



Role of Non-Governmental Organizations on Internally Displaced Persons in Borno State, Nigeria

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Abstract

The study examined the Non-governmental Organization Humanitarians (NGOs) aid on Internally Displaced Persons in Borno State. The objectives of the study are to assess the role of Non-Governmental Organizations in poverty Reduction strategies Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) and provision of psychosocial support to IDPs. This study adopted quantitative research method utilized data collected from analysis that applied exploratory interpretive method, secondary sources. The findings revealed that NGOs such as United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) has contributed to the poverty reduction in Internally Displaced Persons camps through skill acquisition programmes, particularly training on the cap making, embroidery design on fabrics, tailoring, hairdressing, shoes making, soap making, etc. United Nations Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF) has contributed in educating children in various Camps in Maiduguri. The study concluded that NGOs have contributed immensely in provision of humanitarian aids. The study recommended that Nigerian government should provide maximum support to NGOs in their effort to provide humanitarian aids.

Keywords: NGOs, Development, Poverty, Internally Displaced Persons

JEL Code: F35, F32

Contribution/Originality:

Knowledge: This study anchored on the Human Needs as one of the few studies which have short relationship between internally displaced persons and non-governmental organization in Borno state Nigeria. The major divergence from other studies is that have focused on the impact of non-governmental organization contribution to Internally Displaced Persons in Borno state Nigeria.

1.0 Introduction

The arrival of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in various camps has reach a point that the management of IDPs camps are not able to provide adequate basic relief materials such as food, healthcare services, clothes, shelter and education. This exposed them to harsh environmental conditions, hunger, malnutrition, cholera and dysentery, as well as increase in illiteracy, poverty and psychosocial illness in the Internally Displaced Persons camps.

The security challenges posed by Boko Haram insurgency have prevented communities from farming and that becomes problems to government. Internally Displaced Persons have lost all their sources of livelihood without peace and source of household income. The hardship among internally displaced persons attracted attentions of International Non-Governmental Organisation to provide humanitarian aids to internally displace persons in Borno State (Terab, 2018).

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International Non-Governmental Organization in Internally Displaced Persons Camps in Borno State include United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), International Organization for Migration (IOM), International Rescue Committee, Family Health International (FHI-360), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), World Health Organization (WHO), Alliance For International Medical Action (ALIMA), Action Against Hunger, Medicins Sans Frontiers (MSF), Medicines du Monde, Premiere Urgence Internationale, International Medical Corps, and Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) (see BSHS Bulletin, 2016).

The NGOs are providing humanitarian aid to Sixteen (16) Internally Displaced Persons Camps in Maiduguri which include: Gubio camp 400 housing estates accommodating 400 persons from Gubio Local Government Area, Maishimari Primary School Camp accommodating persons from Dikwa Local Government Area, Goni Katchallari Primary School camp accommodating persons from Mafa Local Government Area, Government Girls Secondary School Yerwa camp accommodating persons from Bama Local Government Area. Women Teachers' College camp accommodating persons for Gwoza Local Government Area, National Youth Service Corps Camp accommodating persons for Konduga Local Government Area, Government Girls College Maiduguri camp accommodating persons for Gwoza Local Government Area, Government College camp Gwoza Local Government Area, Arabic College Camp accommodating persons for Askira Uba Local Government Area, Teachers Village camp accommodating persons for Monguno and Kukawa Local Government Areas, Christian Association of Nigeria Centre camp accommodating persons Goshe, Bakassi camp accommodating persons for Nganzai and Baga Local Government Areas; Government Secondary School Mafoni camp accommodating persons for Mobar, Gudumbali, and Abadam Local Government Areas, 500 Housing Estate at Dikwa Lowcost camp accommodating persons Gamboru, Dikwa, Marte and Kala-Balge Local Government Areas, and Dalori Quarters camp accommodating persons Bama Local Government Area. The population of Internally Displaced Persons from all the 16 camps in Maiduguri was estimate as 1.4 million persons in Maiduguri (NEMA, 2016).

It is against this background that, this study is triggered humanitarian aids: provision of that aforementioned NGOs in Maiduguri Borno State. The objectives of the study is to assess the Non-governmental Organizations on Internally Displaced Persons in Borno State. The specific objectives are to:

- i. Determine the role of Non-Governmental Organization in poverty Reduction to Internally Displaced Persons,
- ii. Examine the role of Non-Governmental Organization in provision of psychosocial support to Internally Displaced Persons.

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Concept of Humanitarian Aids

Humanitarian aid is a physical or logistical assistance providing for caring purposes, typically in response to humanitarian crises including natural disasters and man-made disaster. Also, (Oruko 2002) defined it as an action designed to save lives, alleviate suffering and maintain and protect human dignity during and in the outcome of man-made crises and natural disasters, as well as to prevent and strengthen preparation for the occurrence of such situations

According to Nowland-Foreman, (2002) Humanitarian aid is defined as help reduced to conflicts harmfully affected civilians both directly, and indirectly, through the resulting complex emergencies that protracted conflicts create (Stites, & Lautze, 2015). In the immediate area of conflict, the primary aim is preventing human casualties and ensuring access to the basic needs for survival: water, sanitation,

food, shelter, and health care. Away from the main fighting, the priority is to assist people who have been displaced, prevent the spread of conflict, support relief work, and prepare for rehabilitation (The Sphere Project, 2004).

The increased awareness of possibly negative outcomes associated with humanitarian aid has elicited criticism along two general lines. The first examines the incentives that motivate humanitarian NGOs and the manner in which they respond to crises. The second looks at the way in which these operations affect the crises in which the NGOs are operating, including possible means by which those operations could in fact intensify conflicts or disasters.

