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INTERVENTIONS AND ECONOMIC RECOVERY OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN NORTH-CENTRAL NIGERIA

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Abstract

This paper investigates the effect of intervention on return to economic activities of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in north-central Nigeria. Using a cross-sectional data obtained from a sample of 427 returned IDPs drawn from three states (Benue, Nasarawa and Plateau) in the region; the study employs OLS robust regression model in its analysis. The study found the following: interventions such as provision of relief materials and training have constricted effect on return to economic activities of returned IDPs. However, separating the effect of intervention across the three states, intervention is only significant in PlateauState. IDPs' sense of security and years of experience provide significant effect to return on economic activities than the provision of cash and relief material. The findings show that, as a whole, the present approach of intervention does not encourage return to economic activities of IDPs in north-central Nigeria. Hence, a holistic approach to intervention that incorporateseconomic recovery of displaced persons in north-centralNigeria should be considered. These findingsare relevant to better understand the effect of intervention and the type of intervention that should be provided.

Keywords: Intervention, Conflict, Economic Recovery, Economic Displacement, Internally Displaced Persons.

JEL Classification: R11, I3, J68

1. Introduction

Farmers-herdsmen crises in the north-central states of Nigeria seem to have strong economic consequences on the internally displaced persons¹ (IDPs) in the region. About 25 percent of households in the states have lost economic opportunities due to the farmers-herdsmen crises while more than 33 percent had their assets destroyed (National Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2018). Such violence and forceful displacement do not only pose a threat to human lives and existence but also disrupts sustainable economic growth of the region. Intervention² is one measure taken by government and non-governmental agencies in Nigeria towards relieving the economic hardship and ensuringeconomic recovery of the displaced persons (Ganaand Abdulrahman, 2018; Orji, 2011). Most intervention efforts and discussions are on meeting basic needs of the displaced persons and

The Policy and Legal Advocacy Centre [PLAC] (2019) reports on Nigeria IDPsrevealed cases where intervention is given but haphazardly in most IDPs camp across Nigeria. The PLAC reports indicates that intervention is not deliberate at getting significant number of returnees to achieve economic resettlementas evidence linking intervention to return to economic activities still remains weak in Nigeria. It is only when significant part of these interventions is targeted at economic resettlement that economic hardship of IDPs will be reverted; especially after theyreturn to their places of origin.

Therefore, this paperinvestigates the effect of intervention on economic recovery of IDPs in Nigeria. Specifically, the empirical analysis focuses on three selected states innorth-central region of Nigeria. The states are Benue, Nasarawa and Plateau states. The three states are the most affected by violent crises in the region with about 183,869 displaced people as at 2018 (NEMA, 2018). Apart from having thehighest number of IDPs in the past six years, the government of these three states have taken steps towards the return of IDPs. In addition,

helpingthem return to their places of origin (Sak, Kaymaz, Kadkoy and Kenanoglu, 2017; Erong, 2017), however, little emphasis is placed on the effect of intervention on IDPs' return to economic activities.

¹This paper adopts the United Nations definition of internal displaced persons (IDPs) to include "person(s) or any group of persons forced to flee their homes or place of habitual residence due to armed conflict, natural or man-made disasters but have not crossed internationally recognized state border" (UNHCR, 2006).

²Intervention and relief materials received by some of the IDPs include cash, seedlings, cloths, food, and some cases building materials such as Zinc and wood. Training skills received include: tailoring, soap making, computer and ICT training, Bag and bead making.

these states produce about 40 percent of food in the region with 70 percent of the people living in these states engaged in agriculture (NBS, 2018). Hence, disruption of economic activities could result in food crises across the nation.

Consequently, examining the effect of intervention on returned IDPs is of interest for two reasons: first, such understanding is important in identifying adequate measure(s) that is (are) effective at ensuring displaced persons return to economic activities timely. Available evidence shows that most displaced people remain redundant for a long time after they return to their places of origin (Policy and Legal Advocacy Centre [PLAC], 2019). This implies that, return to place of origin and return to economic activityare distinct. Ignoring such differences could stifle growth in the region even long after the end of crises. Second, since 2015, NEMA in collaboration with other international organisations outline different entrepreneurship trainings geared towards building the capacity of IDPs to become productive members of the society (World Bank, 2016). Little is known about the effect of such training and intervention in north-central states of Nigeria -despite the large number of people displaced in the region. Therefore, it is important to investigate how these trainings and interventions translates to economic reintegration of IDPs upon return to their ancestral homes.

The contribution of this study to existing literature are in three folds. First, the study measured the effect of intervention on IDPs' return to economic activities in north central Nigeria. Second, we provide a comparative analysis of the effect of the intervention efforts on each of the sates under investigation. Third, we employed sampled responses from IDPs that have returned to estimate linear model of the effect of intervention effort. Thus, providing a quantitative evidence on the effect of intervention on IDPs returning to economic activities in north-central Nigeria.

