

Local Government as Potential Leverage for the Management of Internally Displaced Persons in Nigeria: Study of Bakassi Local Government Area of Cross River State

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Abstract

There are over 59.1 million Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in over 137 countries of the world with Africa having about 50% of that number. In Nigeria, there is about 28% additional increase in the number of IDPs between 2000 and 2021 taking the figure to as high as 4.4 million people, making it the third highest in the world. Attacks by terrorists on defenceless citizens in some parts of Nigeria, outbreak of epidemics, religious and ethnic crisis etc which contributed to over 23.7 million reported disasters in the world, have led to constant increase in the number of IDPs. The rights and privileges of IDPs are protected locally by the National Policy of Internally and Displaced Persons in Nigeria (NPIDPN), 2012 and internationally by the United Nations Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement. The care for IDPs comes from a multi-institutional dimension which includes governments of all levels (Federal, State and Local), international donor organizations and groups as well as individuals. This descriptive study therefore seeks to examine the relevance of local governments in the management of IDPs in Nigeria. Data were generated primarily from a survey carried out 200 IDPs at their camp in Bakassi Local Government Area in Cross River State. Data were equally obtained from secondary sources and analysed by simple polemics. The study recommends a statutory involvement of LGAs in IDP management in Nigeria as this will enhance the provision of basic social values in the IDP camps and promote the presence of government in the camps. The research proposes that LGAs should be statutorily and significantly engaged in IDP management in Nigeria.

Keywords: Internally Displaced Persons; Nigeria; Southern Cameroon; Bakassi Peninsular; Cross River State; International Development; Development Studies; United Nations Development Programme; United Nations; Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre

Introduction

Internal displacement is a social challenge which has gained attention in social security management among nation states. Internal displacement, as a factor, has been in constant increase especially after the end of 2nd World war (1939-1945), which period subsequently featured successive civil wars, minor border crisis and internal insecurity in most African and Middle East countries. Internal displacement however gained strategic attention among nations in the late 1980s and “became prominent on the international agenda in the 1990s”, Cathrine Brun (2005). Additionally, the growing concern for IDP management globally was however fuelled by the increasing number of IDPs which according to research became three times the number of refugees in the globe, UNHCR (2014).

There are currently more than 50 countries in the world which have persons displaced for various reasons from their primary places of habitation, (Borton, Buchanan-Smith, and Otto; 2005). These persons have been identified by their home countries and have been placed in IDP camps by the government. This figure however is void of those who haven't yet been captured by the IDP managers, and those who, due to security purposes have been trapped in the creeks. It doesn't also capture those who haven't yet seen the need to link up with government for help due to lack of information and, even in their displaced conditions pine away in chronic poverty and want.

Internal displacement in Africa has become a much more furious and disastrous experience especially due to the harsh economic conditions in Africa, which according to reports, keeps an average African on a Per Capita Income of not more than \$1 per day, and averages survival limit of an African to 58 years (Moyo, 2010). This is coupled with other health risks which combat with the lives of Africans (Nigerians not in exemption), such as malaria, diabetes, cancer as well as other water-borne diseases such as cholera, bilharzias etc. These tragedies have become an additional mayhem to the life time challenges of an IDP who is struggling on a daily basis through the grids of displacement, homelessness and unsheltered exposures to natural hazards around the unkempt environment.

IDPs are found in over 137 countries of the world (IDMC, 2022) including Somalia, Syria, Afghanistan, Sudan, South Sudan, Democratic Republic of Congo etc (UNHR, 2015). The case of Columbia gives a worse illustration of IDP management after suffering from 40 years of domestic conflict, (Hine and Belleto, 2002). IDP needs assessment and management is a progressive one, globally. There is no systemic and straight jacket management style for IDPs globally.

Following the up-surgings number of IDPs in the world, governments of nations, international organizations and groups have come up with plans, policies and programs to protect the IDPs and create better environment for the displaced people at the back of several political ideologies and strategies. There are about 25million IDPs in the world (Borton, Buchanan-Smith and Otto, 2005) who have been successfully placed in camps while there are many other frustrated persons not yet identified by the governments of states as IDPs. IDPs in this category roam the streets, living at the mercy of chances and hopeless opportunities for survival. These people have been rendered homeless by social, political, natural (among other) disasters and are scattered on the streets of their countries. This event of homelessness and abject poverty is mostly predominant in the second world and middle-east countries where there is low level of life security and safety for the citizens, generally.

