BOKO HARAM AND POPULATION DISPLACEMENT IN NIGERIA: A CASE FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL INPUT

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Abstract
This paper explores the psychological implications of Boko Haram insurgency and population displacement nexus in the North – East. To achieve this objective, this paper adopted a descriptive design and thereby relied largely on textual information from primary and secondary sources. The secondary sources include journal articles and book chapters relevant to the subject. Displacement crises have led to increased insecurity, tensions and vulnerabilities in the affected communities. Some of the worst effects appear to be larger exposure to existing risks, such as severe food insecurity and sexual abuse. The challenges are particularly pronounced due to the concentration of forcefully displaced persons in small, confined geographical spaces—in a city, at a border, in a camp or along a narrow transit route. Such concentration leads to coping issues, for example, overcrowding and associated problems including inadequate physical protection and healthcare, increasing constraints on resources, and loss of livelihoods and educational opportunities. The paper concludes that displacement begins its psychological pains through forced loss of personal values and positive affects so as to survive. They begin to have a segmented identity, and hold on to their home, however dangerous it may be for them to stay, for as long as possible, because it gives them a sense of who they are. Finally, once their coping mechanism has been burnt out and their sense of sanity become crushed.

Keywords: *Boko Haram, Population Displacement, Humanitarian Crisis & Agencies, North-east & Psychological Challenges.*

Introduction

From the start of the conflict between the Nigerian Government and the Islamist extremist group Boko Haram in 2009, Nigeria has experienced unpresedented internal displacement crisis, especially in the north-eastern part of the Country. The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre estimated that there were approximately 2 150 000 IDPs in Nigeria as of 31 December 2015, the vast majority having fled Boko Haram violence since 2014 (IDMC, 2015). These IDPs are taking shelter in the relative safety of urban centres. This is causing overcrowding in already inadequate living conditions, and placing resources and basic services under severe strain. More than 78 per cent of IDPs are living in host communities for the third year in a row, hence displaced farmers have been unable to return to their land for the planting seasons, adding to food insecurity. More than 4.8 million people are now in urgent need of food assistance and 5.1 million are predicted to be food insecure if not supported by the humanitarian community in 2017. An estimated 300 000 children in Borno Sate alone will suffer from severe acute malnutrition in 2017 and up to 450 000 people in total across the North-East provinces will likewise suffer if adequate assistance is not received. With the ongoing disruption to basic services such as healthcare, clean water and sanitation, susceptibility to disease also increases. Poor drainage and stagnant water are increasing the incidence of malaria and the likelihood of waterborne diseases.

Women and children constitute over 70% of internally displaced populations, and they experience a wide range of health risks. They are extremely vulnerable to physical and mental health problems, and they also have unique health needs (Norwegian Refugee Council, 2016). A number of studies have also reported that women and girls were victims of physical and sexual violence in IDP camps (Vu A, Adam A, Wirtz A, Pham K, Rubenstein L, Glass N,*et al.* ,2014).Women are at higher risk of unwanted pregnancies, unsafe abortions, maternal morbidity and mortality. The negative impacts of sexual violence are significant and long term. These may include physical injuries, sexually transmitted infections including HIV, unwanted pregnancies and mental health effects (Austin J, Guy S, Lee Jones L, McGinn T, Schlecht J., 2008).

According to the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF,2017), Boko Haram insurgents have killed some 2,300 teachers and destroyed some 1,400 schools throughout Nigeria's three north-eastern states, Borno, Adamawa and Yobe since 2009. Insurgents have kidnapped hundreds of students, among thousands of other civilians. The abduction of 276 schoolgirls from Chibok in Borno state in 2014 was the most notorious case of such kidnapping. It aroused global outrage as well as widespread criticism of then President Goodluck Jonathan's government

(Habila, 2017 & Obasi & Obe,2016). Fifty-seven of the girls escaped within hours of their kidnapping, 103 were released following negotiations between the government and insurgents, while four reportedly escaped (This Day, 2017 & ICG, 2018). However four years later, 112 Chibok girls remain unaccounted for. The ordeal of the Dapchi girls, students at the Government Girls' Secondary and Technical College, and one boy, who was reportedly visiting the school, began on 19 February 2018. Insurgents stormed into the dusty farming town, located 100km from the Yobe state capital, Damaturu, riding in Toyota Hilux pickups and a Tata truck. As they invaded the school grounds and began shooting, many of the 906 students, along with several teachers, managed to scale the fence along the school's perimeter and flee. But the insurgents rounded up 113 children, loaded them into the vehicles and headed off into the bush (ICG, 2018).

