



HUMAN SECURITY QUESTIONS AND THE IMPACTS OF BOKO-HARAM INSURGENCY IN NORTH EASTERN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Boko Haram insurgency in North Eastern Nigeria has created a human security concern which manifested in the crisis of refugees or internally displaced persons that constitutes one of the world's most worrisome humanitarian crises. A refugee is someone who has been forced to flee his or her country because of persecution, war, or violence. A refugee has a well founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership in a particular social group. Most likely, they cannot return home or are afraid to do so. War and ethnic, tribal and religious violence are leading causes refugees fleeing their countries-may trigger conflicts. With the Boko Haram insurgency attacks, the number of internally displaced persons in the northern part of the country rose tremendously. In addressing this crisis in the country, efforts of the government have not been pleasing and encouraging. This paper is therefore set to interrogate the extent to which the internally displaced persons affect human security in northern Nigeria. Forced migration and social inclusion theories were the theoretical frameworks adopted for the study while it relies on primary and secondary sources of data for analysis. Findings of the study reveals that measures of the government in addressing the crisis of internally displaced persons in the country is on ad-hoc basis with no solid and durable solution in view. In addition, the crisis of internally displaced persons hinders immensely the developmental process of the region. This work advocates for the inclusion of the internally displaced persons' affairs at the local government level thereby establishing offices for the representatives of those displaced persons. The increments of funds to enhance and protect human security amongst the citizens are alternative measures in addressing

the crisis of internally displaced persons in the country thereby enhancing human security in the region.

Keywords: *Human Security, Boko-Haram, Insurgency, North East.*

Introduction

Armed conflict before the cold war era was a phenomenon which occurred between sovereign states; however, since the decline of the cold war era, the phenomenon of conflict has largely been transformed with the emergence of violent non-state actors either directly against their own government or contending groups within the state. Terrorism which has been regarded as the most common and devastating of armed conflict constitutes the greatest threat to global peace and security in the twenty-first century (Imasuen, 2015)

The end of the cold war had profound effect on more than just the ideologically divided geo-political milieu which African terrorist groups operated. This period may have rendered leftist ideologies irrelevant, but more significantly it signalled the end of external backing for numerous conflicts in Africa (Boas, 2007). The terrorist's attack of the twin towers in 11 September 2001 has significantly altered the face of global security. The western world led by the United States, has become more concerned with 'failing' states in the global south (mainly consisting of developing countries). And this concern also has significant implications for Africa and terrorist groups on the African continent (Boas, 2007)

Humanitarian disaster which mainly comes in form of displacement has been a major characteristic and resultant effect of conflict within and between societies. There are doubts on whether there have been important changes in patterns of displacement over the past century. Despite this, one key change in the twentieth century is regarding government policies all around the world towards regulating migration, and towards defining those were to be given the special status of displaced person, either in form of refugees at the international scene or locally as internally displaced person (IDPS) (Newman, 2003).

The increase in the number of humanitarian disaster situation within countries and across borders has become a common feature of the post-cold war world. It is also a main characteristic of human insecurity in which terrorism and shocking violations of human rights wreaking havoc on

civilians. The need of IDPs, seeking international protection became one of the factors that signalled a shift in global policy and security thinking. Over the past two decades, a strictly state-centred system in which sovereignty was absolute is gradually giving way to the behaviour of states towards their own citizens which has become a matter of international concern (Cohen and Deng, 2009). These changes are due to the efforts of the humanitarian community to reach people in need in form of the deployment of large numbers of relief workers and peacekeeping operations to protect civilians during conflicts.

A significant reason for the struggle against terrorism has been revolving around issues which have to do with respect for human security, in both local and international settings, have commented on the rise in the incidence of the abuse of human rights. Not only do terrorist constitute enormous threats to the lives of the innocents, but state but state authorities too. In many instances of displacement as result of terror, states authorities often respond indiscriminately in their efforts to counter terrorism (Foot, 2007).the international human rights experts , especially those of the untied /United Nations system, have come to find out that many of the measures that states use to counter terrorism often infringe on human rights and fundamental freedoms.

Humanitarian Disaster Relief (HDR) provided in recent years by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in Africa has saved hundreds of thousands of lives from the scourge of humanitarian disaster. The value of these roles is increasingly recognised and appreciated. However, there could be negative consequences when terrorist groups gain control of supplies intended for civilians forcefully through theft. More indirectly, when NGOs meet the needs of civilian populations, the government would rather direct the use of the resources for war-making (Imasuen, 2015).

In Nigeria, despite seeming improvements in the non-oil sector, led by agriculture, trade and services, the economy continues to be dominated by the petroleum industry, which provides more than 90 percent of export earnings and also 60 percent of fiscal revenue (Barungi, 2014). Nigeria is a member of OPEC (Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries), a producer and an exporter of oil. Ironically, the benefits of this economic growth are concentrated to a few Nigerians, majority of Nigerians remain in poverty (Barungi, 2014). The effect of this poverty is that it has sparked sectarian and identity based divides in Nigeria, where Boko Haram emerged

in the north eastern part of the country, poverty rates hits above 70 percent (Barungi, 2014).