In the bid to cater for the welfare of IDPs, the United Nations (UN) through the UN Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) from March 2015 to February 4, 2016 gave out the sum of 58 million Dollars to support the IDPs in Nigeria Dibia Ike Michael (2016). "An additional \$31 million was provided in late 2015 and early 2016 for lives-saving humanitarian response for more than 700,000 affected people in the Lake Chad Basin region", Micheal (2016). This is some of the many grants and aids rendered to countries at the back of social rehabilitation of IDP camps and welfare provision for IDPs.

IDPs are among the most vulnerable groups in every society where they are. They are not members of the locality where occasions have taken them to and where they are currently camped by the government, even though they are citizens of the same country. They are totally regarded as strangers and aliens where they are camped as they had been previously ejected from their places of primary birth, livelihood and habitation by unbearable social, natural, physical, (among other) conditions and later camped together by the government. This critical condition is negatively buttressed by the fact that the IDPs have generally lost contact with their primary

sources of livelihood by reason of their displacement so they remain vulnerable to social mishaps which may come around them at any time.

From the forgoing, we have identified IDP management from global and national perspectives. It is therefore evident that at local and international levels, there is a little level of influence which grassroots governments and local administrators have over IDP management in Nigeria. This further implies and reveals to us that IDPs are majorly protected by national and international laws as against local and bye-laws made by local councils and local administrators superintending over the area where their camp is domiciled. This is contrary to the spirit behind establishment of international law bearing from the angle that “in current framework of international law the primary responsibility to protect IDPs should rest on the IDPs’ state of origin” Magdalena Silska (2014). The excessive dominance of international and national instruments in the management of IDPs in Nigeria makes local governments and local administrators mere spectators in the whole process of IDP management. Instead of being active players in the management of IDPs, local governments have been kept by the side from practically partaking in full measure to ensure that IDPs within their jurisdictions are protected and their welfare well provided for. Ideally, local governments should be significantly engaged in the management of IDPs because these camps are located in the jurisdictions of local government areas where they have a strong control over added to the fact that LGAs have more experience in grassroots administration than other government tiers up above them.

The challenge in IDP management hinges on the fact that the survival, welfare and social conditions of IDPs are constantly threatened by localised challenges which can only be meaningfully tackled and handled by the LGAs in the grassroots. Research reveals that the IDPs in Nigeria do not gain social and psychological satisfaction while in the camps because the government and the international agencies do not take adequate care of them by providing their basic needs sufficiently as they deserve. They are victims of armed robbery, deprivation and insecurity because they evidently lack capacity to protect themselves from attacks by thieves. Recently, the Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC) arrested a suspect for allegedly defrauding 9,000 IDPs of N27million in order to supply them with foodstuff, (Sahara Reporters, Feb 16, 2016). This is one of the many cases of theft, rape and molestation which the IDPs experience without a major intervention by IDPs’ managers. In any case, even though there are efforts by the government in terms of intervention, these efforts are reactionary and do not necessarily provide a lasting solution to the challenges of IDPs. The inclusion of LGAs in the management of IDPs remains an unexplored or meagrely explored area in academic research even though previous researches may be anecdotal.

This study focuses on Bakassi local government area where there is an IDP camp which has been in existence for a period not less than ten (10) years. A six (6) years research carried out from 2015 to 2021 in the camp involves responses sampled from 200 IDPs randomly selected from the Bakassi IDP camp and granted a structured interview by the researchers. The researcher equally obtained information from the camp administrators regarding substantive measures already put in place towards addressing the challenges.

Institutional Gap: The Problem with IDP Management in Nigeria

The cause of inquiry in IDP management in Nigeria is predicated on the dangers and challenges which face IDPs on daily basis. These challenges abound irrespective of the IDP management systems duly established by the government. The challenges facing IDPs are numerous and various agencies and researchers have raised various areas of concern associated with IDP management. “IDPs are often in need of special protection...the government responsible for protecting them is unwilling or...may be the cause of displacement Brun (n.d.). Hathaway and Vincent (cited in Hathaway 1991, Vincent 2000) added that even though IDPs are protected by

local and international legislations, their rights are actively limited by prevailing circumstances and do not have the full liberty to enjoy what other nationals enjoy. While in the camp, “they looked so forlorn, torn and tattered. Indeed, their fate appeared to be hanging in the balance. Their future, somewhat, looks bleak, yet they are Nigerians living in their country”, Levinus Nwabughio (2015). These issues are evident and real in the IDP camps.