The captives were aged eleven to nineteen, most of them at the younger end, and many still in their first year at the school. Thankfully, ISWAP returned 107 of them to Dapchi on 21 March. The government claims the release was the result of negotiations and a ceasefire that allowed the militants' safe passage to deliver the girls and return to their bases (Mohammed, 2018). Some of the freed girls said five of their classmates had died of trauma and exhaustion during the long journey to the insurgents' camp. All but one of the kidnapped girls was Muslims. The last girl in captivity is the only Christian, reportedly still held because she refused to renounce her faith and adopt Islam (Sahara Reporters, 2018).

The plight of these displaced persons in their various places of refuge can be best described as critically threatening. This is more so considering the fact that they have been dislocated from their family and social capital bases. Recent figures from the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) indicates that 16, 470 Nigerian are displaced with "conflicts and ethno religious crises and emerging terrorism" constituting the main sources (Alkassim, 2013:10). In effect, the rising wave of Boko Haram Insurgency in Northern Nigeria has been largely responsible for the spate of the Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in the country in the recent times.

In short, poverty, displacement of persons and Boko Haram Insurgency motorized each other given that they enjoy a symbiotic relationship in that region. Kwaja (2011, p. 1), for example, argues that 'religious dimensions of the conflict have been misconstrued as the primary driver of violence, in fact, disenfranchisement and inequality are the root causes. Corroborating this view, Saleem (2012) noted that it is Nigerian government inability to manage corruption, the rising inequality between rich and poor, the gross violation of human rights, and inaccessible education, could also be responsible for the high

level of radicalization. Categorically, Saleem (2013, p. 53) stated that: Due to ineptitude and corrupt practices, the political leadership of Nigeria failed judiciously to utilize the naturally endowed resources to address the many social problems facing the country. The poor became poorer, while a small fraction of the political elite became wealthier, which generated many social problems, including religious bigotry, mass illiteracy, poorly-funded administrative institutions, the unavailability of basic health care for most, and fraudulent elections. Given this myriad of problems (e.g., excruciating poverty, unemployment, and mass illiteracy), especially among the religiously-inclined vulnerable youths in Northern Nigeria, individuals like Muhammad Yusuf were able to seize the opportunity to seek relevance by preaching an alternative platform for disenchanted, vulnerable youths and consequently radicalize them to attack the system which, they believe, is largely responsible for their situation.

 The above assertion tied the rise in Boko Haram insurgency in Northeast strictly to the high level of poverty occasioned by bad governance and corruption in Nigeria particularly in Northeast Nigeria which has made the region particularly vulnerable. Going further, Achebe (2012) described Boko Haram as a product of economic deprivation and corruption in Northern Nigeria. He noted that economic deprivation, corruption, and social inequities in a population, which in turn fuel political instability. In his analysis, Mustapha (2012, p.3) opined that:

Boko Haram is the symptom of the failure of nation-building and democratic politics in Nigeria which has yielded to high rate of displacement of persons in Nigeria most especially in North East region. It is the misguided cry of a disgruntled youths crushed by the socio-economic system on the one hand and then repressed by the state on the other.

Scholars such as Kwaja (2011), Mustapha (2012), Oluwole, et al (2018), Chukwurah, et al (2015), and ICG (2014) and others have interrogated the nexus between Boko Harem insurgency and displaced persons in Northeast Nigeria. Their central argument was that frequency of Boko Haram is fostered and nurtured by high rate of poverty in Northeast Nigeria and which has led to persons to be displaced. However, scholars such as Krueger, Alan, Malečková and Jitka, (2003), Krieger and Meierrieks (2011), Chikwem (2012), Pérouse de Montclos (2014), Okoli and Iortyer (2014), and others argued differently that it is not poverty parse but other socio-political conditions that necessitate the manipulation of poverty. For them, others factors such as religion, ethnic and political are the key factors in understanding the dynamics and manifestation of Boko Haram in that region. Yet, none of these scholars mentioned above have tended to pay adequate attention to examine whether the frequency of Boko

Haram attacks is linked to influx of displaced persons in IDPs camps. Most of these studies have not systematically ascertained whether the inability of Nigerian state hinders the rehabilitation of camps for displaced persons.