The data used were solicited randomly from 427 displaced households across the three states affected bycrises. The instrumentused to solicit responses was vetted by expert and are certified to meet required standard. The data were analyzed and corrected for outliers that may affect outcome of the study. To control for heteroskedasticity, the study employs OLS robust regression and carries out a number of robustness checks to encapsulate the effect of intervention on IDPs' return to economic activities. The estimates confirm that improving security has significant effect on return to economic activities while interventions is less effective in ensuring return to economic activities of returnees. The findings of this study reveal that government and

non-governmental agencies need to exert deliberate effort to ensure wider coverage of the interventions among the returnee IDPs in the states.

The rest of this paper is organised as follows: the theoretical framework and relevant literature to this study are discussed in section 2. The choice of model evaluation and choice of sampling design are discussed in section 3. The discussion of main findings and the conclusion drawn are articulated in section 4 and 5 respectively.

2. Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

2.1 Conceptual Clarification

Two concepts are worthy of clarification in this study: Intervention and economic recovery. Intervention is a way of assuaging the plight of IDPs and making them return to economic activity in time. Forced displacement increases unemployment and poverty especially amongpeople living in rural sector. Majority of the rural peoplein Nigeria engage in subsistence agricultural activities that can barely meet their need. Thus, intervention is aimed at the reintegration and economic recovery of displaced persons. Interventions could be short term; such as providing cash, food and other relief materials to displaced persons or long term; such as provision of vocational and business training. Sometimes, cash are given to IDPs as a measure to mitigate the effect of sudden displacement in camps and/or bolster the recovery of displaced people like the provision of seedlings, wood and zinc for rebuilding of house. Long term intervention is aimed at making IDPs self-sustaining thus reducing their dependence on others. Interventions as used in this study involve the both types: short-term and long-term interventions. However, in examining the effect of intervention; intervention received that are based on cash and kind are grouped together while intervention that involves skill acquisition are grouped under training received.

In macroeconomic terms, economic recovery refers to period of resumed economic activities following a recession (Krugman & Wells, 2006). Forced displacement causes economic shock that result to individuals losing access to their place of work. Some displaced returnees do not immediately begin economic activity the moment they returned to their places of origin. In this study, economic recovery is defined as the time it takes IDPs to resume economic activities in their places of origin. This study defined economic recoveryto mean return to economic activities of IDPs returnees.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The framework adopted for this study is the segmented labour theory proposed by Cain (1976) and Doeringer and Piore, (1985). The theory posits that institutional constraints and socioeconomic factors hinder individual participation in the labour market. The theory is apt in explaining the reasons for difficulty in accessing labour market among displaced persons in an economy. The theory relies on three theoretical prepositions: (1) institutional setbacks such as poor regulatory framework for displaced people, (2) market imperfections that results in poor competition in the labour market and (3) structure of the labour market that makes it difficult to move from one segment of the market to another; due to socioeconomic characteristics of workers.

The theory assumes individual productivity is maximized through increased investment in human capitalwhich tends to improve the quantity and quality of labour supply. There is positive relationship between quality of labour supplied and skills of citizenry of a nation. The theory argued that institutional setbacks such as residential status, gender, educational background, economic status and the like constitute hinderance for workers access to labour market. Wage differential for instance, is mostly caused by institutional constraints. The theory maintained that institutional constraints limit the ability of individual workers to choose from a wide range of available job options in the labour market. Such institutional bottleneckcreates vulnerable workers who are trapped in lower segment of the labour market. Occupational mobility is difficult for vulnerable workers due to constraint placed by institutions that makes it difficult for them to move from lower to upper segment of the labour market even when there is excess demand in the upper segment. Thus, in the instance of unemployment intervention plays an important role in getting displaced people back to the labour market.

2.3 Review of Related Literature

Several studies have discussed intervention and integration of displaced persons. For instance, Fagen, Fernandez, Stepputat and Lobez (2003) studied national and international responses to internal displacement in Colombia. The aim of the study is to examine the nature of response to forced internal displacement of people from the rural areas to large cities of Columbia. The authors employed analytical method to analyze the response of government and private organisations to displacement of persons from rural areas of Columbia. Their findings purport the need for proper and planned response to forced migration. According to the scholars, the responses of the Columbian government and major agencies towards the displaced people were merely to

provide palliative emergency assistance. Most of the funding and assistance are not geared towards economic revitalization and recovery. The palliative emergency assistance given to IDPs is grossly inadequate for their survival not to mention funds that would have been necessary to establish them towards self-sufficiency in the future. The finding of Fagen, Fernandez, Stepputat and Lobez is common among developing countries. Most of the government of these countries and other relevant agencies seems to neglect the fact that when such displacement occurs it has permanent or semi-permanent effects on the displaced persons' productivity and employment. Most emergency response is not tailored towards resettling IDPs or helping them integrate into towns.