The spread of the pernicious activities of the Boko Haram terrorism in north east Nigeria since 2009 has created devastating humanitarian consequences to the North East region. Living in communities like Borno, Yobe, Adamawa states, such as Kawuri, Baga. Konduga, Bama, Shuwa, Ajigin. Gamboru, Giwa, Chibok, Gwoza among others, have been inherently destructive and fatal. Civil normalcy in the region seem elusive at the mercy of the dire humanitarian situation in the manifestation of human casualties, human right abuses, loss of means of livelihood, food insecurity, and massive population displacement (Imasuen, 2015). In the light of the above, the study would examine the roles of non-government organisations in humanitarian disaster relief in north east Nigeria.

Statement of the Research Problem

The human cost of refugee crisis has been felt in virtually every nook and cranny of the globe. Refugee clearly has a very real and direct impact on human security, with devastating consequences for the right to life, liberty and physical integrity of those affected. Further, refugee destabilizes governments, undermines civil society, and disrupts peace and security, and more fundamentally threatens social and economic development.

The Boko Haram terrorist group increased their activities spanning to a widening range of targets in Nigeria including the federal capital, thus, making it almost impossible for the government to decisively counter the activities of the group in most of the affected areas. Also, the NGOs could not go to the IPDs due to increase in insecurity, they were there but recently declined operation because of sporadic attacks of the insurgents on IDPs (Imasuen, 2015). For example, the MEDICUS SAN frontiers pull out of Yobe complaining of insecurity. The humanitarian situation in north east Nigeria is increasingly escalating, as a result of the lack of access by various humanitarian agencies to rural areas where these displaced people reside, mainly because of random violence. This has made it difficult for most humanitarian responses to the needs of IDPS in these rural areas, depriving hundreds of thousand IDPS of the availability and access to food, clean water or security in general in North East Nigeria (Imasuen, 2015).

Despite the deterioration of the human situation in the North East Nigeria, these are significant challenges in knowing the contexts in which non-

governmental organisations operate during humanitarian disaster, the causes of humanitarian disaster in North East Nigeria, the effects of humanitarian disaster situation in North East, the roles of non-governmental organisations in humanitarian disaster relief in north east Nigeria as well as the challenges to non- governmental organisations in humanitarian disaster relief in North East Nigeria. It is in light of these that this study seeks to assess the role of non- governmental organisations in humanitarian disaster relief in north east Nigeria in order to evaluate their impact.

Objectives of the paper

The main objective of the paper is to examine Human Security Questions and the Impacts of Boko-Haram Insurgency in North Eastern Nigeria. The specific objectives are:

- a. To examine the causes of humanitarian disaster in North Eastern Nigeria;
- b. To evaluate the effects of humanitarian disaster situation in North Eastern Nigeria;
- c. To examine the roles of non-governmental organisations in humanitarian disaster relief in Eastern Nigeria, and;
- d. To examine the challenges posed to non-governmental organisations in humanitarian disaster relief in North East Nigeria.

Research Questions

In light of the foregoing, this paper seeks to find answer to the following questions:

- a. What are the causes of humanitarian disaster situation in North Eastern Nigeria?
- b. What are the effects of humanitarian disaster situation in North Eastern Nigeria?
- c. What are the roles of non-governmental organisations in humanitarian disaster relief in North Eastern Nigeria?
- d. What are the challenges posed to non-governmental organisations in humanitarian disaster relief in North East Nigeria?

Hypotheses of the paper

- a. That Boko Haram insurgency is the major cause of humanitarian disaster in North East Nigeria.

- b. That non-governmental organisations activities in North Eastern Nigeria have ameliorated the effects of humanitarian disaster.
- c. That activities of NGO's in the north east were crippled as a result of consistent attack by the boko haram insurgents.

Significance of the paper

The study will attempt to address the Human Security Questions And The Impacts Of Boko-Haram Insurgency in North Eastern Nigeria . The study having analysed some of the basic problems associated with such attempts as well as the context within which such NGO's operates, it is within the confines of this study to provide sufficient data and sources that will fill the existing flaws and gaps established in the literature in the course of the study. Findings of the study will be of great benefit to international humanitarian organization interested to contribute to the IDP's welfare. The study will further assist the government to have a clear window view on the records of existing IDP camps, composition, location, situation, demands, problems and how best to solve the problems especially in the north east of Nigeria.

As a reference material, the study would contribute to existing knowledge especially to students of political science, international relations, sociology, history, developmental studies and other related disciplines that have direct or indirect connection with humanitarian disaster, on the causes and impact of humanitarian disaster in North East Nigeria and the intervention efforts of NGO's. The findings of the study will also provide a new horizon for academic discourse especially in the areas of limitations and recommendations of the study which could serve as an opening for another research.