This paper aims at providing contextual background and situation analysis on internal displacement in Nigeria occasioned by Boko Haram as well as its psychological implications on the populace and the roles psychologists are expected to play in the process

Methods of Data Collection
Method of data collection, according to Leege and Francis (1974:188) 'is the science and art of acquiring information about the selected properties of units'. The method of data collection according to Ifesinachi (2010:12) 'deals with how to generate the necessary evidence or proof to test the assumptions and answer the questions posed in the statement of problem'. The frequency of Boko Haram Insurgency and management of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) makes it necessary to state some specific procedures of data collection to generate relevant data/ information for analysis (Egwu, 2004). It is in this context that the method of data collection for this study is the documentary method and which is the use of outside sources, documents, to support the view point or argument of an academic work. The process of documentary research often involves some or all of conceptualizing, using and assessing documents.

The analysis of the documents in documentary research would be either quantitative or qualitative analysis (or both). The key issue surrounding types of documents and the ability to use them as reliable sources of evidence on the social world must be considered by all who use documents in their research work. Examples of documents includes government publications, newspapers, certificates, census publications, film and video, paintings, personal photographs, diaries and other written, visual and pictorial sources in paper, electronic, or other 'hard copy' form. Along with survey and ethnography, documentary research is one of the three major types of social research and arguable has been the most widely used of the three throughout the history of social sciences (Sliverman, 1993).

Documents "must be studied as socially situated products" (Scott, 1990:34). It is defined as "any written material other than a record that was not prepared specifically in response to some request from the investigator" (Guba and Lincoln, 1981:228). Silverman (1993) has provided a classification of documents as i) files, ii) statistical records, iii) records of official proceedings and iv) images. Guba and Lincoln (1981) distinguished between documents and records. They

defined record as "any written statement prepared by an individual or agency for the purpose of attesting to an event or providing an accounting (Guba and Lincoln 1981:228). Doing documentary is much more than "recording facts". It is a reflexive process in which we confront what researchers call the "underpinnings of social inquiry" (Coles, 1997:6). "Documents do stand alone" (Atkinson and Coffey 1997:55), but need to be situated within a theoretical frame of reference in order that its content is understood. it is an important source of information, and such sources of data might be used in various ways in social research. Documentary method of data collection includes retrieving information from institutional memoranda and reports, census publications, government pronouncements and proceedings, diaries and innumerable other written, visual and pictorial sources in different forms and so on. In similar view Denscombe (1998:163) advocates, "government publications and official statistics would seem to be an attractive position for the social researcher".

Documentary method differs from primary research data where the researcher is responsible for the entire research process from the design of the project to collecting, analyzing and discussing the research data (Stewart, 1984). Judd, Smith and Kidder (1991:289) distinguished three common characteristics of documentary method such as:

- They rely entirely on the analyses of data collected for purposes other than those of particular studies in social relations:
- Documentary studies often call for ingenuity in translating existing records into quantifiable indices of some general concepts:
- Documentary studies are particularly susceptible to alternative interpretation for the natural events and their effects.

Therefore the use of documentary method for this study is suitable because documents, files, records, books and articles from scholars and also, from organizations such as Human Rights Watch, Amnesty International, the National Bureau of Statistics, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Center for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism (START) will be used to show critically linkage between Boko Haram and Management of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in North East Nigeria.

Methods of Data Analysis
The method of data analysis to be used for this study is qualitative/ descriptive analysis. The qualitative method of data analysis is concerned with identifying and understanding the attributes, characteristics and traits of the object of inquiry. This method of data analysis according to Asika (1991) has to do with

the verbal summary of the information generated in research, so that appropriate analytical method can be used to further discover relationships among variables and is very relevant to our study given the very nature of the phenomenon under investigation. In this case, it studies causes and effect relationships by observing an existing condition and searching back in time for plausible causal factors (Obasi, 1999).

This method is mainly associated with textual and contextual analysis of already existing information on the phenomenon being investigated, it involves the presentation, reading, prognosis, analysis, critique and discussion of relevant information gathered from the different categories of sources, from which conclusion can be drawn (Fraser, 2004). Therefore, the use of this method of analysis is informed by the simplicity with which it can summarizes expose and interprets relationship implicit in a given data by giving a qualitative description of the variables under study. This method is used in this study to examine, criticize, prognosis, analyze and make inferences concerning Boko Haram Insurgency and Management of Internally Displaced (IDPs) in North East Nigeria.