Apart from the physical dis-privileges which the IDPs suffer, there are equally certain psychological obsessions, ailments and diseases arising from improper health care delivery system which they are exposed to; children and women are often victims of this. Participant observation by the researcher revealed that there is no authentic antenatal and postnatal care unit or system established for pregnant women and nursing mothers. There are about 60,000 births in IDP camps in the year 2015 without serious medical attention, antenatal and postnatal care given to the mothers. In Abuja camps, there were no vaccination given to the new born kids and there are not systems put in place to check such serious omission (Nwabughio (2015).

There is absence of authentic juvenile care and counselling unit established by the government of the IDPs in the Bakassi camps. These social services are absent from the camps irrespective of the fact that IDP management outfits are duly established in Nigeria with management agencies assigned with various functions to take care of them. The concern behind the poor state of IDP management in Nigeria is further hyped by the fact that there are sufficient legal instruments in existence, both local and international, mandating governments, under whose care the IDPs are, to make provision for these social services and cater for the needs of the IDPs.

In Nigeria, there is a strong legal framework with proposals on IDP management on one hand. On another hand, there is a well institutionalised statuesque which has been charged with the task of IDP management from the federal to the state levels with little emphasis on the local government cum grassroots level. Regardless of all these, there are ever increasing cases and reports of poor living standard and health crisis in the IDP camps. This further buttresses the fact that IDP management is experiencing a tough challenge in Nigeria irrespective of the huge administrative and legal arsenal it is backed with.

This research therefore addresses a gap; a gap between institutional provisions and operational challenges which are evident in the IDPs camp. It addresses a gap between ‘what is’ and ‘what should be’ in the management of IDPs in Nigeria. Why do we have ever increasing number tragedies in IDPs camp irrespective of the huge bench of management personnel mobilised by the government through the NPIDP (2012)? Why is there no significant progress in IDP transformation from the state of displacement to resuscitation and re-engagement with the society? A research conducted in Afghanistan disclosed that less than 10% of IDPs are resuscitated every year (Norwegian Refugee Council, 2012). This is quite low by every means of evaluation. Why do IDPs remain vulnerable in the camps without any serious agenda and evidence of better living standard and welfare protection? Why do we have every increasing number of IDPs in Nigeria regarding the institutional and structural frameworks set up to manage them. This and more queries justify the rationale for this research.

In summary, the issues arising from this research interrogates the insolvency of the IDP management mechanisms in Nigeria, the non-curative measures set out by the IDP management institutions and the protracted unpleasantness of the IDPs in various camps in Nigeria.

Methodology

This is a six-year research conducted by the researchers in the study area which is Bakassi IDP camp located in Bakassi Local Government Area of Cross River State. 200 respondents were randomly selected from the camp for a structured interview by the researchers. The interview is

bordered around their needs and their level of satisfaction with government activities and provisions in the IDP camp. Other methods were carried out including key respondent interviews with camp managers and camp committees, observation and physical counting in order to collect more data regarding the camp. Participation observation was equally exercised in obtaining relevant information with respect to physical composition of the camping facilities and the administrative operations of the IDP camp. The questionnaires were structured to determine if actually there are challenges which the IDPs are facing while in the camp. Also, it seeks to determine the extent to which the governments and organizations involved in IDP management have gone towards addressing these needs. The UN Guidelines for Internal Displacement was used as a benchmark for judgement to determine if actually the IDPs were being taken care to the full measure of their rights according to the UN's prescriptions and conditions.

Literature Overview of Internally Displaced Persons in Nigeria

So far, there is no generally acceptable definition by scholars and academics for IDP. While some definitions are altered by political biases, others are altered by religious and social biases and sentiments which are usually associated with continental cultures and traditions of the people. This is nevertheless not a new trend in global security management because certain social and humanitarian practices which are abhorred by one continent or country might, as a matter of belief and religion, be upheld by the other continent or region. Such is the case and cause of conceptual disparity of IDP in the academy. But, "The lack of a universally accepted definition allows different (state) actors to apply very different standards" Brookings-Bern Project (2010) in IDP management and further complicates the harmony in practice of IDP management from a global perspective.

