausa-Fulani Muslims and indigenous Berom, Anaguta and Afizere groups who are predominantly Christians. Violent conflicts broke out over natural resources and political power along the indigene-settler divide. The violence spread to other parts of Plateau State such as Langtang, Kuru and Pankshin districts leaving the total number of displaced persons in the State at 60,000. New displacement occurred in 2002 as a result of retaliatory attacks and bandit raids involving Fulani herdsmen and elements from neighbouring Niger and Chad on predominant farming communities (Okon, 2018).

Unlike other parts of Nigeria, which have regularly experienced communal violence, Jos, until September 2001 had always been viewed as a peaceful city as it only experienced an instance of electoral violence in the 1990s. 2008 conflict displaced at least 10,000 people (Adeleye, 2017:336). In February 2004, at least 2,500 people fled violence between Muslims and Christians in Plateau State and sought refuge in neighbouring Bauchi State (Okon, 2018). Jos has since remained volatile as recurrent attacks have continued to displace people since the onset in September 2001 when ethnic and religious violence between Muslims and Christians caused over a thousand deaths (Alobo & Obaji, 2016). Overall, the various conflicts in Plateau state have occurred and spread through Bukuru, Kuru, Vom, Jos, Dutse Uku, Dogo Nahawa, Zot among others.

7. Cattle herders attack in Adamawa and Gombe states

Farming communities in Dumne were attacked in February 2003, temporarily displacing some 20,000 people from 20 communities. Similar attacks in Gombe State during the same period affected 14 villages and over 3,000 people were displaced. Udawa cattle herders attacked and burned 34 farming villages in Adamawa and Gombe States in February and March 2003 resulting in 63 dead, 563 injured and 23,700 displaced. This conflict resulted in dozens of deaths and forced more than 25,000 Fulani herdsmen to flee across the border to Cameroon. The displaced persons, mostly women and children, fled their villages to urban centers in search of safety, shelter and means of sustenance (Ejiofor et al., 2017).

8. Land ownership and boundary demarcation disputes

In 2001, conflict over land between Akaeze and Osso Edda in Ebonyi state displaced more than 1,000 people, many of whom took refuge in and around Afikpo town. It claimed at least 27 lives while many private and public properties were destroyed. A dispute over grazing

land between local farming communities and Fulani broke out, displacing hundreds in Taraba state (Ejiofor et al., 2017). Controversy on demarcation between LGAs in the Cross River and Akwa Ibom states caused violence and displacement in 2001. Clashes between communities in Akwa Ibom state displaced hundreds in April 2003. In 2000, Ile-Ife and Modakeke in Osun state erupted over land, thereby causing over 2,000 deaths and several more injuries. Over 10,000 displaced persons from this conflict were initially camped at the Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife before moving to other neighbouring towns in Osun, Oyo and Ondo states.

Ile-Ife and Modakeke are two neighbouring communities in Osun State of southwestern Nigeria. Both communities are so close together that it is said to be impossible to delimit a clear-cut boundary between them. A visitor to the area would hardly know when s/he left one community for the other as both communities have, through long historical interaction, including inter-marriages and extensive business and development partnerships, evolved into a single large conurbation. The two communities belong to the Yoruba nation. Despite this closeness, both communities have a long and surprising history of mutual antipathy that frequently spills over into spasmodic crises and violence (Alobo & Obaji, 2016).

Table 1. Major displacements in 2001

No.	Type	Period	State	Number of people displaced
1.	Communal conflict	Feb. 2001	Cross River	3,000
2.	Communal conflict	April 2001	Taraba	18,000
3.	Communal/ethnic conflict	June 2001	Bauchi	22,866
4.	Nasarawa ethnic conflict	June/July 2001	Nasarawa	45,000
5.	Communal conflict	July 2001	Kaduna	4,991
6.	Communal conflict	July 2001	Delta	643
7.	Ethnic conflict	July 2001	Taraba	10,000