Finally, the findings of this study would assist the government and its respective agencies in the area of policy formation and policy direction on human security, and on the appropriate responses to humanitarian situation in IDP camps and elsewhere. The findings will fill the gap in transparency of the NGOs who are in directly involved in IDP's operation, their budget and program design among others.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study focuses on the Human Security Questions And The Impacts Of Boko-Haram Insurgency in North Eastern Nigeria . The study covers

between the periods 2010 to 2015. This period is chosen because of the seeming escalation of humanitarian situation in north east Nigeria.

The major limitation for the study is the fact that the study area, which is the North East Nigeria, is a theatre of war, hence making it very difficult to access.

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

Concept of Human Security

The term human security gained prominence by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) leading to several attempts to gainfully explain what the term means. The UNDP in 1994 viewed human security to mean freedom from war and violence as well as the basic needs for and rights to economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, community security and political security (Bariledum, 2013).

Accordingly, when people are not secured, they become burdens on the society. To the UNDP, unlike the traditional concept of security which entailed a defensive concept, human security is an integrative notion such that when people are able to take care of themselves by earning a living, they contribute development to their society and gradually to their country and gradually globally (Bariledum, 2013). Thakur in addition posited that human security refers to the quality of the life of an individual of a society. Anything which degrades their quality of life- demographic pressures, diminished access to or stock or resources and so on- is a security threat. Conversely anything which can upgrade their quality of life- economic growth, improved access to resources, social and political empowerment, and so on- is an enhancement of human security (as cited in Dhirathiti, 2011, p. 257).

In other words, the individual must be able to enjoy alienable needs within the society. It is on this basis that Gomez and Gasper (2013) related human security as security not only from violence and conflicts but the security of individual's livelihoods. Hence the definition of human security by Frechette as "those things that men and women anywhere in the world cherish most: enough food for the family; adequate shelter; good health; schooling for the children; protection from violence whether inflicted by man or by nature; and a State which does not oppress its citizens but rules with their consent" (as cited in Annan, 2001, p. 3). Newman (2010) opined that the concept of human security defies the traditional concept of security with the main focus on the individuals as the referent object rather than the state as the referent

object. Human security as well defies institutions that place much emphasis on the superiority of the state over the individual experiences of her citizens. By this, the traditional definitions of security are necessary but are not sufficient conceptions of human welfare. By this greater importance of state security can be at the detriment of human security. Therefore it is possible for a state to be secure from external aggressions but is insecure in dealing with the conditions of her citizens. An example of such is Bangladesh which is secured traditionally but the state of human security within the nation is worryingly.

Issues Affecting Human Security

In discussing the threats to human security, the UNDP (1994) identified 7 groups of these threats which are economic threats, food threats, health threats, environmental threats, personal threats, community threats and political threats.

Economic security refers to an assured basic income which comes usually from productive works or from government financed institutions. Food security implies that people must have ready access to food and enough food to go round. Here individuals go hungry because they cannot afford it and not because there is no food. Health security is essential as it explained that people should be able to get access to health related services. Personal security entails security from violence physically. Community security entails security or a sense of belonging to a particular group by being a member of the group. The members of such groups often times do share some values or principles together. Political security entails that individuals should be able to live in a society that respects their basic human rights. Often times, human rights violations are prominent during political crisis. However these, there are factors that hinder governments of state to accomplish human security. These factors vary from chronic and persistent poverty, armed violence, human trafficking, climate change, and health pandemics to international terrorism, poor civil and military relations, the politics of exclusion, and sudden economic and financial downturns. Accordingly, claims were laid to four interconnected groupings of fundamental factors of human insecurity as: “causes that are unobstructive and hence not easily acknowledged and explained; causes that have historical origins; causes that are systematically reproduced through existing social, political, and economic institutions; and causes that reflect the

immediate consequences of existing institutional conditions” (Akokpari, 2007, p. 22). These causes were grouped fundamentally to two groups as external threats and internal threats. These factors endanger the security of individuals residing in such unstable societies. From the recent occurrences of human insecurity issues in Africa, it is deduced that as states are instigators of human security, they are also the creators of human insecurity (Akokpari, 2007). Hence, Nwanegbo and Odigbo (2013) asserted that the basic threats to insecurity in Nigeria are ethno-religious conflicts, the unemployment of youths, and the political nature of the state and political corruption which has become a norm in the society.

Human displacement also known as forced displacement creates the opposite of a secure environment for the individual thereby forcing the individual to leave his habitual home to seek safety in a strange environment. To Bhagwan (2013) displacement is in itself a firm pointer of the creation of insecurities to human beings. Displaced persons either cross the national border to another sovereign state or relocate to another area within their national state therefore producing refugees or internally displaced persons respectively.