However, the only single definition which has gained widest reference in the academy so far was advocated by Mr. Sergio Vieira de Mello who was the Adviser on Humanitarian Affairs to the United Nations Secretary General. As was advocated by him, IDPs are regarded as:

Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border (United Nations Officer for UNOCHA, 1999)

This definition earns and covers a broader scope in categorising IDPs. It covers everyone who is currently enmeshed in critical conditions resulting to displacement from their homes and areas of primary habitation, regardless of where they are, whether they are within their home country or outside. This definition by UNOCHA conceptually conflicts with the definition provided by the Nigerian government which maintains that for one to be tagged an IDP, they may have been displaced and kept in the IDP camps set up by the government. While UNOCHA's definition captures everyone who has been exposed to harm or harsh condition and displaced from home, the Nigerian government maintains a restriction by limiting the definition to those who have already been recognised by the government and kept within a confined space known as a camp.

There has been a long standing and very significant debate in the academy regarding the status of IDPs. The debate seeks to identify if there is actually a dividing line between IDPs and refugees with particular respect to protection and safety of the camps of both categories of people. It seeks to establish if actually or not IDPs should be treated and managed as refugees while in the camp. On one side of the debate is the demand to extend humanitarian and safety protection of the refugees to the IDPs. The implication of this is that IDPs will be treated and managed same manner as refugees with reason that both categories of people pass through same social conditions (which are of course negative) regardless of their location within or outside their

country. On another side of the debate is a contrary opinion which argues that both categories of people vary in context, ordeal, identity and experience and demands that the IDPs and refugees be treated differently based on the disparities which they associated with. These arguments were reflected in the works of Barutciski (1998, 1999), Bennett (1999), Kingsley-Nyinah (1999), Rutinwa (1999), and Vincent (1999).

However, the conceptual definition originating from UNOCHA strictly maintains that there is a distinction between refugees and IDPs. Accordingly, UNOCHA states that a displaced person maintains his or her status as a displaced person when he or she "...has not crossed an internationally recognized State border". This, in other words, implies that an IDP loses his or her status as a displaced person and is referred to as a refugee when he or she crosses the border of his country. This position is categorically in line with the pontification of Deborah Hine and Raoul Balleto (2002) who maintain that displaced people are tagged IDPs when they do not cross international borders of their home country.

Silka (2014) argues that the existence of IDPs is not backed up by any law of international status. In other words, IDPs do not enjoy the legal status which refugees are enjoying, predicated on the Convention relating to the Status of refugees, adopted 28 July 1951. This buttresses an earlier position made by Mooney (n.d). According to Mooney, the definition of IDPs in the UNOCHA is merely descriptive and does not hold legal status, structure and standard of international law.

On her opinion, Brun (2005) argues that "...the causes of displacement and the experience of being displaced are often similar for both IDPs and refugees", regardless of their geographical location. This view is also buttressed by Silka (2014). The similarity being expressed by both Brun and Silka, here generally entails displacement, poverty joblessness, hunger, epidemics etc. And particularly, rape, child abuse, abortion, divorce, illiteracy etc for women and children. Also, Barutciski (1998) noted that extending protection policies of refugees to the IDPs may yield needed result, 'as it would be detrimental to the traditional asylum option and could possibly increase containment' in the IDP camps

However, the Global Protection Cluster Working Group (2007) recognized 'forceful ejection' as a major attribute which every other IDP shares anywhere in the world. Thus, notably, displacement takes place in the midst of the crisis or other natural disasters, as observed IASC (2016). "Climate change and global warming is a serious threat to humanity" and this has led to displacement at the Maldives (Robert Brears, 2016). Beyond the upwards spiral of IDP digits around the area where they are, other factors such as "institutional weakness, violence, unemployment, illiteracy, extreme poverty affecting predominantly women and youth are equally recorded. These are the new bunch of eventualities the IDPs have to grapple with (Christopher Zambakari, 2012).

In addition, and as legislated by the Nigerian government, there is a limit to the description of IDPs. First, according to the Nigerian government, if not contained within a particular IDP camp, frustrated, ejected and displaced individuals are not regarded as IDPs, NPIDPN (2012). This simply means that it is the duty of the Nigerian government to actually determine who an IDP actually is. But how efficient is the government in identifying the frustrated persons who roam the streets? Secondly, IDPs must be citizens of the host country. If not a citizen, a displaced person from a foreign country is known as a refugee and as well being treated as one (UNOCHA, 1999).

From the above, we can deduce a serious conceptual conflict between the UN's definition and the Nigerian government's definition of the concept of IDP. While the UN acknowledges every displaced person as an IDP, the Nigerian government does not. The Nigerian government acknowledges an IDP only when it identifies one and keeps them in a camp. As a consequence,

there are lots of displaced persons who roam the streets in conflict prone areas, who the inefficient IDP management system in Nigeria is yet to identify and place in camps.