9. Boko Haram Insurgency

Boko Haram is a common name for the insurgent group known as *Jamā'at Ahl as-Sunnah lid-Da'wah wa'l-Jihād* (people committed to the propagation of the prophet's teachings and jihad). The group was established in 2002 in Maiduguri, North-East Nigeria by Mohammed Yusuf as a religious movement committed to the creation of an Islamic state based on its interpretation of Islam, which would address the ills of the society especially corruption and inept governance. Boko Haram draws ideas and inspiration from newer radical Muslim entities. It has been linked with al-Qaeda and some radical African Muslim jihadi groups (McGoldrick, 2005). The causes of the insurgency as espoused by scholars and analysts are religious doctrines, pervasive poverty, lack of education and exposure. Since 2009 when Abubakar Shekau became the leader of Boko Haram, the group began massive violence resulting to the wanton killing of not less than 15,000 persons, destruction of private and public properties, kidnapping of thousands and the displacement of millions of people in North-East Nigeria – Borno, Adamawa and Yobe; Northern Cameroon; Niger; Mali and Chad (Kullima, 2019:139).

The insurgency has been intense that in 2013, a state of emergency was declared in Borno, Adamawa and Yobe states in an attempt to stop or reduce the incessant attacks by Boko Haram (McGoldrick, 2005). Women and girls had been particularly targeted and subjected to horrific abuse. Villages and towns like Bama, Damboa, Goniri, Mubi, Baga, Dikwa, Hong, Gwoza, Michika and Askira were looted, destroyed and their political structures were disorganised as Boko Haram took over towns and villages across Borno, Adamawa and Yobe. Boko Haram has also targeted and attacked many schools, killing teachers and students in order to prevent people from going to school since the group is

against Western education (Alobo & Obaji, 2016). At least, 300 schools have been attacked, numerous students and teachers killed while hundreds of students have been kidnapped, especially girls (Ejiofor et al., 2017). The ongoing insurgent and counter-insurgent activities in Borno, Adamawa, Yobe and Gombe have affected more than 14 million lives and caused widespread devastation in the region (McGoldrick, 2005).

3.2 Effects of Internal Displacement

Forced displacement affects a wide range of people in different aspects of their lives. It is insufficient to say that only the internally displaced persons bear the burden of internal displacement even though they are the worst hit in the scale of things. Internal displacement renders internally displaced persons poor and deprives them of the means of providing for them as it creates special needs and vulnerabilities. It has social and economic effects on the place of displacement. Martinelli (2019) stated that policies that only rely on economic growth are policies that limit the circulation of assets among the rich people. The population left behind during the flight is usually unable to enhance or promote social cohesion, social participation and economic growth. This ultimately affects the chances of the population's survival (Kushi, 2018). The social and economic life of their place of refuge is equally affected. It witnesses culture shock and culture mix in its various forms which may include acculturation, assimilation or amalgamation. The lives and living of internally displaced persons are nevertheless influenced to a great extent by the social and cultural values of the place of refuge.

The inclusion of the displaced population in the economy of their place of refuge without their contribution towards it tends to strain the economy. Environmental stress is also induced by the attendant overpopulation or congestion caused by the displacement on the place of refuge (Alobo & Obaji, 2016). The effects of internal displacement are usually unpleasant, enduring, grave, disastrous and long-lasting. Succinctly put, internal displacement is so severe that internally displaced persons face destitution and severance of family and communal ties. This implies the loss of their homes, land, and livelihoods. Despite the physical and psychological trauma suffered by the IDPs at the place of displacement, they are still discriminated and segregated in their new environment with little or no help to cope with the new life and status. This has caused many of them, especially the youth to take succour in stimulants, alcohol and hallucinogens. A sizeable number of them often engage in crimes such as stealing, kidnapping, robbery and prostitution for sustenance (Kushi, 2018).

Generally, internal displacement often delay and obstruct growth and development of affected peoples and places, setting them back on development tracks, especially in conflict-induced displacement (NRC, 2013:7). It impedes social cohesion at the place of displacement and the place of refuge. It thus "*hampers families' basic patterns of self-provision, participation and socialization, but often causes the rupture and collapse of family ties themselves*" (Espinosa, 2009:5).