Internal Displacement As Threat To Human Security

The end of the Cold War experienced rapid increase in the displacement of people internally than externally. The definition of the United Nations Secretary-General on internally displaced persons 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” (Mooney, 2005, p.11).

Although the idea of displacement caused by developmental activities have not been included in the working definition which was reflected in the 1998 Guiding Principles of the United Nations which is at the international level, at the regional level, some states have adopted the United Nations Guiding Principles’ definition and have included development activities as one of the causes of internal displacement in their regions. Regions as South Asia and West Africa governments have included displacement from development projects as one of the causes of internal displacements in their regions. As a result of the negligence of persons displaced by development projects, these

persons receive less support from their governments and even less of international aids as compared to persons displaced by conflict and violence. Betts et al., (2006) asserted that diverse reasons have been attributed to the possible rise of internally displaced persons as against refugees in the world today. One of which is that sometimes mountains and rivers restrict migration across borders.

Another reason is that displaced persons at times prefer to remain in environments familiar to them and so they prefer to stay back in their own countries rather than cross the national border. Most importantly is the fact that neighbouring countries have adopted strict policies on the migration of refugees into their country. This is as a result of the economic burden, these displaced persons place on their societies. With all these, there is an opposite relationship between the increasing numbers of internally displaced persons and the decreasing numbers of refugees. For instance, in 2001 during the Afghanistan war, the number of internally displaced persons in the country was 2 million. That same year, only 200,000 Afghans crossed the national border into Pakistan as refugees. This is also evident in the African countries at which in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), there was an estimated 1.5 million displaced in the country.

However, only 469,000 became refugees. As well, in Sudan of the 6 million displaced persons in the country, only 703,000 persons became refugees. The Global IDP Survey posited that over 13 million IDPs are in Africa, between 5 and 6 million IDPs are in Asia, with 3 million in Europe and between 3 and 4 million in the Americas. This goes on to show the increase of internally displaced persons as against refugees in the world today. According to Bhagwan (2013) internal displacement disrupts socioeconomic activities and systems of areas left behind by the displaced persons and areas to which these displaced persons flee into.

One feature of internal displacement according to the Asplet (2013) is that internal displacement occurs on a massive scale. Hence, large scale of the migration of internally displaced persons into an area can disrupt an entire region especially if such regions are not prepared for such influx or the region is under-resourced to cater for the influx of internally displaced persons into the area. However, from the definition of the United Nations Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, Asplet identified three phases of internal displacement which are predisplacement, during displacement, and post- displacement. By pre- displacement, the central focus of the state

is to prevent the causes of displacement from occurring. During displacement, the basis of concentration is the protection of the internally displaced persons as well as rendering assistance to these persons. The post-displacement phases emphasis finding long lasting solutions for the affected internally displaced persons as well as building sustainable livelihoods for these persons.

Despite the challenges encountered by the internally displaced persons, these displaced persons have the right to some privileges as identified in the Guiding Principles of the internally displaced persons. These key rights include “right to life, liberty and security of person, protection against violence; right to food; right to water and sanitation; right to adequate housing; right to medical assistance and healthcare; right to property; protection against attacks on property; freedom of movement; right to be recognized as a person before the law; right to family life and unity; right to education; right to work and an adequate standard of living; right to freedom of expression, freedom of thought, conscience, religion or belief; right to participate in the public affairs of the nation; and right to humanitarian assistance” (Asplet, 2013, p. 24). In trying to reduce the internally displaced persons’ crisis in Africa, the 2009 African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (the Kampala Convention) was adopted in 2012. The Convention relied heavily on the Guiding Principles on internal displacement in mitigating the IDP crisis befalling the continent at large.

Non-Governmental Organisations and Humanitarian Assistance

Non-governmental organisations are of different forms and sizes depending on their targets, mission, modus operandi and status. Some are deeply rooted within the context of religious affiliations, regionally based NGO’s; others are technically specialized agencies while some are community based organisations. Thus, their affiliation and context determined their modus operandi. Majority of these NGOs are small in size, and many are worldwide entities with international umbrellas. At the very initial stage of the formation of an NGO, it establishes a mission or vision statement, and a set of aims and objectives guiding it as an organisation (Lawry, 2009). For instance if an NGO is created with the mission of responding to women during Humanitarian Disaster (HD), it would seek to raise funds , capacity ,

and knowhow to deliver programming to assist women that have fallen victims of HD.

NGOs are key actors in the area of humanitarian action, human rights, environment, and even issues that have to do with development in third world countries. Other significant areas NGOs ranges from the aftermath of tsunami aide efforts in Indonesia, India, Thailand and Sir Lanka, to the 2005 make poverty history campaign for aide and trade reform and developing country debt cancellation. This shows that, NGOs are well known for two correlated kind of activity, that to say is the delivery of humanitarian services to people in need, and the organisation of policy advocacy, or public campaigns in pursuit of social transformation (Lewis, 2009).