Another criticism which confronts the UN's definition of IDPs came from the Brookings-Bern Project on Internal Displacement, (2008). The BBPID questions the vague nature of the UN's categorization from the line of those who have "not crossed an internationally recognised state border". It argues that most displaced people firstly leave their home country, spend a brief period outside then come into their home country, yet not to their primary areas of habitation. These people may have been cut off from the UN's definition. Quiet a huge proportion of displaced people in the Middle East countries are good examples of IDPs in this category.

We may not deal majorly on the conceptual conflicts which has however created rift in the academy about the concept of IDP. This paper however focuses on the Nigerian system and adopts the conceptual approach of an IDP as a displaced person who has been properly identified by institutionalised outfits and agencies of government and also kept in the IDP camp by the government.

Generally, IDPs are a host of persons with social dis-privilege. They have been disunited from their primary places of abode by events mostly critical to their survival. They have been severed from their relatives, friends and families most of whom they may have lost contact with on the course of displacement and most of who have died in the midst of the critical conditions for which they were displaced. Responding to the needs of IDPs require a more domestic and localised approach than those been explored by the governments of the day and international agencies. This will be better understood when viewed from the perspective of the Nigerian economy which wears same identify and suffer same challenges as other third world countries.

In other words, IDPs are exposed to more risks than an average Nigerian who is gainfully engaged. IDPs are more vulnerable and are always victims of social manoeuvre and mischief. They are temporary (and sometimes permanently) displaced from their homes. They suffer social disconnect which they once enjoyed before displacement took place. Their primary source of economic and social survival has been distorted because of the conditions which occasioned their displacement. All these and more justify the need for specific attention to be placed on the IDP management in Nigeria and further lays a good background for in-depth research of this nature to identify those ways through which IDP management can further be enhanced.

One other important factor here is that IDPs do not require any special need order than that which any average Nigerian citizen needs. The IDPs need shelter; everyone in Nigeria needs it. They need clothing and feeding; health care and education. These are needs which everyone in Nigeria needs and deserves as a matter of right. This implies that if a government can actually and adequately take care of its citizens then it can take care of the IDPs with its internal institutions such as the Local Government Area without seeking external assistance.

Structure of IDP Management in Nigeria

Management of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Nigeria basically involves the Federal government, the international organizations with a very minimal role to be played by the state government. IDP management is the responsibility of government institutions such as the National Emergency Management Authority (NEMA) for the Federal Government, while the state government makes use of the State Emergency Management Authority (SEMA). This is in agreement with the position of Emmanuel Shebbs, Uche Ekwuribe and Alen Iheonu (2018) who opined that the state machinery is designed to provide basic structures that should take care of the welfare and security needs of the people.

Responsibilities of the federal and state governments are contained in the NPIDP (2012). Both SEMA and NEMA representatives are found in each IDP camp. They have specific and general roles to play as provided in the NPIDP. It is the duty of NEMA and SEMA, working independently, yet together to identify the conflict areas and quickly evacuate the people affected from the area to a safer locality close by after which they will be taken to IDP camps. Conveyance into IDP camps is not compulsory as it is usually at the volition of the displaced persons to accept or ignore offer by the government to be taken to the IDP camps.

IDPs in Nigeria are kept in IDP camps. These camps are facilities which usually have a hazy make up with poor architectural designs. They are usually established without a proper planning and are located in public outfits such as secondary school environments which had been deserted by the school kids because of crisis and conflicts. This is usually the case in northern Nigeria like in Borno State where Yerwa Secondary School and Women Teachers' College, Government Collage Maiduguri among other government schools were used as IDP camps.

While they are in the camps,

“IDPs often feel like strangers in their place of refuge, where the local population may be from a different ethnic and/or religious group and/or may speak another language. Consequently, IDPs may not feel welcomed, despite sharing the same citizenship as the host population...” (NPIDP, 2012).

This research discovered that IDP management in Nigeria is not only lopsided but bereft of essential humanitarian goals and ideologies. The institutional framework itself lacks the structure needed to achieve effective success because the structure doesn't give room for local government participation which is key to effective and full-spectrum grassroots development.

IDP management in Nigeria is reactionary. IDP managers do not provide a lasting solution to the major causes of displacement rather they react to situations of displacement and create camps to house the displaced people along safety regions without proper preparations for their wellbeing.