Salama (2003) studied the impact of assisted programs in adjusting refugees' resettlement fleeing situations of duress to the United States. The aim of the study was to examine issues that have promoted and hindered the resettlement efforts of host countries. The study found that among the problems faced in resettlement of refugees are problems of identification and cultural differences among refugees and language limitations. The study opined that there are two ways refugees can be incorporated into the labour market: the supply side or the demand side. The supply side deals with boosting the employability of refugees through education, vocational training and the like - this tends to make the refugees resourceful, create jobs for themselves and become entrepreneurs. On the demand side, refugees are made to fill in existing vacancies irrespective of the refuges' qualification and previous experience(s). This is usually carried out to help refugees meet their immediate needs in the short run. However, this pattern may not be helpful for those with high qualification and experience in the long run. Humanitarian response, that is based on just providing the daily needs of IDPs and refugees as practiced in most part of the world and Africa, disempowers (Ilcan and Rygiel, 2015) the recipient and ultimately makes them feel second class citizens that needed to be catered for. Such disempowerment originates from the feeling of dependency, loss in income and uncertainty of the future. A well-planned response that takes into cognizance, the career and economic needs of IDPs reduces the sense of loss and improves confidence in daring new ventures.

Beiser (2009) studied refugees' resettlement project of 1348 Southeast Asian refugees in Canada. The study found that the cost of resettlement of refugees is high on the government. Employing the confirmatory factor analysis, the study found that it takes the refugees 7 to 10 years to achieve economic stability. About one third of refugees live below the poverty line in the first 10 years

of resettlement. This is because most refugees earn less than their native-born counterparts. One factor identified to affect the productivity of refugees by the study is migration trauma. Some of the IDPs must have had traumatic experience which may remain with them for a very long time. Thus, this may affect their ability to concentrate and give their best to any meaningful economic activities.

Making IDPs relevant, especially in the market place arguably should be the major drive of government and stakeholders engaged in ameliorating the plight of IDPs across the world. Gavidia and Karim (2011) assessed the development needs of refugees and IDPs in eastern Sudan with the aim of accessing government response to IDPs' crises and identify opportunities for World Bank involvement in addressing the development needs of IDPs in Sudan. Employing a need assessment survey of 67,040 of refugees and IDPs residing in 12 camps, the study observed that government policies in Sudan are generally not geared towards providing durable solution to the lingering and deplorable state of IDPs. Government interventions are only short term geared towards mere survival of IDPs. The study pointed out several government interventions that will enable durable solutions. They include: providing long term safety and security, ensuring adequate standard of living, access to employment and restoration of personal resources of the displaced people. The poor government response to some of these key factors, they observed account for the reasons most IDPs find it difficult to integrate to the larger society and do have long permanent stay in camps.

Orji (2011) studied faith-based aid to people affected by Jos conflict in Nigeria. The aim of the study was to evaluate faith-based relief operations, sources of funding, selection of aid recipients and the nature of services offered by the major religious organisation for the internally displaced in Jos. The study employed a contextual analysis of the information solicited from the interview of faith-based organisations who participated in providing relief operation for displaced people during the Jos crises in Plateau State. In his findings, the author observed that the basis for the selection of recipients of aid by most of the faith-based organisations is IDPs' affiliation to the faith although there are cases where those who do not affirm the same faith also received aids from faith-based organisations. One major setback of such intervention is that the intervention provided by most of the faith-based organisations are temporary, geared towards meeting the basic needs of IDPs such as food, water and clothing. Although, the period of stay may be short - sometimes last between weeks or at most few months; it is also pertinent that intervention should include the provision of life skills that will make IDPs better off when they returned to their communities. This is because the training of IDPs in life skills helps the displaced people cope economically and avoid future crises. Harild and Christensen (2011) intervention on IDPs needs to go beyond providing humanitarian assistance but should address core developmental issues that help reintegration, service delivery, livelihood restoration and governance.

Although the rate and level of response to crises depends on the nature of crises and projected period of stay of refugees; according to Green (2012), no matter the period of stay, once it is projected that such crises will last for more than three months, plans should be taken to engage IDPs in productive activities to avoid further loss in the society. Arowolo (2002) proposed ways for economic integration of IDPs and refugees to include having a long-term plan that provides assistance to returnees. Government should ensure institutional mechanism and create agencies that will effectively reintegrate refugees and IDPs into the society. Such institutional framework will build up IDPs' confidence to return and also inspire donor agencies to invest in IDPs' welfare and integration.