According to Lewis (2007), the task undertaken by NGOs is very broad, though these roles can be categorised into three main components: interpreter, catalyst and partner. The implementer role has to do with mobilisation of resources in the provision of goods and services to people in need. Service delivery is implemented across a wide range of fields such as healthcare, microfinance, agricultural extension, emergency relief, and human rights. This role has increased as NGOs have been increasingly involved with governments and donors with governance reform and privatisation policies to execute specific tasks in return for payment, or in situations involving response to man-made emergencies or natural disasters with humanitarian assistance.

The catalyst role of NGOs lies within its ability to inspire, facilitate or contribute to improved thinking or action to promote social transformation. The role of partner is a reflection of growing trend for NGOs to work with government, donors and the private sector on joint activities, such as providing specific inputs within a broader multiagency program or project, or undertaking socially responsible business initiatives.

Binns (2009) asserts that, NGOs maybe be large or small, formal or informal, bureaucratic or flexible. In respect to their funding, many are externally funded, while many depend on locally mobilised resources. Some may be well resourced and affluent, while others may not be, struggling to survive from one year to the next. There are NGOs with highly professionalised staff, while others rely heavily on volunteers and supporters. In terms of values, NGOs are driven by a range of motivations.

Sandler (1993) is of the opinion that NGOs may pursue change, but they can equally work to maintain favourably social and political systems in

existence. For example, for radicals who want to experiment different vision of development and change, NGO's may be seen as progressive tools for change. For conservatives who want private alternatives to the state, NGO's may be regarded as part of market-based solutions to policy problems. An important aspect here is that NGOs provides a platform which arrange of current ideas, expectations and anxieties about social transformation re projected.

According to Kolb (2003), NGOs usually rely on donations from private citizens and sometimes including even governments. NGOs that operate across borders are mainly based in advanced industrial countries. Social movements unlike NGOs tend to be looser organisations, often with foundation on grass-roots groups and making use of volunteers. Because of their grass-roots nature, social movements tend to be locally based, although they can and do make coalitions across borders. Networks have been an increasingly significant phenomenon in the 1990s. They are loose coalitions of NGOs and social movements, often making use of the opportunities offered by the internet and providing a vehicle to transmit directly the voices and arguments of southern and eastern groups rather than indirectly through the northern-based NGOs.

Despite the fact NGOs have distinct mandates, organisational histories, cultures and interests, epistemic and collegial links among staff members of the major NGOs are strong. Over the years, NGOs have greatly increased their coordination in practice and in principle, covering virtually every aspect of their work. Umbrella groups and consortia such as the steering committee for humanitarian response and interaction in Washington and Voluntary Organisations in Cooperation in Emergencies (VOICE) in Brussels have served as forums for dialogue and information sharing, and as vehicles for joint advocacy (Stoddard, 2003).

The outrage results of intra-state war in particular have been the main impetus for the rise of NGOs, but also have constituted threats to their traditional humanitarian principles, as they no longer operate afar from conflict but must now provide humanitarian assistance in the midst of ongoing and resurging violence. Recently, NGOs have proven to be the best providers of humanitarian disaster relief because of their direct involvement with the local community and knowledge of its cultural setting. NGOs play crucial roles in delivering immediate humanitarian assistance through medical, food, shelter, and educational services (Patey and McNamara,

2003). In many instances NGOs fill the gap in the responsibilities of failed local governments.

Impact of Humanitarian Disaster on Human Security

Humanitarian disasters have enormous human and economic effects; they cause many deaths, severe or fatal injuries, and food shortages. Most incidents of severe injuries and deaths occur spontaneously at the time of impact, while on the hand disease outbreaks and acute food shortages usually occur much later, depending on the nature and duration of the disaster. The prediction of the possible consequences of disasters can help settle on the actions that need to be taken before the incidence of a disaster in order to minimise its effects (Sena and Michael, 2006).

According to the United Nations, over the past twenty years disasters from natural hazard have affected 4.4 billion people, claimed 1.3 million lives and caused \$2 trillion in economic losses. For the first time, disaster losses globally have topped \$100bn for three consecutive years within 2010 to 2012. This is by far outstripping humanitarian aid, making economic losses from disasters out of control (UNSDIR, 2013).

In both developed and developing countries, people are at a wide variety of risks to their livelihood. Accidents, sicknesses, or sudden death can disable the head of a household or even an entire family. Even for households in urban, industrial or commercial sectors, income fluctuates over time due to contractual and physical risks in handling of products, intermediate goods and employees in LDCs. Macroeconomic instability or recessions, which tend to generate harsh inflation/deflation and widespread unemployment, can also significantly reduce the real value of household resources. However, natural disasters can generate the most destructive effects ever known. Recently, a number of natural disasters hit both developed and developing countries alike. A huge number of lives were lost in the Indian Ocean Tsunami, Pakistan earthquake, great Hanshin-Awaji (Kobe) earthquake, and hurricane Katrina. In addition to disasters caused by natural events, man-made disasters such as economic crises, terrorism, and wars also create serious damage (Sawada, 2006).