Also, IDP management in Nigeria is dependent on international agencies with little concern on the people. The government sees international agencies as angelic outfits and miracle workers. It sees the local institutions as incompetent and adores the efforts of international agencies who make donations in form of financial grants, aids, and humanitarians' interventions to provide for the welfare of IDPs. This excessive independence revokes every potential willingness to harness internal mechanisms in solving the problems of IDPs within the location where their camps are located.

The management of IDP in Nigeria is impious and political. IDP management in Nigeria is used by political office holders to scam the government by giving fake information which lacks justification in reality to exploit the state. Most times, IDP management is used as a form of political patronage. Contracts are awarded at inflated costs to political subordinates in order to service their loyalty. Most of these contracted ends up being abandoned and the allotted monies embezzled largely because due consideration is not placed on the Appropriation Act of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

IDP management in Nigeria is orthodox and theoretical. It does not put the interest of the IDPs into direct consideration rather deals with due process and red-tapism. It does not necessarily focus on attainment of goals but attainment of procedures and protocols. This orthodox element hypothesizes the entire IDP management process and makes it appear unreal and insolvent of the direct problems of the IDPs. This reflects in the inability of the management institutions to provide the basic needs of IDPs thereby worsening their living conditions while in the camp.

Below is a diagram signifying the operational fashion of IDP management in Nigeria.

Structure of IDP Management in Nigeria

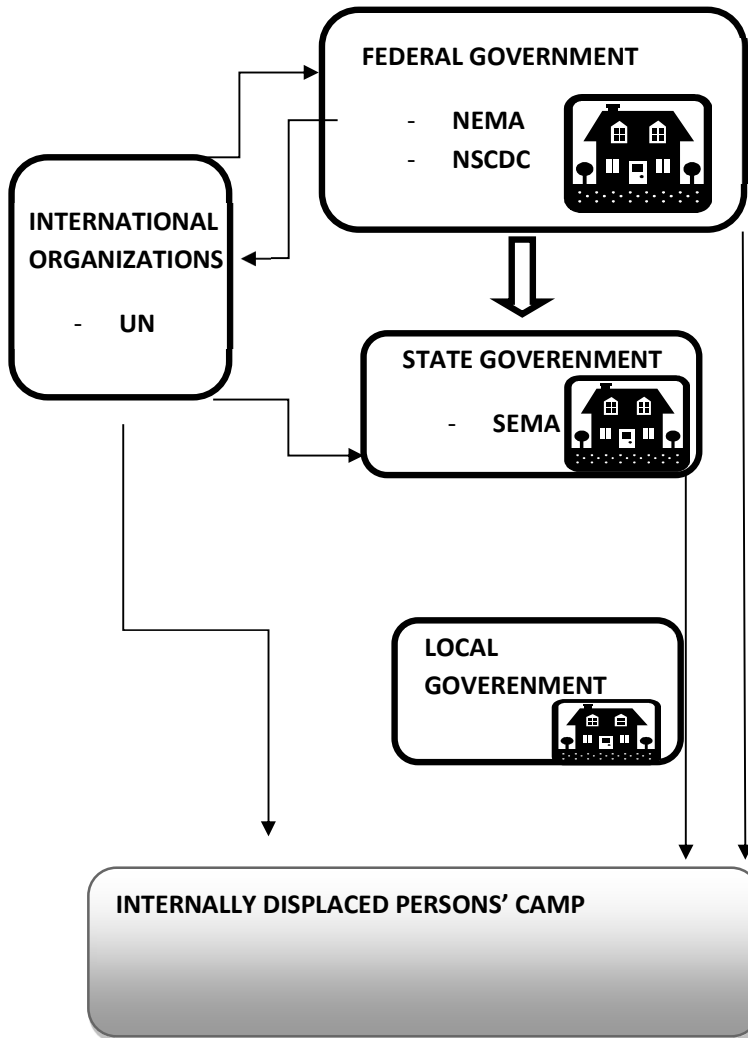


Fig. 1: A diagrammatic description of IDP management (study of Bakassi IDP Camp) in Nigeria.

Shebbs, Agbor and Uduma, (2022) field work analysis conducted to determine the nature and structure of IDP management in Nigeria

Analysis of Research Findings

Responses	IDPs		LGA Staff		Camp Staff	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
IDP Needs						
Food and Water	35(23%)	115(77%)	7(20%)	28(80%)	6(40%)	9(60%)
Security	92(61%)	58(49%)	13(37%)	22(73%)	9(60%)	6(40%)
Shelter	13(9%)	137(91%)	2(6%)	33(94%)	5(33%)	10(67%)
Health	53(35%)	97(65%)	14(40%)	23(60%)	11(73%)	4(27%)
Education	22(15%)	83(85%)	4(11%)	31(89%)	9(60%)	6(40%)
Total	150(100%)		35(100%)		15(100%)	

Table 1: Summary of responses from structured interview granted to 200 respondents distributed thus: 150 IDPs 35 Local Government Staff and 15 IDP Camp Staff
Source: Shebbs, Agbor and Uduma (2022) field work analysis conducted to determine the nature and structure of IDP management in Nigeria.