Boko Haram and Population Displacement in Nigeria: the Psychological Implications

By 2016, Boko Haram was not only ranked the "most deadly" jihadi group in Africa, but also the World ("Global Terrorism Index, 2015). On the verge of the 10-year anniversary of the group's launch of its jihad—which will be in 2019—Boko Haram rivals and in some ways has surpassed its jihadi counterparts in AQIM in Algeria and the Sahel and al-Shabaab in Somalia and East Africa in tactical sophistication, lethality, and territory under its control. Boko Haram's learning curve has indisputably been fast. The loss of human life as a result of the insurgency is estimated at approximately 30,000 people (Council on Foreign Relations, 2018). Boko Haram has devastated much of the countryside in northeastern Nigeria and neighboring regions of Cameroon, Chad, and Niger. Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps are scattered across the border regions of these countries, and the task of returning IDPs to their homes has been as difficult as it has been dangerous. Attacks and abuses that Nigerians would have never thought possible in the country have become commonplace: girls as suicide bombers, the reinstitution of "slavery," mass immolation of students in their dormitories, among others. In this sense, Boko Haram has also tested the limits of what is permissible in jihadi ideology.

Expert on forced migration, genocide and nationalism in Africa recently brought a vivid notion to the origins of psychological effects on IDPs in its NUCHR panel

recently. According to Otunnu (2011), psychological effects do not start when a person is labeled a refugee – they begin in the violent and poverty-stricken environment where they live and are very pronounced once they become refugees in law. He said being displaced psychologically begins when a refugee disowns their own values to survive. They begin to have a segmented identity, and hold on to their home, however dangerous it may be for them to stay, for as long as possible, because it gives them a sense of who they are. Finally, once their coping mechanism has been burnt out and their sense of sanity has been crushed, they flee.

In his contribution, Andrew Rasmussen, a New York University psychologist who works with displaced persons, discussed mental health care treatment in refugee camps. Trauma-focused counseling, a more traditional approach, deals directly with the horrifying memories many refugees have, while psychosocial treatment is defined as any type of local or outside support that aims to protect or promote psychosocial well-being and/or prevent or treat mental disorder. Rasmussen did not claim to know the "right" mental health goals in human rights work. He said human rights organizations need a better conceptualization of what they are treating, whether it is trauma or the breakdown in social infrastructure. However, these are the two main treatments, and, to a certain extent, they work. Psychosocial treatment has another supporter in Steve Weine, a psychiatrist at the University of Illinois at Chicago. During the roundtable, he aimed to find psychosocial interventions that work in the real world where refugees live.

Any war as a sudden, unpredictable, dramatic event has a tremendous negative impact at the community, family and individual levels. Usually, children are affected the most. From the studies done during and after the Second World War (Boardman, 1994), Yom Kippur War (Milgram, 1976; 1982), to the experiences from more recent wars (Baker, 1991), it is evident that war experiences can hinder the psychosocial development of children, and their expectations regarding future life. The essence of these theses put forward is to find a linkage between IDPs situations and the psychological trauma among the displaced persons. Boko Haram activities in the north-east have provided these relationships. The outcomes indicate that the internally displaced persons (IDPs) were subjected to traumatic incidents at a higher degree due to killing, displacement, captivity, or killing of family members and relatives. The rate of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) of IDPs is significantly higher than for non-displaced persons. In this paper the effect of war and displacement on children in the Nigerian north-east will be discussed. This section summarizes some of these experiences and presents evidence of IDP's suffering during this period.

Children's losses during the war in the North-east

Since and during the insurgency, children in the north-east are facing numerous losses. They were exposed to multiple traumatic events, potentially impeding their emotional and psychological development. The following traumatizing experiences and losses were particularly distressing and widespread. For instance, the CJTF has been accused of summary executions and participation in military-led extrajudicial killings. For instance, video footage published by Amnesty International of a gruesome attack alleged to have taken place on March, 14, 2014, shows what appear to be members of the Nigerian military and CJTF using a knife to slit the throats of a series of detainees before dumping them into an open mass grave(Amnesty International, August 5, 2014). As the cries for justice continue to be aired, victims' groups are also emerging to pursue accountability. One such group is the Knifar Movement (in Kanuri, this roughly translates to "we must get justice at all cost"), which is a loosely organized group of displaced women and victims of conflict in northeastern Nigeria. The group is seeking truth-telling and compensation and to reunite with their relatives. In its petition, the movement attached a list of 466 persons they claim died in Bama Hospital between December 2015 and July 2016 and another 1,229 persons currently in detention (A video from the Knifar Movement is available at "Knifar petition," Knifar Movement, YouTube, May 24, 2017).