Those who are critical of the manner in which NGOs, both in humanitarian and developmental respond to crises tend to argue that NGOs pursue their institutional interests in matters such as image and fund raising rather than actually acting based on the needs of threatened populations. (Hancock, 1989) argues that many in the field of development and relief actually use their causes for personal gain; they increase their wealth and prestige by attending conferences in internationally desirable locations and drawing large salaries while nominally addressing the actual needs of the poor. They critically call these types of actors “lords of poverty”. This is similar to the criticism (Polman 2019) offers when labels humanitarian efforts as “crisis caravans”, a “caravanasary of humanitarian aid organizations treks, apparently by common agreement, from one humanitarian territory to the next”.

The motivating factor for these organizations, she argues, goes beyond a humanitarian imperative. Rather, these organizations catch “contract fever”, in which they privilege the acquisition of new contracts above nearly all else. These contracts are obtained part through cozy relationships with the media and the inflation of statistics regarding the size of the needy population and distortion of other key facts, and may occur even in cases where the organizations are aware that their efforts may hurt more than they help.

These organizational incentives for humanitarian organizations to emphasize the needs of the recipients, perhaps even to the point where they mislead donors, has led to donors’ increasing unwillingness to implicitly trust aid organizations. (Smillie & Minear 2004) suggest that this skepticism comes about due to the fact that “many of those assessing needs are the ones who submit project proposals and spend the money, and this is thought to constitute a conflict of interest. NGOs, it is said, might exaggerate the number of people in need because their institutional survival depends on donations and grants: the more the merrier”. The problem is severe enough that Mukesh Kapila, former UN Resident and Humanitarian Coordinator for the Sudan, hat “of all the major worldwide public endeavours, the financing of the global humanitarian system is the most primitive, based on little rationality and even less accountability”

Financial incentives mean that NGOs go to locations which should bring the most publicity and may also expand their operations to cover areas not traditionally within their purview in order to obtain funding. As with any other organization, the constant need for funds is a strong motivator: “Few NGOs have ever seen a contract they didn’t like, or a problem they didn’t believe they could solve. The first priority of an NGO, like any bureaucracy, is its own survival” (Maren 1997).

However, this often-cynical view of the incentives and goals of NGOs would suggest that their initial priority is not in fact the need of the recipients but instead the NGO’s ability to earn funds and engage in operations. Under this framework the individual need is simply a vehicle for NGO self-preservation and enrichment. There are contrary perspectives, and Büthe, Major, and de Melloe Souza (Forthcoming), in one of the first empirical examinations of NGO activities, do find that aid is distributed primarily in response to recipient needs. However, the cynical perspective is well entrenched in the literature, and it is likely that the debate over NGO motivations and responses will continue to be debated well into the future (Roberts and Hofmann, 2004).

A similar debate regarding the actual effects of humanitarian aid on recipient populations. In one of the most public examples of this debate, during the Rwandan conflict Médecins sans Frontières' (MSF) France feared that they were providing medical treatment to genocidaires who would then return to killing, prompting the organization to withdraw lest it become unwittingly complicit in the genocide. This episode prompted questions of "what humanitarian aid represents, and at what point it loses its sense and becomes a technical function in the service of evil" (Terry 2002). These concerns are part of a larger "Humanitarian Dilemma", a debate between the moral imperative of humanitarian organizations to provide aid to those in need and the potential for this aid to result in negative externalities and unintended consequences (Väyrynen, 1999).

There have been numerous arguments made as to how aid may have indirect negative consequences on humanitarian crises, particularly (but not limited to) during civil conflicts. (Luttwak 1999) argues that humanitarian action by NGOs unequivocally interferes with the natural processes of war and exacerbates conflict by creating "refugee nations" and inserting material aid that may supply active combatants. Humanitarian assistance may also free resources that would otherwise be used for non-combat purposes in a substitution effect for either rebels or governments, allowing these groups to use the resources to support their war efforts (Goodhand, 2000).

Aid or its benefits may also be directly transferred from humanitarian agencies to combatants in the form of rents or payment for services. In the chaotic environment of a conflict zone, aid organizations may end up becoming dependent on local military forces for protection or access, a fact which can be leveraged by the belligerents for support (Le Billon, 2000; MacFarlane, 2001). Aid generally tends to be highly visible and predictable as well (Slim, 2004), thus leaving it subject to coercive action on the part of the combatants.

In situations such as the Soviet conflict in Afghanistan, aid was routinely manipulated and subject to corruption and political favouritism. As an example, up to 40% of food aid from cross-border programs was given directly to rebels in the form of "taxation" (Goodhand, 2002). This is different than aid from governments, which (Collier & Hoeffler, 2002) argue is "difficult for a rebel organization to capture during a conflict," (*italics theirs*) as most goes directly to government coffers and projects. The notable exception is food aid, which rebels can capture by threatening distribution channels.

Assistance can also be indirectly transferred from aid agencies to combatants through civilian populations, where it may be collected as taxes or confiscated outright. Civilians territory held by rebels, including those opposed to the rebel cause, may be reluctant to publicize such operations to aid agencies for fear of reprisals (Kalyvas, 2016), creating situations in which agencies possibly have little control or specific knowledge regarding where these transfers are taking place. Insurgents or rebels also use their ability to blend into the population for strategic purposes (DeMars, 1995), making it difficult to distinguish legitimate civilian economic actors from those supporting or actively engaged in the war (Goodhand, 2000). This also may be a consideration in refugee camps, which (Terry, 2002) argues can unwittingly give safe haven to or provide services for disguised combatants.

Aid can also affect the incentives for settling a conflict. Individuals who profit from the conflict, such as employees of foreign groups working in the conflict zone, or those receiving rents who face a loss of income with peace, have an economic incentive to continue fighting (MacFarlane 2001, 15; Goodhand, 2000). It may also be used by rebel elites to motivate combatants to continue fighting by making continued conflict more profitable than peace (Regan and Norton 2005; Ballentine and Nitzsche, 2003).