Humanitarian disasters have a devastating impact on development. People lose their homes and means of livelihoods, children and particularly girls loss the opportunity for proper schooling and are at risk of early marriage, and so on. Disasters can disrupt any progress made on attaining economic

development (Shepard, 2013). This was certainly the situation in the Philippines, when it was struck in 2009 by tropical storm. Rizal, one of the provinces hit hardest, saw the poverty incidence almost double, from 5.5 per cent in 2006 to 9.5 per cent in 2009. Even after six years recovery was still slow, with 7.6 per cent of families still below the poverty line (shepherd, 2013).

Refugee and Humanitarian Crisis in North Eastern Nigeria

The apparent confusion generated by the plethora of theories attempting to explain the Boko Haram challenge also characterizes the origin of the boko haram sect. The confusion not only reflects in the narratives about the exact date, and who the actual founder was, but also as to the true source of these expositions. For instance, Pinar, (2011), observed that while the popular belief is that it was founded around 2001 or 2002, he notes, traces the date to as far back as 1995, and argues that, one Lawan Abubakar, who later left for further studies at the University of Medina, Saudi Arabia, actually founded the Boko Haram sect. Under Abubakar, the sect was known as Sahaba, (Pinar, (2011).

Elsewhere, these expositions are credited to Shehu Sani, a Senator and civil right activist in northern Nigeria, who helped broker the first attempt to broker peace with the sect who failed (Pinar, (2011). While Uzodike and Maiangwa on the other hand acknowledged the Lawan Abubakar angle, they attribute their source to Pinar, (2011). They also acknowledge Raphael, (2007) version which traced the origin to an evangelical group formed by Muslim students at the University of Maiduguri, Borno state, who reportedly felt dissatisfied with Western education.

Muhammed Yusuf, to whom the formation is now generally ascribed, according to the competing narratives only assumed leadership after Abubakar's departure and "indoctrinated the sect with his own teachings, which he claimed were based on purity" (Raphael,2007). Yusuf's motion of "purity" and teachings were inspired by the works of IbnTaymiyya, a fourteenth century legal scholar who preached Islamic fundamentalism and is considered a "major theorist" for radical groups in the Middle East, after whom Yusuf named his mosque in Maiduguri. But just as the sect itself may be less concerned about whom to credit for its formation than waging its war against the Nigerian state, the state too may be less concerned with the origin than it is with the threat that the group now poses to society.

The obscurity surrounding its true origin perhaps informs why initially, the sect "had no specific name as its members attracted several descriptions where they operated based on the perception of the local population" (Imasuen, 2015). Such names include Taliban and the *Yussufiyyah*. The sect soon became formally identified as *Ahulsunnawal'jama'ah Hijra* "Congregation of Followers of the Prophet Involved in the Call to Islam and Religious Struggle". The name Boko Haram, to which it is now commonly referred derives from the sect's anti-Western posturing, literally meaning Western education (book) civilization is sin.

In the early stages, the Boko Haram sect was widely known to have mobilized its membership from women and children, school drop-outs and unemployed university and polytechnic graduates, most of who tore up their certificates; student members withdrew from school. Victoroff (2005) posits that "these recruits were indoctrinated by Yussuf to believe that their state of hopelessness was caused by government which imposed Western education on them and failed to manage the resources of the country to their benefits. Although from the outset, the sect's mission was to impose the Shari'a on Nigeria, the leadership went about Islamic preachers who saw the preaching and interpretation of the Quran as a recipe for violence and an affront to constituted authority (Imasuen, 2015).

Although incidents of violence have earlier been recorded against the sect, serious concerns over its violent tendencies grew only after the open confrontation between the sect and the government in July 2009 following the death of Yussuf while in police custody, as well as his father-in-law and sect financier, Ustaz BujiFoi, and the incarceration of members by state authorities (Ritzer, 2008).

Although Yussuf allegedly drew inspiration from radical Islamist, IbnTaymiyya, he reportedly resisted some of followers relentless advocate that "an Islamic state was realizable through preaching and mobilization of the people to reject secularism, by way of taking up arms and fighting to conquer the unbelievers"; "Yussuf was said to be against any form of violence, saying it was against the teaching of Islam"(Ritzer, 2008). It is, therefore, function of the deaths of its initial leadership and subsequent clampdown by the¹ State or the accession to its leadership of the taciturn psychopath, Abubakar Shekua, a Kanuri native, who boasts that "I enjoy Killing and rams," (Worcester, 2015). Along with two other top leadership,

Abubakar Adam Kamar and Khalid al-Barnawi, Shekau in June 2012 recently made the United States' list of international terrorists.