From the table above, there are 5 basic needs of IDPs which include Food and Water (FW), Security, Shelter, Health and Education. These are basic needs which demand complimentary role by the government in order to be provided. This implies that the people cannot provide adequate security for themselves, FW, shelter, health and education if the government's assistance is not there.

By virtue of their status as IDPs, these needs are contained in the NPIDPs (2012) of the Nigerian government as the specific and general rights of IDPs which the government should provide for them. Specifically, the structured interview seeks to examine if LGA has provided any of these needs. If yes, how much has LGA's been of impact to the IDP camp? The relevant analysis follows below:

i. Food and Water;

35 out of 150 IDPs, (which is about 23%) agreed to the fact they are being provided with adequate food and water as they need from the Local Government. The rest of 115 which is about 77% do not have access to food and water. They provide that for themselves.

7 of LGA respondents which is about 20% are of the opinion that the LGAs provide food and water to the IDPs from time to time. The LGA does this out of pittance for the IDPs. The LGA is not under any statutory or legal obligation to provide for this yet they do it. 28 of the respondents which make for about 80% are of the opinion that the LGA does not supply the IDPs with FW.

6 out of 15 IDP staff respondents which makes for about 40% are of the opinion that the LGAs provide FW for the IDPs. 9 IDP staff (about 60%) disagree that the IDPs are supplied with FW. Even if the FW are supplied, they remain insufficient for the huge number of IDPs.

ii. Security;

61% of IDPs agree that their lives and properties are secure. Even if there is minor loss of items, they are not really pronounced and there is no open attack on the IDPs.

37% of LGA staff agree that they provide security to the IDP and 73% disagree largely because IDP camps are not their primary jurisdictions. The LGA staff do not have direct access to IDP

camp. As a matter of due process, the LGA staff have to pass through the camp staff. 60% of the IDP staff agree that the security system of the camp is safe for the IDPs.

Regardless of these complexities, it is pertinent to understand that security is a public good. The peace and security which is provided by the LGA spreads to every corner of its jurisdiction. This therefore accounts for why the high level of security in the IDP camp.

iii. Shelter;

19% of the IDPs have shelter in the camp. They live in tents made available by the government. 91% which is about 137 of the respondents do not have adequate shelter. They make the tents themselves and do have to maintain them.

97% of the LGA respondents do not agree that LGA provides shelter for the IDPs. 2 respondents from the LGA making about 3% agree that the LGA, through the community provide local assistance to shelter to the IDPs by mobilizing local remedies in form of bamboo sticks and palm fronds to be used to construct make-shift tents for the IDPs.

33% of the camp staff agree that the LGA provides shelter for the IDPs while 67% are of contrary opinion. LGA provides shelter for IDPs but the shelter does not go round the huge number of IDPs. There is no basic arrangement for maintenance of torn tents and dilapidated structures in the camp.

iv. Health;

35% of the IDPs benefit from health care programs of the Local Government. 65% which is about 97 of the respondents do not benefit from the health care programs introduced in the camp. They are either not carried along due to insufficient materials or not duly informed of such programs.

40% of the local government staff agree that IDPs the LGA organises immunization exercises for kids in the camp. Women and children participate in other health care programs organized by the local government.

73% of the IDP staff agree that the IDPs are provided with health care programs which are being championed by the Federal and State government as well as donor agencies. They come from time to time to distribute drugs and health welfare packages to the IDPs. 27% of the IDP camp staff believe that the health care programs do not cover the huge number of IDPs in the camp.

v. Education;

15% of the IDP kids receive education. They attend schools located outside the camp. 85% of the IDPs do not benefit from education because of the financial demands such as payment of school fees and purchase school accessories.

11% of the LGA staff agree that the LGA contributes to the education of IDPs such as in the purchase and distribution of education materials from time to time.

60% of the camp staff agree that the management provides adequate education for the IDPs by organising ad-hoc tutorials in basic science and arts for IDP children.