The presence of humanitarian aid may also extend conflict by affecting the likelihood that a conflict will reach what Zartman describes as a "hurting stalemate" (1995). According to Zartman, governments and rebels may be more likely to negotiate a settlement to conflict when they have reached a stalemate

that inflicts costs on both parties, making a negotiated outcome preferable to the status quo. If humanitarian intervention alters the amount or degree of suffering experienced by one or both sides, it may alter the actors' relative valuations of the status quo and make a negotiated peace less attractive (Kalyvas, 2016).

The infusion of assistance also has the ability to potentially exacerbate underlying social tensions if it is perceived to be biased in the manner in which it is distributed or causes conflict over its distribution or other resources. (Hyndman 2009) found that tsunami aid in Aceh, Indonesia, ignited tensions between those who were victims of the tsunami and those who had suffered from the longstanding civil conflict. Tsunami victims were characterized by some as 'the lucky ones' in light of the fact that post-conflict reintegration aid was only 2.5% of the total aid allocated for tsunami relief (94). Aid may also legitimize actors or processes directly involved in the conflict, making them or their cause appear to be worthwhile and increasing supporting (Goodhand 2002).

Not all believe that aid makes crises worse. There are also arguments that it could perhaps have beneficial consequences. (MacFarlane, 2001) echoes this opinion, arguing that the viewpoint that aid can sustain or exacerbate conflict is "overblown", and highlights another perspective which he terms "conflict transformation", arguing that aid can help bring about peace (MacFarlane 2001). (Keen 1998), also argues that aid can shorten or prevent conflict, particularly "where it relieves a subsistence crisis that is encouraging people to take up arms in pursuit of sustenance". Others have argued that economic compensation to warring parties can help bring about peace and cease-fire agreements, as reportedly was the case with some factions in Burma (Ballentine and Nitzschke, 2003).

Overall the findings on the aid's effect on crises are mixed. Some militaries have taken measures to avoid supplying their enemies under the belief that such actions will exacerbate the fighting. (Goodhand 2002) argues that NGOs activity in Afghanistan helped exacerbate and sustain the conflict, while Vayrynen argues that assistance appears to have sustained and prolonged crises in Kampuchea, Sudan, Liberia, and the Great Lakes region of Africa (1999). Conversely, De Mars argues that although humanitarian action had a role in influencing the course of the Ethiopian conflict of the late 1970's, it neither prolonged nor resolved it (1995). Keen (1994, 204) has pointed to "Operation Lifeline" in Sudan as one example of aid actually having a beneficial effect upon conflict. Perhaps more striking than the fact that there is no clear consensus on whether or not aid is bad for crises is the fact that this question has assumed such prominence over the question of whether aid is actually effective. (Roberts and Hofmann 2004) suggested that despite numerous efforts at increasing technical competence and accountability in the humanitarian sphere, knowledge of the impact of humanitarian interventions in alleviating and suffering and ultimately reducing mortality in the health and other sectors remains limited.

2.2 Non-Governmental Organization and Poverty Reduction

Most Internally Displaced Persons who have been displaced as a result of the conflict have been unable to continue their occupation due to lack of opportunities and support. (Falobi, 2014) studied on the self-reliance in the Internally Displaced Persons camps revealed that 61% of Internally Displaced Persons surveyed indicated that they were not employed; 33% of respondents had been able to engage in income generation activities during displacement, including for example, farming, casual labour, petty trading and handcrafts. The primary reason why the majority of respondents are unable to engage in economic activities during displacement is that the unskilled labour market has become very competitive due to the influx of Internally Displaced Persons and consequent availability of cheap labour. Prior to displacement, 45% of respondents relied on farming as their primary source of livelihood, while 18% relied on trading and 10% on handcraft. Thus, although skilled employment is available, Internally Displaced Persons are generally unable to access these jobs because they lack the requisite skills.

Crisp (2016) stated that loss of assets combined with limited opportunities for generating income has meant that most Internally Displaced Persons are experiencing economic insecurity. According to an assessment by the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO) in August 2015, the majority of households in Borno, Adamawa and Yobe States (including residents, displaced and returnees) were living below the poverty line with an average income of 7,478 Naira (equivalent of USD \$37) per month at that time. Given the large size of the respondent households (average of 12 persons), this translated to USD \$3.1 per person per month. Findings from the assessment also indicated that households had relatively high debt levels ranging from 15,000 to 25,000 Naira (equivalent of USD \$75 to \$125) in the year 2015.

Burton (2012) observed that during the key informant interviews, many national authorities identified livelihoods support and skills acquisition such as cap making, embroidery, shoe making etc. as a priority need for Internally Displaced Persons. Indeed, supporting Internally Displaced Persons to establish a sustainable livelihood enables them to reduce their dependency on emergency assistance and gradually progress toward a durable solution to their situation. However, to date, the Government response in this area remains limited. Several small-scale initiatives have begun, including skills acquisition programs at some of the Internally Displaced Persons camps in Maiduguri and Yola, implemented by the State Ministries for Women's Affairs and Social Development, with support from the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA).

1. Skill Acquisition as a Poverty Management Strategy in Internally Displaced Persons Camp

One of the major strategies of poverty management is skill acquisition. Skill acquisition is the manifestation of idea and knowledge through training which is geared towards instilling in individuals, the spirit of entrepreneurship needed for meaningful development (Kok, 2017).

Skill acquisition is the process and the means of releasing human energy, it means providing an opportunity for people to make the maximum contribution to their own development and to the self-development of their communities (Ladan, 2013). When individuals are given the opportunity to acquire relevant skills needed for self-sustenance in the economy, it will promote their charisma in any work environment. Skill acquisition increases competition and cooperation among people. Also, it helps to reduce the poverty rate if people are trained in diverse areas and they in turn create wealth for themselves and their immediate environment. Everybody cannot get government job or white collar job and hence the need for skill acquisition that will shape and improve the lives of the people who have resigned to fate for lack of job.