Until the June 16, 2011, bombing of the Nigeria Police Headquarters in Abuja, the sect had restricted its terror campaign mostly to the North East part of Nigeria. Remarkably, the attack on the Police Headquarters came barely after then Inspector-General of Police, IGP, Hafiz Ringim returned from a duty tour of Maiduguri where the sect had just carried out some terror campaign and stated he would soon smoke them out. The sect followed up that attack with the bombing on August 26 of the United Nations House, also in Abuja, a place Shekau described as a "forum of all the global evil," (Worcester, 2015). Since then, Boko Haram has earlier claimed responsibility for or has been credited with most terror activities in the north east of the country. Its operations have also grown in scale and sophistication.

Thus, Nigeria came to be confronted with a new security challenge posing severe humanitarian crisis arising from the activities of Boko Haram sect. this kind of violence was mainly as a result of religious extremism as mentioned inter-alia. It is pertinent to add that, boko haram is self-proclaimed militant organisation based in North Eastern Nigeria, Cameroun, Niger and Chad. The movement was founded by a radical, Mohammed Yusuf (Nagare, 2012). The sect originated precisely in Borno and Yobe states of Nigeria, but its activities are pronounced across the entire Northern Nigeria.

To be precise, boko haram sect came to the public light in 2009 during security agencies encounter with the sect's members, who had resisted a newly enforced law requiring motor cyclist to wear helmets. This sparked a furious conflict between the sect and security agencies. Police stations and government structures were destroyed in Borno and hundreds of criminals were forced out in a jail-break in the aftermath of the violent confrontation between the sect and the police. This marked the beginning of the sectarian violence that spread in northern part of Nigeria in 2009 (Yip, 2003). The security challenges escalated and demanded that a quick action was desirable. The arrest and detention of several sect members including their leader, Mohammed Yusuf, by the state security was a response to restore break down of law and order in the North East. The eventual extra judicial killing of the sect's leader was a major drive for Boko Haram insurgency.

By the year 2011, Boko Haram had initiated a campaign of suicide bombing, which became the first in Nigeria's history. The federal government responded to these security threats by declaring an anti-terror war on the sect. The soar of insurgency within 2012 and 2013 left the federal government with no option than to declare state of emergency on three north eastern states of Borno, Yobe and Adamawa. Notwithstanding the declaration of the state of emergency in these states, the activities of the Boko Haram remained unabated (Okoli and Lortyer, 2014). The general effect of these terrorist activities of the sect has generated an unprecedented humanitarian crisis for the country with many people internally displaced in their home country.

Even though Boko Haram insurgency has been active in the North East since 2009, the severity and impacts of the attacks has been felt the most during 2014. Initially, the group's focused mainly on government as targets and banks, in a somewhat hit and run tactics, the group in 2014 has increasingly targeted the civilian population and took control of territory with many local governments in its control aiming to establish a caliphate. Also within this period, the cross-border hit and run attacks into Cameroun has become more frequent, and which also expanded to Niger. Considering the inhuman and brutal tactics used by Boko Haram in Nigeria, ideological support for the course of insurgents dropped significantly. They operate in a region where the poverty rate is at its highest, and where central government has been less present in the past, thus, taking an undue advantage of the abundance of jobless youth by recruiting them as their foot soldiers (Okoli and Lortyer, 2014). Further, the crisis has caused severe interruption of the traditional trade routes, agricultural and pastoralist activities.

The insurgency has caused an increasing humanitarian situation forcing about 1.5 million people to flee to other parts of the country and no less than another figure of 150,000 have taken refuge in neighbouring Chad, Niger and Cameroun. The government's counter insurgency operations have also contributed to the insurgency and displacement of people, both in the North east and neighbouring countries. International attention has tended to focus on Boko Haram's brutality, but inter-communal conflicts, flooding desertification and forced evictions have also caused significant internal displacement (International Displacement Monitoring Center, 2014).

Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), the vast majority of which are women and children, face a range of threats to their physical and safety and

restrictions on their freedom of movement. Many are traumatised by the violence that prompted them to flee and are afraid to return. Those whose homes have been damaged or destroyed by conflict or flooding have nowhere to back to. Most internally displaced families live and share resources with host communities (International Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014).

NEMA (National Emergency Management Agency) and SEMAs (State Emergency Management Agencies) are vested with task of responding to the IDP situation, often with the aid of international actors in different sectors. International Organization for Migration (IOM) is co-leading the Camp Coordination and Camp Management (CCCM) with NEMA. The assistance provided by national authorities is mainly provided to camps, with patchy interventions in host communities. However, Displacement Tracking Matrix Data (DTM) collected in five North Eastern States showed that the great majority of IDPs are seeking refuge in host communities of the affected regions. There is no much presence of humanitarian actors in the most affected places in the North East. The IOM is however active in the region, with an office in Bauchi and a presence in Adamawa, Taraba, Yobe, Gombe and Maiduguri (International Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014).