It also expressed fear that children as young as five years old may be held in Giwa Barracks. It further alleged in a YouTube video that there was ill treatment, extrajudicial killings, and poor living conditions for the children in detention and accused the military and men of the CJTF of raping women and girls in Bama Hospital and the internally displaced persons (IDPs) camps near Maiduguri. Presently, men of the CJTF have several cases before them in different courts, which were brought by relatives of victims against the CJTF for brutalizing, arson, maiming, or wrongfully accusing their family of being Boko Haram members.

Loss of physical capacity

In the period between August 2003 to 2017, approximately 10,0 0 0 children were either wounded or killed (Eme,2018). In the majority of cases, the causes of death were explosion and shooting injuries during artillery and air force bombing, or exposure to land mines. Among the injured children, over 2000 were permanently disabled. Extensively torn tissue, deep flesh wounds, and multiple injuries of a severe nature were typical (Amnesty International,2015).

Loss of loved ones

Many children lost their family members, close relatives and friends. Almost 5,500 children lost one parent and children were orphaned. In many cases the

children were witness to violence and death of their own family members. Up to this time, another 900 children still have fathers listed as missing because of the insurgency (Eme, 2018).

Exposure to direct artillery shelling

Many children were exposed to artillery attacks over a long period. In some cities immediate danger lasted for several months, requiring many children had to spend several days in cellars. A study done by UNICEF showed that 27.5% of displaced children spent more than a month in a bomb shelter, and that many of them (28.6%) stayed in a shelter without their parents or other family members (UNICEF,2017).

Displacement

The majority of victims of the war were displaced children. The loss of human life as a result of the insurgency is estimated at approximately 30,000 people. Boko Haram has devastated much of the countryside in northeastern Nigeria and neighboring regions of Cameroon, Chad, and Niger. Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps are scattered across the border regions of these countries, and the task of returning IDPs to their homes has been as difficult as it has been dangerous. Displaced children were faced with a whole range of losses: their homes, familiar environment, routine of an educational setting, social network, and usual patterns of family life among others (Zenn,et.al,2018). Some of these losses are described below:

The CJTF and the military have also been accused of raping women, false arrests, imprisonment, and arson. For example, reports from IDP camps allege the CJTF forcefully coerced females to have sex with them in return for food and protection. There is also evidence believed to be credible that CJTF resorts to arson on perceived enemies' property. One such incident that generated public outcry was the burning down of the home of Mala Othman, the erstwhile chairman of defunct All Nigeria Peoples Party (ANPP) in Borno State, on allegations that he was a Boko Haram sponsor ("*Vanguard*, June 2, 2013). Damning reports from human rights groups and citizens continue to suggest CJTF members have committed international war crimes and should be brought to book in order for peace, justice, and reconciliation to prevail in northeastern Nigeria. Meanwhile, the Office of the Prosecutor of the International Criminal Court (ICC) has established six possible cases of international crimes against Boko Haram and two others against the Nigerian military. Already, the conflict between the Boko Haram and the Nigerian government has been declared by the prosecutor of the ICC as a non-international armed conflict (International Criminal Court, November 2013).Preliminary investigations have alleged the

Nigerian military committed gross human rights violations in the process of stemming the conflict, just as the CJTF has also been accused of committing war crimes against civilians and Boko Haram insurgents.

Loss of home

Home plays an important role in identity formation and development of children. Not only were the displaced children driven from their homes with only very few personal belongings und the grievous psychological consequences of the event, but in addition most of them had no home of their own anymore, and no place to go back to. For instance, Nigeria has 36 states, 12 states have IDPs cases. These are because of communal war, insurgency and herdsmen attacks. Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre estimates that there are almost 2,152,000 internally displaced people in Nigeria as of 31st December 2015. According to the assessment carried out by the International Organization for Migration in 2016, it was gathered that there are about 207 Local Government Areas experiencing the phenomenon of displacement and these are scattered in 13 Northern states in Nigeria. Gombe possesses 25,332 internally displaced persons, Abuja possesses 13,481 internally displaced persons, Adamawa possesses 136,010 internally displaced persons, Kano possesses 9,331 internally displaced persons, Kaduna possesses 36,976 internally displaced persons, Bauchi possesses 70,078 displaced persons, Plateau possesses 77,317 internally displaced persons, Taraba possesses 50,227 internally displaced persons, Zamfara possesses 44,929 internally displaced persons, Nasarawa possesses 37,553 internally displaced persons, Borno possesses 1,434,149 internally displaced persons, Benue possesses 85,393 internally displaced persons and Yobe possess 131,203 internally displaced persons (IOM, 2016).