In Borno State, where challenges related to encouraging sustained school attendance have been identified as lack of competent teacher, inadequate class rooms, inadequate writing and reading materials, efforts are ongoing to address these issues. In Borno State, for example, the Director of School Services have been engaged to monitor teacher attendance and punctuality. According to (UNICEF 2018) mapping exercise of Out of School Children (OOSC) conducted in 14 Internally Displaced Persons Camps in Borno State, 26,297 Out of School Children (13,498 boys and 12,717 girls) have had their education needs identified. In a similar exercise carried out in host communities where an estimated of Internally Displaced People reside, an additional 43,266 Internally Displaced People Out of School Children 23,299 boys and 20,057 girls in Maiduguri Metropolitan Council, Jere, Konduga and Biu Local Government Areas have also had their educational needs identified (UNICEF 2017). The data gathered has been used by education authorities to inform the allocation of learners to appropriate classes. There has been so many out of school children in Borno State despite the efforts made by the Borno state government funding primary education system yet there many out of school children.

2. Education as Poverty Management Strategy in Internally Displaced Persons Camp

International Humanitarian Non-Governmental Organizations seek to protect and provide relief, such as access to food and medical attention, to individuals facing existential threats like civil conflicts or natural disasters. The most obvious way to measure effectiveness might seem then to be a simple count of how many individuals were assisted by the organization. Save the Children International's Annual Review for 2008, for example, states that since 2005 they have "worked to give children affected by conflict a good education. They have improved the quality of education for more than 10 million children. They have also helped more than 1 million children enrol in school, and will continue working to reach our goal of getting 3 million children into the classroom" (International Save the Children Alliance 2009, 6). Others draw attention to individuals, allowing someone to "sponsor" that person with a donation.

UNICEF has been working with governments across all over the world to improve the quality of education offered by national education systems. To improve the quality of teaching and learning, UNICEF has been supporting governments in introducing Child-Friendly Schools (CFS) principles into national policies and standards, and to shift schools towards child-friendly environments and practices. UNICEF has also been partnering with national and sub-national governments to strengthen curriculum, learning materials, teacher training programmes, teacher support, and learning assessment systems (Hanushek & Woessmann, 2007).

United Nations Children's Education Fund's education work in Africa is influenced by certain key recent shifts in UNICEF's global approach to education. The focuses on children's right to education and children's right to learn. This is based on the fact that in many African countries, the focus was first on getting all children to school, and then getting them to continue in school by making schools a more child-friendly place for all children.

After considerable progress has been made in these areas of improving access and retention in education, the focus is now turning towards improving the quality not only of teaching, but also of children's learning outcomes. Though this is a relatively new area of work for UNICEF Africa on which much clarity is still needed globally, Many African countries like Liberia, Sierra Leone, Ghana and Nigeria are starting to integrate this renewed focus on learning outcomes into their UNICEF Country Programmes (McEwan, & Patrick, 2015).

Related to this shift is an attempt towards broadening the definition of learning in Nigeria to include a focus on skills beyond basic foundations of literacy and numeracy – skills that would contribute to personal, communal and societal flourishing. Personal skills necessary for productive and fulfilling work and full participation in society would include lifelong learning, critical thinking, problem-solving, and entrepreneurship. Skills that would contribute to communities thriving may include interpersonal social skills, active citizenship, gender equality, peace and social cohesion. There is also an emerging focus on transversal competencies or 21st century skills to help societies thrive in an increasingly complex and interconnected world, such as global citizenship, innovative thinking, and media and technological literacy.

United Nations Children's Emergency Fund's global education strategy in Nigeria is a move from more 'downstream' delivery of services such as trainings or material development, towards more 'upstream' influencing of policy and strengthening the capacity of government systems to themselves deliver these services with quality. UNICEF in Borno State is increasingly moving away from directly delivering these services on the ground, and towards partnerships with government systems or other non-governmental partners who can implement on the ground. In relation to improving learning, an emerging area of focus has been around strengthening assessment systems for measuring learning, as well as improved use of assessment data to improve teaching and learning across Borno State.

2.3 Non-Governmental Organization and Psychosocial Support

ICRC (2015) psychosocial support assessments of September 2015 in Yola and Maiduguri and (ICRC 2016) reported in May 2016 that Internally Displaced Persons have diverse needs requiring psychosocial intervention. In particular, a high number of respondents in Maiduguri described complaints relating to the effects of the conflict (e.g. intrusive memories, nightmares, fear, dizziness and headaches). Respondents also indicated that conditions during displacement, including lack of income to cover basic needs and lack of privacy in Internally Displaced Persons camps, causes a high degree of stress, depression, anxiety, worry, somatic complaints, low mood and hopelessness about the future; all of which impact on family relationships. In Yola, an assessment by (International Organization for Migration (IOM) 2015) report in June 2015 indicated that many IDPs residing in camps also reported anxiety and negative feelings, linked to inability to return to places of habitual residence and uncertainty about the future.

Olagunju (2016) observed that state capacity to respond to the psychosocial needs of Internally Displaced Persons are limited, due to lack of capacity in this area and overstretched resources. This was confirmed in the key informant interviews with several Government authorities indicating that psychosocial support is a priority need for Internally Displaced Persons that is currently not being addressed in a satisfactory manner. Although neuropsychiatric services are available at Maiduguri State Specialist Hospital, this is not appropriate for the majority of Internally Displaced Persons in need of psychosocial support, and in any case, Internally Displaced Persons usually cannot afford such services. While many national authorities and humanitarian actors report that they provide mental health and psychosocial support to Internally Displaced Persons, most programs only include basic psychosocial support, consisting of psychological first aid (1 to 3 sessions) in groups or on an individual basis. In Yola and Maiduguri, ICRC has trained NRCS volunteers to provide group-based psychosocial support for Internally Displaced Persons in informal settlement and host communities in catchment areas of the Primary Health Care Centres supported by ICRC.