Local Government as a Potential Leverage for Addressing IDPs' Priority needs and Challenges

i. Provision of security

Literarily, security applies to protection which is understood as encompassing “all activities, aimed at obtaining full respect for the rights of the individual in accordance with the letter and the spirit of the relevant bodies of law (i.e. human rights, humanitarian and refugee law)”, International Committee of the Red Cross (2001).

Security has to do with physical protection from harm. It is the wish of every IDP to be physically protected from attacks and harm. Security also has to do with protection of properties belonging to IDPs with which they came to the camp. Most of them came with few domestic materials like kitchen utensils, clothing, money and GSM from their primary areas of habitation. Housing

ii. Provision of feed and water (FW) for IDPs

FW has to do with adequate provision of food and water for IDPs. Food may likely not be restricted to provision of ready-made meals. It applies to provision of food substances, raw materials and ingredients used for preparing meals. IDPs need food for their children too. It is expected that the management system of IDPs should provide foods for them putting into consideration their dietary dynamics and variations. This means that pregnant women, children and bed-ridden IDPs have dietary peculiarities which should be put into consideration by the government when providing food for them.

IDPs use water basically for washing, drinking and bathing. Clean water should be made available also for them.

This is a very discreet task which can be effectively performed by the local government with its grass root institutions.

iii. Provision of basic health facilities and attendance for IDP camps

Local Governments operate the primary health care system with referral provisions to Secondary and Tertiary health centres. With its primary health institutions, the LGAs can provide for adequate health care in the IDP camps if they are involved in the IDP management.

Adequate health care in the IDP camp is reactionary. This means that health care intervention comes to place when there is an alarm or health emergency. This ought not to be so. Health care systems in the IDPs should be more than administration of immunization vaccines free drugs etc to the IDPs.

There should be health and welfare sensitization exercises which shall encourage IDPs on proper health and living standard.

iv. Rehabilitation

This is the apex of IDP management. In as much as IDPs should be secure, well fed and provided with basic health needs, it is therefore most important to have them rehabilitated to completeness and re-established into the society. This is most important because if it is ignored, the IDPs will turn back as miscreants and cause various social harms to the society. LGAs can play a major role of rehabilitating IDPs by organising skill acquisition for them. This will train them to be self-dependent and moreover provide basic services to the community where they are.

Skill acquisition training can only be solidly achieved when the local comes into place and provide

Summary and Recommendations

IDP management in Nigeria is a mile away from perfection. The federal and the state legislations enacted in Nigeria set up the national and state institutions which were charged with the responsibility of taking care of IDPs. Participant observation revealed that these institutions have not achieved optimum output with respect to the nature of reports received and the status of the IDPs in the camps. One major argument and of course the fundamental question this research seeks to answer is the role of the local government in IDP management in Nigeria. This research found out that there is an obvious lacuna with respect to the role of the local governments in Nigeria juxtaposed with IDP management. The local government hold a strong hegemony over the grassroots and of course the rural society which is where most IDP camps are located. The IDP management instructions at the state and federal tiers of government, with their tandem management mechanisms do not have their replications in the local government areas. This lapse becomes highly consequential to the entire IDP management in Nigeria. On the grounds of the foregoing and subject to the theoretical, logical and empirical observation and arguments of this paper, the study summarily concludes as follows:

Statutory involvement of Local Governments in the Management of IDPs in Nigeria. This should not be a conventional role as it is but rather the NPIDP should be amended to include the LGAs in the management of IDPs. Doing this will improve their level of commitment as it makes it mandatory for them to perform these basic roles that they can do.

Statutory allocation of 3% of LG budget for IDPs within its jurisdiction. This will help to finance the management process. This is in view of the fact that funding has been a major challenge. The management of IDP camps are cheaply funded. They struggle to manage the meagre sum of money which is been allotted to them from the budget. Very little financial support come from the state and there is no financial support from the Local government so far. In the 2016 Federal Budget a meagre sum of N10bn (Vanguard Newspaper report March 26th, 2016) was budgeted for nearly 3 million IDPs in Nigeria.

If IDPs are transferred to a particular region from foreign localities, 1% from the budget of each of the home LGAs should be allotted for IDP management in the camp where they are kept.

Local Government should be statutorily engaged to mobilization of donor agencies. In other words, instead of passing through the state governments, local and international donor agencies should pass through the LGAs to make their contribution to the camps. Working directly with the local governments intensifies the grassroots effect of humanitarian intervention and equally boycotts the bureaucratic delays and distraction which are applicable to the federal and state levels of government.

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