During this epoch, approximately 500,000 homes were either completely destroyed or severely damaged. For instance, it was been estimated that hospitals, bridges, roads and other infrastructures destroyed in the State will require about 79 billion naira ($397 million) to rebuild. Whereas, N13 billion (Borno State Annual Budget, 2017) has been set aside for rebuilding destroyed communities in Borno in 2017 budget by the State government (Sheriff & Ipinmoroye, 2015).

Loss of parental support and protection

At the peak till displacement in 2013, approximately about 1.6 million displaced are children within and outside the country had been separated from their parents and/or were living without parental supervision and care. Even several years later, some displaced children, and many adolescents, were still separated from their parents because of their educational needs which could not be met in

communities of origin in which the school were destroyed. This is so because of insurgent activities, communal and religious violence in the middle belt, flooding, cattle rustling and competition for resources. The implication is that about 2% of the Nigerian populations have lost homes, family life means of livelihood and businesses. About 800,000 children have had their education truncated, meaning that the future looks bleak for these children (Punch, August 23, 2015).

Nigeria Has the highest number of IDPs in Africa and the 3rd highest in the world, accounting for 10% of all IDPs in the world (Punch, August 23, 2015; Olajide, 2016). This is so because of insurgent activities, communal and religious violence in the middle belt, flooding, cattle rustling and competition for resources. The implication is that about 2% of the Nigerian populations have lost homes, family life means of livelihood and businesses. About 800,000 children have had their education truncated, meaning that the future looks bleak for these children (Punch, August 23, 2015).

Living with distressed adults
Adult members of displaced families are themselves exposed to multiple stressors and trying challenges. Studies suggest that during warfare displaced adults frequently display anxiety, depression, anger, aggression, alcohol abuse, distrust, somatization or 'escape to illness', and sleep disturbance (Moro & Vidovic, 1992). Many IDPs have little or no access to shelter, sanitation, clean water, education and good health care. This is because almost 60 percent of health infrastructure affected has been destroyed or damaged, to ameliorate the situation, the European Commission has supported the State with €143 million for the recovery and reconstruction needs of the people. The financing package brings EU's total support for the crisis in Borno State to €224.5 million for 2017 (European Union, 2017). While the World Bank (2016) considered a $2.1 billion loan to rebuild infrastructure in the Northeast and Borno State in particular.

From the assessment of World Health Organization (2016), 743 health facilities (35 percent) were destroyed, 29 percent partially damaged, while only 34 percent intact. Through the efforts of NGOs, about 100 temporary health facilities have been provided for the people. World Health Organization observes further that: Of the 481 health facilities in the state, 31 percent of them are not functioning due to the insurgency. Almost 60 percent have no access to safe water, 32 percent have no access to potable water at all, while 3 out of 4 (73 percent) cannot decontaminate the water used in the facility (World Health Organization's Report, 2016). More so, around 60 percent of the health facilities in north-eastern Nigeria are currently being supported by 18 NGOs health partners responding to the crisis in Borno State. Also, the U.N. Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs estimates that at least USD2.7 billion is

needed in 2017 to tackle the current humanitarian needs in the region in general and Borno State in particular (UNOCHA, 2016).

Often, the adults lose their jobs and no longer have access to employment, resulting in a decline in their social status. They feel degraded and demoralized, having to become financially dependent, and helpless. These cumulative negative effects produce high levels of stress, among the adults with disturbing consequences upon children (Ajdukovic, 1996; Ajdukovic& Ajdukovic, 1993).

Loss of traditional way of living
Many children, especially those from rural areas, go through the acculturalization process during which they lose contact with traditional values and ways of living in their communities. These losses leave a big emptiness in the lives of many children. At the same time, change in the traditional way of living has a two-fold negative impact on children—when they have to adapt to an urban environment, or when they return to their communities of origin. Our first experiences with children who got the chance to go back to their villages after three, four or even six years of displacement, were that they were now going through another very stressful and painful period of reintegration (Druzic *et al.,* 1997; Lopizic, 1995).