Kok (2017) stated that aside from very basic psychosocial support and psychiatric in/outpatient treatment, there is a significant gap in providing psychosocial support for IDPs with more complex needs. Therefore, the majority of IDPs whose mental health and daily functioning have been affected by the conflict and their displacement, are not able to access adequate psychosocial services.

2.4 Empirical Review

Adam (2019) studied on the skill acquisition as humanitarian aid in IDPs Camps in Maiduguri. The objectives of the study are to identify the contributions of NGOs in poverty reduction in IDPs camps. The study adopted quantitative method survey research where 150 questionnaires were administered to the IDPs in Maiduguri. The findings revealed that 59.33% of the respondents strongly agree that cap design and embroidery is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in Internally Displaced Persons camps, were 52% of the respondents agree that tailoring is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in Internally Displaced Persons camps also 48% of the respondents agreed that Carpentry is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in Internally Displaced Persons camps and the findings further revealed that 52% of the respondents agree that soap/detergent making is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in Internally Displaced Persons camps.

Falobi (2014) studied on the enlightenment of IDPs on small business as humanitarian aids in Borno State. The objectives of the study are to assess the contributions of IDPs in the provision of business strategies for self-reliance of the IDPs and to determine the humanitarian contributions of IDPs in donation of capital to start up business. The study adopted quantitative method where 250 questionnaires were administered to the IDPs and NGOs in IDPs camps. The study adopted purposive

method of the data collection. The findings revealed that there are a number of humanitarian actors providing livelihoods assistance on a small scale. For example, Mercy Corp has recently started implementing a cash for livelihoods programme targeting 7,000 families in Southern Borno. In addition to its agricultural support to returnees International Committee of Red Cross (ICRC) is assisting approximately 6,000 widows with young children in Maiduguri through a cash-based livelihoods programme.

2.5 Human Needs Theory

This study anchored on the Human Needs Theory according to (Coate and Rosati, 1988). The theory states that human needs are a powerful source of explanation of human behaviour and social interaction. All individuals have needs they strive to satisfy, either by using the system ‘acting on the fringes’ or acting as a reformist or a revolutionary (Coate and Rosati, 1988). Human needs theory was further adopted in the works of Abraham Maslow, John Burton, Marshal Rosenberg and Manfred Max-Neef. The theory posits that the basic cause of intractable conflict is the underlying need of people to meet their needs on individual, group and societal bases. According to this theory, human beings need certain essentials if they must live and attain well-being in any ramification of life. Such essentials are known as (basic) human needs.

The argument of human needs theorists, therefore, is that the unavailability of alternative means to meet the needs of individuals or groups is what triggers violence – or conflict. Other times, violence also occurs when humans require understanding, respect and consideration for their needs. These needs are not only subsistence ones such as food, water and shelter but also other biological needs such as participation, identity, understanding and recognition (Kok, 2017); security, safety, belonging [love], self-esteem and personal fulfilment or life satisfaction (Maslow, 1973).

Burton (2012) applied human needs theory more actively to social and political conflicts looks at how universal human needs often are neglected, causing groups to use violence to claim their rights and satisfy their needs. (Marker, 2003) argued that unlike interests, needs are untradeable, in suppressible and non-negotiable. Contrary to the belief that all needs are complementarily essential to human life; no need is inferior to another, (Maslow, 1973) viewed some needs as more urgent than others, but agrees that all needs are instinctive. Those he terms more urgent he sees as more powerful too. In his opinion, the powerful needs are subsistence needs such as food, water and shelter which he claims precede all other human needs. As (Coate & Rosati, 2015) recommend, ‘social systems must be responsive to individual needs, or be subject to instability and forced change (possibly through violence or conflict)’.

Therefore, human needs theory addressed the important reason for humanitarian aid strategies in order to curtail the difficult conditions of IDPs who have lost their homes, job, families etc. the theory stress on the provision on food, shelter, healthcare, education, and clothing as the basic needs of the IDPs. Basing on these, the study adopts Human Needs Theory as the theoretical framework.

2.6 Literature Gap

From the literature reviewed in this paper, the study identified methodological gaps to be fill. In the literature reviewed, most of the studies on the humanitarian aids adopted quantitative method that basically adopted the use of questionnaires as the only instrument for data collection and failed to adopt qualitative method that focuses on the use of key informant interview and transcription into English, which is more appropriate way of analysing and presenting data on a research topic under study. This is because most of the IDPs are not educated. Most of them may not fill questionnaires appropriately but they can participate fully if a qualitative focus group discussion if conducted. Therefore, researchers should adopt qualitative research method for a viable and accurate data collection.

3.0 Methodology

The source of data for this paper is primary and secondary data. The primary data were obtained using key informant interview and focus group discussion with NGOs official and IDPs in the Dalori and Bakassi and NYSC IDP Camps in Maiduguri. These IDP Camps were chosen to represent IDP camps in Borno because they the most populated IDP camps in North East Nigeria. The secondary data utilized by this paper are journals, reports, periodicals, newspapers, magazines and bulletins. The study adopted content analysis as a method of data analysis because of the methodological considerations in Humanitarian aid. Researching in the context of humanitarian aid presents many methodological challenges beyond those normally encountered by social scientists in Nongovernmental reports on IDPs in Borno State. Focusing in these difficulties particularly terrorism – led violence often hindered the task of understanding the methods that are applicable to situations of armed conflict in the area of study. In this context, the study adopted secondary method of data collection in wider to avoid exposure to high risk of violence. Adequate secondary data that were relevant to the research were used particularly Non-governmental organisation report sheets, books, journals, internet materials, bulletins and others. The rationale for content analysis is to determine textual meaning of data. It consists of interpretivist approaches such as (critical) discourse analysis, social constructivist analyses or rhetorical analysis.