Theoretical Framework

The theory adopted in this study is system's theory in order to have a better grasp of the assessment of the roles of NGOs in Humanitarian disaster relief in North East Nigeria. The system theory has been attributed to the works of scholars such as Almond (1960) and Easton (1965). Easton defined a system as any set of variables regardless of the degree of relationship among them. He preferred this definition because it freed the researcher from the need to prove that a political system is really a system. The only question of importance became whether the system was interesting and thus worth studying (John and Marijike, 2010).

The system's theory asserts that every system, including political system, is sub-systems that make up the entire system (Easton, 1965). There are assigned functions provided with enabling environment, including resources, appropriate authority, and so on to enable them discharge their responsibility optimally. Where this is the case, there is said to be stability in the political system. On the other hand, instability reigns in the political

system where the contrary is the case and the subsystems and entire system are also unable to function optimally (Almond, 1960).

Input and output analysis of a political system is very important. A political system is said to obtain its inputs, that is to say demands, supports, security, or freedom, cooperation, criticism, resources, information, direct labour, etc. from the government. These inputs are what the subsystems employ to discharge their responsibilities, so that the political system can send out its outputs into the environment and obtain further inputs for its operations.

However, the theory has been criticised as a biological analogy of a political system. This has helped to create an image of Easton in critical social studies as a good example of how the pursuit of a technical interest in objective knowledge leads one to reduce all ethical and moral questions to a mere problem of survival (Crozier, 2010). This limitation however does not render the theory irrelevant in the understanding of the roles of NGOs in IDP camps in north east Nigeria.

Applying this theory to humanitarian disaster situation in the North East, the various disaster management agencies including both governmental agencies (such as NEMA) and NGOs present in the North East (IOM and CCCM, UNICEF, IRC, and Oxfam) constitute the sub-systems. They must be well handled in terms of being fed with adequate inputs, so that they can contribute appropriately to the optimality of the humanitarian disaster management in Nigeria as a political system. If the reverse is the case, that is, if the subsystems do not have the required inputs to contribute effectively in solving the humanitarian situation in the North East, there is the very likelihood of the deterioration of the humanitarian situation in the North East.

It is therefore very useful to realise the importance of the systems theory in the management of disaster in Nigeria. This means the realisation of the sub-systemic nature of the sub-system which is an integral part of the overall Nigerian political system. They have their assigned responsibilities to perform to the benefit of the people. Failure to provide adequate material and financial resources to the subsystem could result to further instability in the system, disenchantment and inability to perform and hence dissatisfaction among the populace affected with humanitarian disaster.

Conclusion

The majority of the IDPS in the North East have been displaced because of insurgency, with some few people forced to leave their homes because of drought and famine. In Yola, all the IDPs were displaced as a result of the Boko Haram insurgency, while in other North Eastern states such as Bauchi and Taraba, many of the IDP population were displaced as a result of communal clashes. The high proportion of IDPs in Bauchi are mainly from the middle belt region..

Displacement on a large scale has been identified as one of the leading effects of humanitarian disaster in the North East. By the mid-year 2016, a total of 1,878,205 IDPs are currently living in Borno with a population of about 163,559 persons. There are also a great number of displaced persons who have resorted to seek refuge in neighbouring countries. The numbers continue to increase. Food insecurity and famine is also an effect of the humanitarian disaster situation in the North East, about 350,000 children in Borno and Yobe are suffering from severe malnutrition, a condition which calls for urgent intervention. The effect of humanitarian situation on food security is estimated at USD 3.7 billion resulting from livestock losses, destruction of irrigation and farming facilities.

Significant human right abuses have also occurred in the in the North East due to the dire humanitarian situation. The insurgent have killed people, kidnapped, looted, abduct and rape women and girls. The insurgents forcefully recruit boys and girls for use in both support roles and in combats and in some cases a human as shields for its fighters. Many boys and girls were also used for suicide bombers.

There are also cases of extrajudicial killings by members of the security forces and the inhuman treatment of civilian detainees, including children who are suspected of collaborating with insurgents. The Civilian Joint Task Force (CJTF) have also been accused of widespread abuses including extrajudicial killings and recruitment of children.

Boko haram insurgents have affected numerous health facilities and health workers of Borno, Adamawa states, about 75 percent of the affected people do not have access to healthcare and remaining public hospitals have been overwhelmed by the influx of IDPs. People spend their own resources to compensate for lack of public services, thereby affecting their Socio-economic status.

Recommendations.

- a. NGOs need to be careful in the selection of aid they provide, especially the ones concerning food items. Food items with greater nutritional value should be their focus to address the problem of malnutrition especially in children.
- b. The government should facilitate the process for international actors to carry out coordinated humanitarian response by reducing the difficulties of providing visa. Hence, they should concentrate more on the humanitarian situation instead of the politics involved in not drawing international attention to the humanitarian crisis.
- c. NGOs need to monitor the aid they provide on the field to check the intent of the diversion of their resources.

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