Lack of educational structure
Although extensive efforts to organize schooling for all displaced children were undertaken, less than half of the children were enrolled immediately after their arrival in whatever educational setting was available, given the circumstances. The major reason for this low level of enrollment was that many parents did not want their children to start a new school as they hoped to go back home soon. A number of traumatized high school students refused to continue schooling immediately. Several families found accommodation in areas that were not entirely safe, and occasionally shelled, so that it was not safe to hold classes (Dzepina *et al.,* 1992).

Over time, all of the displaced and refugee children were enrolled in school, but many of them started displaying numerous difficulties in adapting to the new educational environment as they longed for their old schools (Svob, 1993). Displaced and refugee children had poorer conditions for learning, including high levels of spatial density in their temporary homes. They also displayed more psychological difficulties and problems of adaptation to their new surroundings (Ivanek & Jakopovic,1995).

Poor physical environment

Approximately 20% of displaced people were accommodated in collective centers and the rest were in individual or family placement. In many cases, two or even three families with children had to share one room. Many children did not have a bed of their own. In most collective centers there was no place for play activities or for learning. Most children, who came from rural areas and were accommodated in high-rise refugee centers in cities, not surprisingly found limited possibilities for playing and using their free time in this new setting (Svob, 1993). Those that were accommodated with host families also experienced a lack of space. They were faced with high social density, lack of privacy and often poor quality of housing. Alongside this, children of the host families were also affected by the long-term displacement (Ajdukovic *et al.,* 1992).

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (2017) noted that there are about two million, one hundred and fifty-two thousand (2,152,000) internally displaced persons in Nigeria and this was because of insurgencies. This is in tandem with Eme (2018) who studied the some victims of displacement who shared their experiences. According to him,

The insurgency was life taking as it saw an end of various lives and properties. It truncated great destinies and cut short the lives of people. The trauma of the insurgency is a phenomenon that will live with me forever if I live. The stay in the IDP camp has not helped matters as we daily wake up to remember we own nothing at all. I lost my siblings and friends. I do not have a job to cater for my family and even my parents that I have been supporting before the insurgency (they are here in the camp with me) (Male/IDI/IDP)

Another male respondent said,
The insurgency was the worst nightmare I ever heard in my life. All my siblings were killed, and I am left with only my wife and children. My house was burnt and some of my relatives are out there in the forest. I lost my sense of belonging because of the menace. Life has not been comfortable because I am not living a life of my own anymore (Male/IDI/IDP).

Malnutrition

Both in the preflight and displacement phases, a lot of children did not have access to adequate nutrition. With the growth of the displaced and refugee population, the financial possibilities for providing adequate food decreased. In general, dietary provisions were tailored to the needs of the adults, while the needs of infant sand small children could not be adequately met. Studies of the

nutritional status of school-age children, showed a significant degree of malnutrition. A third of the children had clinical symptoms secondary to nutritional deficiency (Grguric &Hirsl-Hecej, 1993). Another study showed that one of every two children who lived in displacement longer than six months were malnourished (Svob, 1993).

Changes in the community
The insurgency has impact on the whole community—destruction, forced uprooting of hundreds of thousands of people, leading to increased unemployment and poverty. According to Eme, 2018).

The insurgency has a threatening effect on the displaced persons. It has both physical and psychological effect on them. Their health has been affected. They get scared at the slightest opportunity. They live in uncertainty about their loved ones because they do not know if they are dead or alive. The insurgency has a very big effect on them (NGO. The people are getting about 30% of what they would have gotten if they are living in their homes (Male /IDI/Social Worker).

This led to the distress of the whole community, with significant changes at the community level. Some of these changes were:

- Loss of community balance and distortion of typical community value.
- Increased prejudice and social rigidity toward other groups.
- Problems of integration into a new social environment, emphasized in refugee and resettled families.
- Changes in priorities of the social welfare, health and educational systems.
- Preventive measures in the areas of juvenile delinquency, child abuse, neglect, alcohol and drug abuse, either disappeared at the community level or were significantly reduced.
- High level of traumatization of professionals and paraprofessionals (Ajdukovic & Zic, 1997).