4.0 Results and Findings

4.1 Data Presentation

In presenting the data, a descriptive statistic was used, and this include the use of frequency and percentage. Five frequency tables were used for analyses of data generated. The study utilized 150 questionnaires out 165 questionnaires administered, 15 questionnaires were discarded because of errors made during completing the questionnaires.

Table 1: Socio-Demographic Information of the Respondents

S/N			Frequency	Percentage %
1.	Age Distribution of the Respondents	15-20	18	12
		21-25	34	22.67
		26-30	38	25.33
		31-35	21	14
		36-40	18	12
		40 and above	21	14
		Total	150	100
2.	Sex	Male	87	58
		Female	63	42
		Total	150	100
3.	Name of IDP Camp	Dalori I,	75	50
		NYSC	37	24.67
		Bakassi	38	25.33
		Total	150	100
4.	Position	Camp Manager	3	2
		Camp secretary	6	4
		Camp Security	8	5.33
		Community leaders	58	38.67
		in IDPs camp	75	50
		Total	150	100

Source: Field Survey, 2019.

Table 1 shows the socio-demographic information of the respondents. The first item from the table shows that (18)12% of the respondents are between 15 to 20 years of age, while 22.67% are between

21 to 25 years, (38) 25.33% of the respondents are between 26 to 30 years, (21) 14% of the respondents are between 31 to 35 years, (18) 12% of the respondents are within the age range of 36-40 years, (21) 14% of the respondents are between 40 and above. This clearly shows that majority of the respondents are within the age group of 26-30. The second item from Table 1 shows that (87) 58% of the respondents are male, (63) 42% of the respondents are female. This implies that majority of the respondents are male. The third item from Table 1 shows the names of IDPs camps. Where 75 (50%) of the respondents are from Dalori 1 camp, 37(24.67%) of the respondents are from NYSC camp and 38(25.33%) of the respondents are from Bakassi camp. This implies that the majority of the respondents are from Dalori 1 camp. The fourth item from Table 1 shows that (3) 2% of the respondents are camp manager, (6) 4% of the respondents are camp secretary, 8(5.33%) of the respondents are camp security, 58 (38.67%) of the respondents are community leaders in camp, 75 (50%) of the respondents are IDPs. This implies that majority of the respondents are students.

Table 2: Type of Skill Acquisition Training in IDPs Camps as Poverty Management strategy

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	UD	Total
1	Cap design and embroidery is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps	89 (59.33%)	24 (16%)	36 (24%)	1 (0.67%)	150 (100%)
2	Tailoring is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps	36 (24%)	78 (52%)	10 (6.67%)	26 (17.33%)	150 (100%)
3	Carpentry is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps	9 (6%)	72 (48%)	9 (6%)	60 (40 %)	150 (100%)
4	Soap/detergent making is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps	27 (18%)	78 (52%)	24 (16%)	21 (14%)	150 (100%)

Source: Field Survey, 2019.

Table 2 shows type of skill acquisition training in IDPs camps as poverty management strategy. The table shows that 59.33% of the respondents strongly agree that cap design and embroidery is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps, 16% of the respondents agree, 24% of the respondents disagree while 0.67% of the respondents is undecided. This implies that cap design and embroidery is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps. The second item in Table shows that about 24% of the respondents strongly agree that tailoring is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps, 52% of the respondents agree with the view, 17.33% of the respondents disagreed while 6.67% of the respondents are undecided. This implies that tailoring is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps. The third item in Table shows that 6% of the respondents strongly agree that carpentry is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps, 48% of the respondents agree, 40% of the respondents disagreed while about 6% of the respondents are undecided. This implies that Carpentry is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps. The fourth item in Table shows that 18% of the respondents strongly agree that soap/detergent making is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps, 52% of the respondents agree with the

view, 14% of the respondents disagree while about 16% of the respondents are undecided. This implies that soap/detergent making is a type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps.

Table 3: Provision of education in IDPs camps as poverty management strategy

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	UD	Total
1	Provision of teachers and teaching aids such as boards, chalks and text books is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps	87 (58%)	36 (24%)	3 (2%)	24 (16%)	150 (100%)
2	Provision of school bags, uniforms and writing materials such as exercise books, pens and pencils is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps	80 (53.33%)	26 (17.33%)	20 (13.34%)	24 (16%)	150 (100%)
3	Provision of free school enrolment to IDPs children as a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps	54 (36%)	78 (52%)	9 (6%)	9 (6%)	150 (100%)

Source: Field Survey, 2019.

Table 3 shows that 58% of the respondents strongly agree that provision of teachers and teaching aids such as boards, chalks and text books is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps, 24% of the respondents agree, 16% of the respondents disagree while about 2% of the respondents are undecided. This implies that provision of teachers and teaching aids such as boards, chalks and text books is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps. The second item in table shows that 53.33% of the respondents strongly agree that provision of school bags, uniforms and writing materials such as exercise books, pens and pencils is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps, 17.33% of the respondents agreed, 16% of the respondents disagree while about 13.34% of the respondents are undecided. This implies that provision of school bags, uniforms and writing materials such as exercise books, pens and pencils is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps. The third item in table shows that 36% of the respondents strongly agree that provision of free school enrolment to IDPs children as a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps, 52% of the respondents agree, 6% of the respondents disagree while about 6% of the respondents are undecided. This implies that provision of free school enrolment to IDPs children is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps by NGOs.

Table 4: Non-Governmental Organization in provision of psychosocial support to IDPs

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	UD	Total
1	Provision of mental health treatments to the depressed and hopeless IDPs	84 (56%)	42 (28%)	6 (4%)	18 (12%)	150 (100%)
2	Provision of family reunion between the missing family	78 (52%)	48 (32%)	15 (10%)	9 (6%)	150 (100%)

	members as a result of Boko Haram insurgency					
3	Organizing sports competitions in IDP camps to improve social cohesion among IDPs	66 (44%)	69 (46%)	12 (8%)	3 (2%)	150 (100%)

Source: Field Survey, 2019.