Internal displacement is a live-changing event which alters the lives of displaced persons and disrupts the wellbeing and functioning of the related communities. It does this by hampering their conventional livelihoods thereby creating vulnerability and dependence on humanitarian assistance (Alobo & Obaji, 2016). Forced displacement is a cause and consequence of conflict. When conflicts or natural disasters displace people, it is imperative that the displaced persons are properly managed so that their displacement does not cause conflict (Newman, 2003:5).

Masses of people in flight are not only affecting their own societies but also have the potential to disrupt the stability of entire countries, destabilizing regional and international security. Displacement does not only affect the displaced persons and their communities. Its effects have the tendency to spread through regions and countries, disrupting the stability and

causing insecurity and economic stagnation (Jörnruud, 2012:18). Despite the needs and vulnerabilities of displaced persons, they pose a risk to national and international security and economy because they can be a source of armed terror because of the existing nexus between displacement, human rights abuses and security (Newman, 2003:17). The nature and magnitude of forced migration may foster insecurity if the social, ethnic, political or cultural composition of the displaced persons distorts the internal balance of their place of refuge (Suhrke, 2003:97).

IV. Conclusion

Strategies for Prevention of Internal Displacement in Nigeria

The working template espoused by the “National Policy on Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Nigeria” on the prevention of internal displacement is as follows:

- a. The relevant agencies and sector leads shall put in place measures to protect the rights of individuals and communities including protection from forced eviction
- b. NEMA shall collaborate with relevant agencies to ensure the adequate and comprehensive implementation of the National Contingency Plan and National Disaster Management Framework including:
 - i. Establishment and activation of early warning systems
 - ii. Strengthening of coping mechanism for community resilience against the hazard, and preventing possible escalation.
 - iii. Deployment of Disaster Risk Reduction strategies targeting vulnerable populations and communities-at-risk
 - iv. Building the capacities of communities on Participatory Vulnerability Analysis (PVA) to enable communities develop their local emergency preparedness and response plans
- c. Establishment and enforcement of accountability mechanisms including legal frameworks that will hold individuals, institutions and multi-national concerns accountable for actions or inactions resulting directly or indirectly in displacement of vulnerable populations
- d. Deployment of Conflict Prevention and Mitigation strategies that will minimise or eliminate various types of conflicts that displace people and entire communities
- e. Development and implementation of measures that will prevent ecological and environmental degradation including climate change and desertification which could cause displacement
- f. Promotion of good governance and reduction in poverty so as to reduce people’s vulnerability to displacement

Strategies for Protection and Assistance of IDPs During Displacement

- a. Provision of relief materials and assistance in line with the Sphere Minimum Standards for Humanitarian Assistance in all relevant sectors
- b. Adequate deployment of the National Disaster Management Framework (NDMF) by NEMA as part of the Comprehensive Displacement Management and Implementation Framework
- c. Mechanisms for coordinated management and administration of IDP camps
- d. Special protection and assistance provided for women, children, the elderly, persons with disabilities and persons living with HIV/AIDS
- e. Profiling of IDPs and Data collection for planning of humanitarian assistance and protection interventions
- f. Mechanisms for prompt activation of local and international humanitarian assistance coordination sectors to respond to displacements
- g. Other measures and strategies as may be adopted by humanitarian actors towards protection and assistance of internally displaced persons

Strategies for Rehabilitation of IDPs

- a. Provision of Post-Traumatic Disorder Counselling & Support services
- b. Reconstruction of damaged facilities and restoration of social amenities
- c. Restoration of economic livelihoods and food security
- d. Rehabilitation of the environment of host communities
- e. Peace-building and conflict mediation/reconciliation
- f. Re-issuance of lost documentation

Strategies for Return, Relocation and Local Integration of IDPs

- a. Provision of comprehensive return packages for IDPs
- b. Recovery and restoration of lands, houses and other property left behind by IDPs during displacement
- c. Ensuring safety & security prior to, during and after return
- d. Reconstruction of shelters and settlements lost during displacement
- e. Provision of sustainable livelihood opportunities
- f. Restoration of social services, infrastructure & amenities
- g. Activation of social protection measures and safety net mechanisms

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