During violent conflicts or natural disasters, which force IDPs to leave, most houses and properties are destroyed, looted or burnt down. Most IDPs in Nigeria flee to neighbouring communities that are safe, usually taking refuge in temporary shelters such as schools, police stations, military barracks, public buildings and places of worship among others; having been deprived of their homes and sometimes their land and livelihoods. This results in their lacking access to necessities of life such as food, water and shelter. While some efforts are made by humanitarian and faith-based and community based organisations and government agencies to address some of the basic needs of IDPs, their

vulnerability tend to be increased by barriers to accessing healthcare services, education, employment, economic activities and information for participation in decision making affecting their lives. With some IDPs camped in school buildings, education is usually disrupted for both local host communities and displaced children.

Inter-community tensions and violent crimes, made worse by the free circulation of arms and a general climate of impunity, are currently major concerns for the communities affected by displacement. People's perceptions of security must be considered in light of the trauma suffered during displacement and in light of the possibility that threat levels may be exaggerated for self-interested reasons. Those having opted for integration or relocation often have a more negative view of the security in their home village than those having chosen to return. Security also varies depending on time and place. These various factors, as well as a lack of reliable and detailed statistics on crimes affecting civil populations and inter-community conflicts throughout the region, make for a difficult analysis of the security context. When men and women fled their villages at different points during the violence, they subsequently had varying perceptions about security.

IDPs who have chosen to live at the sites or to relocate mention insecurity in their home villages as one of the main reasons for not going back on a permanent basis. These communities have often lost their animals and possessions during their displacement and would no longer be capable of resuming their pastoral activities. They also fear that if they return to their villages to participate in agricultural activities, they would once again be exposed to community tensions (often between the farmers and animal breeders). For example, in the North-east, the women interviewed by donor agencies said that they had suffered more violence than the men who fled before the attacks. The women were therefore more reticent to return to their home villages. The security measures deployed are not always adapted to the threats perceived by the population; military forces are not always mandated to respond to animal theft or damages to crops by animals, but there are no local police to deal with these tribulations.

Furthermore IDPs in Nigeria face insecurity and all forms of exploitation and abuse, including rape, camping in congested shelters, isolated, insecure or inhospitable areas. IDPs are also largely separated from their families especially, unaccompanied children and teenagers, the elderly and sick, persons with disabilities and pregnant women, whose special needs and privacy are not attended to, due to fragmented and uncoordinated humanitarian response to the needs of IDPs(Baru,2018, ICG, 2018 & AI,2018). IDPs in Nigeria also face lack of access to justice, whether in relation to cases of human rights violations such as

discrimination against ethnic and religious minorities, sexual violence, and deprivation of means of livelihood.

Even when the situation of most IDPs improves, potentially durable solutions have remained out of the reach of specific groups with particular needs or vulnerabilities. These include the elderly or sick people, widows barred from recovering the property they had lived in, or members of minorities facing discrimination, marginalisation and exclusion or whose livelihoods depend on a particular attachment to their areas of origin or settlement. For such groups, strategies or incentives that had encouraged others to move towards a durable solution may not have been effective or accessible, and the tailored support they needed to rebuild their lives was not available (Baru,2018, ICG, 2018 & AI,2018).

Conclusions

This research examines the nexus between the Boko Haram insurgency and population displacement in Nigeria's North-east and the psychological and humanitarian crisis it has thrown up in the region. From the perspective of the Islamist sect Boko Haram terrorist activities in the North-East of Nigeria, this study found out that terrorist activities in the region has given rise to a humanitarian and psychological crisis. This crisis has manifested through refugee flow from Nigeria to other countries, Internally Displaced Persons, human rights abuses, casualties to human and property, livelihood debacle and has affected public peace and security. From the above observation, it is glaring that

Boko Haram has caused a humanitarian and psychological crisis in the north-east.

The loss of human life as a result of the insurgency is estimated at approximately 30,000 people. Boko Haram has devastated much of the countryside in North Eastern Nigeria and neighboring regions of Cameroon, Chad, and Niger. Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps are scattered across the border regions of these countries, and the task of returning IDPs to their homes has been as difficult as it has been dangerous .Attacks and abuses that Nigerians would have never thought possible in the country have become commonplace: girls as suicide bombers, the reinstitution of "slavery," mass immolation of students in their dormitories, among others. In this sense, Boko Haram has also tested the limits of what is permissible in jihadi ideology. There is therefore abnormally high level of psychological trauma, and an urgent need for a responsible Nigerian Government to engage massive psychological services to rescue, rehabilitate affected Nigerians, and forestall expansion of insurgency.

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