Table 4 shows that 84 (56%) of the respondents strongly agree that NGOs provides mental health treatments to the depressed and hopeless IDPs, 42 (28%) of the respondents agree, 48 (32%) of the respondents disagree while about 18(12%) of the respondents are undecided. This implies that NGOs provides mental health treatments to the depressed and hopeless IDPs. The second item in table shows that 78 (52%) of the respondents strongly agree that NGOs provides family reunion between the missing family members as a result of Boko Haram insurgency, 15 (10%) of the respondents agreed, 16% of the respondents disagree while about 9 (6%) of the respondents are undecided. This implies that NGOs provides family reunion between the missing family members as a result of Boko Haram insurgency. The third item in table shows that 66 (44%) of the respondents strongly agree that NGOs are organizing sports competitions in IDP camps to improve social cohesion among IDPs, 69 (46%) of the respondents agree, 12(8%) of the respondents disagree while about 3(2%) of the respondents are undecided. This implies that NGO organizing sports competitions in IDP camps to improve social cohesion among IDPs.

Table 5: Challenges IDPs face in meeting their basic needs

S/N	Statement	SA	A	U	D	Total
1	Inadequate humanitarian support is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs	97 (64.67%)	36 (24%)	8 (5.33%)	9 (6%)	150 (100%)
2	Lack of proper coordination of IDPs Camps is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs	27 (18%)	78 (52%)	9 (6%)	36 (24%)	150 (100%)
3	Lack of adherence to IDPs camps rules and regulations is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs	89 (53.3%)	24 (16%)	1 (0.67%)	36 (24%)	150 (100%)
4	Corruption in distribution of relief material to IDPs is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs	36 (24%)	78 (52%)	10 (6.67%)	26 (17.33%)	150 (100%)

Source: Field Survey, 2019.

Table 5 shows challenges IDPs face in meeting their basic needs, 24% of the respondents agree that inadequate humanitarian support is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs, 6% of the respondents disagree about while 5.33% of the respondents are undecided. This implies that inadequate humanitarian support is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs. The second item in table shows that 18% of the respondents strongly agree that lack of proper coordination of IDPs Camps is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs, 52% of the respondents agree, 24% of the respondents disagree while 5% of the respondents are undecided. This implies that lack of proper coordination of IDPs Camps is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs. The third item in table shows that

59.33% of the respondents strongly agree that lack of adherence to IDPs camps rules and regulations is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs, 16% of the respondents agree, 24% disagree while about 0.67% of the respondents are undecided. This implies that lack of adherence to IDPs camps rules and regulations is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs. The fourth item in table shows that 24% strongly agree that corruption in distribution of relief material to IDPs is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs, 52% of the respondents agree, 17.33% of the respondents disagreed while about 6.67% of the respondents are undecided. This implies that corruption in distribution of relief material to IDPs is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs.

4.2 Discussion

The result on the socio-demographic information of the respondents revealed that majority of the respondents are male IDPs within the age group of 26-30 from Dalori camp.

The findings on the type of skill acquisition training in IDPs camps as poverty management strategy revealed that cap design and embroidery as well as tailoring, carpentry and soap/detergent making are type of skill acquisition training for poverty management in IDPs camps. This is contrary to the study of (Falobi, 2014) whose study on the self-reliance in the IDPs camps revealed that 61% of IDPs surveyed indicated that they were not employed; 33% of respondents had been able to engage in income generation activities during displacement, including for example, farming, casual labour, petty trading and handcrafts. The primary reason why the majority of respondents are unable to engage in economic activities during displacement is that the unskilled labour market has become very competitive due to the influx of IDPs and consequent availability of cheap labour. Prior to displacement, 45% of respondents relied on farming as their primary source of livelihood, while 18% relied on trading and 10% on handcraft. Thus, although skilled employment is available, IDPs are generally unable to access these jobs because they lack the requisite skills.

The findings on provision of education and healthcare services in IDPs camps as poverty management strategy revealed that provision of teachers and teaching aids such as boards, chalks and text books; provision of school bags, uniforms and writing materials such as exercise books, pens and pencils; provision of community health workers for immunization is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps; provision of primary health services such as antenatal and first aid treatments is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps and provision of mosquito nets are poverty management strategy in IDPs camps. The findings concur to the study of (Sambo,2017) revealed that while 61% of respondents in IDP camps indicated that access to health care was adequate; only 27% of respondents residing outside of camps indicated the same. The difference was not so accentuated for immunisation of children under five, with 80% of all respondents confirming that immunisation needs for the children under five is adequately fulfilled. That said, comparison of results between the first and second round of the survey indicate that access to health care may have deteriorated over the last 12 months: while 58% of respondents indicated in September 2015 that access to health care was adequate; in September 2016, only 21% of respondents indicated the same. Key informant interviews confirm that many government authorities see health care as a priority need which is currently not being adequately addressed.

The findings on the role of NGOs in the provision of psychosocial aids to the IDPs revealed that NGOs provides mental health treatments to the depressed and hopeless IDPs, provides family reunion between the missing family members as a result of Boko Haram insurgency and organizing sports competitions in IDP camps to improve social cohesion among IDPs. These findings concur with that of (Adepelumi, 2018) on psychological consequences of the Boko Haram Insurgency for Nigerian Children. The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to examine the psychological consequences of the Boko Haram insurgency based on the lived experience of Nigerian children exposed to terrorism in

Nigeria. The study's theoretical framework combined Piaget's theory of cognitive development and punctuated equilibrium theory. The central research question examined the adverse psychological effects of the Boko Haram insurgency for Nigerian children residing in Nigeria. Data for this study were collected through interviews from a purposeful sample of 8 participants who were exposed to the Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria and a review of literature that primarily included peer-reviewed articles and studies relevant to the psychological theories. Collaizi's method of phenomenological analysis was employed for data analysis. Results showed that all the participants reported negative symptoms of mental health disorders, which did not lead to permanent mental health illnesses. Among the participants, the primary factors that moderated the symptoms, preventing progression to permanent mental health illnesses, were fasting and religious support. Implications for positive social change include giving voice to voiceless Nigerian children and providing the Nigerian populace, multilateral and bilateral organizations, and the Nigerian government with information necessary to understand the effects of terrorism on children and promote resilience in children who have experienced terrorism.

The findings on the challenges IDPs face in meeting their basic needs revealed that inadequate humanitarian support; lack of proper coordination of IDPs Camps; lack of adherence to IDPs camps rules and regulations and corruption in distribution of relief material to IDPs are the challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs. The findings is in agreement with Olagunju (2016), who found out that government aid such as money/relief gets diverted and never gets to the IDPs themselves, equally traced corrupt practices to camp officials and leaders of IDPs who may also convert and sell commodities provided for IDPs thereby contravening principle 24(2) of the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement. Similarly, Lomo (2000:1) noted that staff members of many institutions, including the UNHCR, are not sufficiently competent to implement existing provisions for protecting the constituencies for whom they are responsible. Also, (Sambo, 2017) studied on internal Displaced Persons and Their Information Needs revealed that in official IDP camps, 48% of IDPs surveyed indicated that they received adequate food; however, 47% also indicated that food and water were their highest priority. In contrast, 78% of respondents interviewed during an ICRC assessment in Maiduguri IDP Camps in October 2015 reported that they received an insufficient amount of food. While food assistance is primarily being provided through raw food distributed per household, in the camps where food is still being cooked in communal kitchens, camp authorities interviewed in September 2016 indicated that there is often insufficient firewood for cooking, meaning that meals are not provided (sometimes for several days). Additionally, key informant interviews in September 2016 revealed that insufficient food – as well as differing food quantities between camps – was one of the key factors triggering protests in Bakassi and Teachers Village IDP camps in Maiduguri in September 2016.

4.3 Results/Findings

The study revealed that International Non-Governmental Organization such as United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) has contributed to the poverty reduction in Internally Displaced Persons camps through skill acquisition programmes, particularly training on the cap making, embroidery design on fabrics, tailoring, hairdressing, shoes making, soap making etc. in Maiduguri Internally Displaced Persons Camp as a poverty management strategy. More so, the findings also revealed that International Non-Governmental Organization such as United Nations Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF) has contributed in educating children in various Internally Displaced Camps in Maiduguri as poverty reduction strategy.

International Non-Governmental Organization such as International Organization for Migration (IOM) and International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) has been providing basic psychosocial support on mental health and psychiatric in/outpatient treatment to Internally Displaced Persons in Maiduguri.

5.0 Conclusion and Recommendations

The presence of International Non-Governmental Organization in Maiduguri has been perceived negatively that there has been hidden agenda against the Displaced persons. Despite these misconceptions, the International Non-Governmental Organization has contributed immensely in provision of humanitarian aid like skill acquisition programmes, particularly training on the cap making, embroidery design on fabrics etc and basic education to Internally Displaced Persons Children.

Based on the findings, the study recommended that:

1. Nigerian government should provide maximum support to International Non-Governmental Organizations provide strategies for poverty reduction and education to the Internally Displaced Persons.
2. Nigerian government should adequately support to the International Non – Governmental Organisation to provide psychosocial centre for the treatment of psychosocial problems among Internally Displaced persons.

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APPENDIX

Introduction: kindly tick (✓) the appropriate response in the space provided against each statement/item and fill in the blank where applicable.

Key:

SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
D = Disagree
UD = Undecided

Section A: Demographic Information

1. Sex
Male []
Female []
2. Age
15 – 20 []
21-25 []
26 -30 []
31-35 []
36 – 40 []
Above 40 []
3. Name of IDPs Camp
4. Position

Section B: Type of skill acquisition training in IDPs camps as poverty management strategy

S/N	Statement	Responses			
		SA	A	D	UD
5	Provision of training for cap design and embroidery is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				
6	Provision of training for tailoring is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				
7	Provision of training for carpentry is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				
8	Provision of training for soap/detergent making is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				

Section C: Food and non-food items in IDPs camps as poverty management strategy

S/N	Statement	Responses			
		SA	A	D	UD
9	Provision of rice and instant noodles e.g. Spaghetti is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				
10	Provision of cooking oil is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				
11	Provision of water for domestic use is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				
12	Provision of toilet soaps and detergents for hygiene is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				

Section D: Provision of education and healthcare services in IDPs camps as poverty management strategy

S/N	Statement	Responses			
		SA	A	D	UD
13	Provision of teachers and teaching aids such as boards, chalks and text books is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				
14	Provision of school bags, uniforms and writing materials such as exercise books, pens and pencils is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				
15	Provision of Community health workers for immunization is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				
16	Provision of primary health services such as antenatal and first aid treatments is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				
17	Provision of mosquito nets is a poverty management strategy in IDPs camps				

Section E: Non-Governmental Organization in provision of psychosocial support to IDPs

S/N	Statement	SA	A	D	UD
17	Provision of mental health treatments to the depressed and hopeless IDPs				
18	Provision of family reunion between the missing family members as a result of Boko Haram insurgency				
19	Organizing sports competitions in IDP camps to improve social cohesion among IDPs				

Section F: Challenges IDPs face in meeting their basic needs

S/N	Statement	Responses			
		SA	A	D	UD
20	Inadequate humanitarian support is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs				
21	Lack of proper coordination of IDPs Camps is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs				
22	Lack of adherence to IDPs camps rules and regulations is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs				
23	Corruption in distribution of relief material to IDPs is a challenge IDPs face in meeting their basic needs				