According to Kamau and Fox (2013) the driving force of donor agencies and government should be to set up an effective intervention program that contains effective self-reliance program that will help refugees to cope, adopt and thrive in the place they found themselves. They advocated that agencies and donors should partner more with the government and the private sectors, carry out rigorous baseline analysis and understand the effect of politics and power on the livelihood options of refugees and IDPs. In their study of livelihood activities and opportunities for the Dadaab refugees in Nairobi, they found that cash transfer, instead of food is more effective in building the entrepreneurial spirit among refugees and IDPs. Such cash can later be traded for food which has a greater tendency to make refugees and IDPs move out of their camps and engage in meaningful trade. Failure to account for the political, social and economic needs is the main reasons for high dependency and low productivity among refugees and IDPs (Jacobsen &Fraske, 2016). The increasing humanitarian needs of refugees fueled by the recent Syrian crises that have dislodged over 12 million people (United Nations High Commission for Refugees [UNHCR], 2016) gave credence to the fact that the response to refugees' crises should go beyond meeting daily physical meals and regimented camp life but transcend to ensuring that refugees engage in productive activities so as to contribute to the community they find themselves.

Ilcan and Rygiel (2015) studied the humanitarian emergency governance in refugees and IDPs' camps operated by the United Nations. Employing a trend

analysis, the study opined that the camp should be seen as a political and social community where refugees and IDPs express their political, social and economic rights comparable to every normal society. The camps should be self-governed and managed by the refugees and IDPs to enable them think of the camp as community development; as the camp life provides them with the necessary experience of resilience and entrepreneurial skills needed to engage the real world. This view may not apply to IDPs' camp in every country due to cultural differences and varying circumstances, but the information provided in the article can be used to understanding a prototype of what an ideal displaced people's camps should look like.

Intervention to refugees has moved from just humanitarian response to incorporating development and providing refugees to labour market opportunities. In 2016 for instance, responding to the Syrian crises, the United Nations focused on creating development opportunities to nearby nations like Ethiopia and Jordan to allow refugees participation in local labour market so as to lessen their dependency on international assistance. Zickgraf, Vigil, de Longueville, Ozer and Gemenne (2016) argued that building infrastructure and protection mechanism for the displaced is necessary in reducing vulnerability to climate shocks and helps them to adapt and integrate into the society quickly. Applying such recommendations implies that the demand placed on government and donor agencies in the intervention and integration of displaced people is more than just the provision of food and shelter but like every other citizen, the enabling environment be created so that they can engage in economic activities during and after camp life.

Sliwa and Wiig (2016) studied the effects of free housing provision by the Colombian government and IDPs' willingness to return to the country side. The aim of their study was to explore the reasons for the failure of government interventions programs such as large-scale reparation program, land restitution and provision of free housing on IDPs' willingness to return to the rural areas. Using empirical qualitative field data, the study found that the programs rather than instigating the willingness of IDPs to go back home to their rural settlements, it cemented their choice to continue to live in the cities and further quest for a new live in the cities. Furthermore, they argued that the provision of free housing did not provide the ideal solution to the housing shortage and poverty that exist among Colombian IDPs. The findings of the Sliwa and Wiig (2016) allude to the fact that in dealing with poverty among IDPs, attention should be placed more on ensuring their employability. When IDPs are equipped with the necessary skills that can make them to be competitive in their host communities, with little effort from the government and other nongovernmental organisations it becomes easy for them to adapt to the market situation and become economically independent.

Empirical evidence from studies in Nigeria also shows poor intervention effort towards the establishment of IDPs to places of origin. For instance, Osagioduwa and Oluwakorede (2016) compared the management of IDPs in Nigeria and Cameroon. Using descriptive statistics to analyze the responses of IDPs from Cameroon and Nigeria, the study found that compared to other developing countries, the management of IDPs in both countries is poor; as the managements in both countries are affected by poor funding, corruption and inconsistent policies. The study observed, however, that IDPs in Cameroon are more likely to receive humanitarian aid from the UNHCR as such are more likely to be reintegrated into the society than those IDPs in Nigeria. The study of Osagioduwa and Oluwakorede (2016) reiterate the importance and role of intervention on IDPs' reintegration into the society. Such assistance could help ensuring that displaced persons not only get back into the society but provide opportunity to restore their economic life, as is the case of the IDPs in Cameroon.

Itumo and Nwefuru (2016) studied the socioeconomic implications of the responses of the Nigerian states to the plights of persons internally displaced by Boko Haram insurgents in Nigeria. The authors make use of qualitative method in analyzing a compendium of other related literature on insurgency and internally displaced persons. The article found that IDPs in the north-east intervention by the government is inadequate as most displaced persons suffer from starvation, unemployment, live in poor sanitary environment and the children are out of school. Relative to their former state, persons internally displaced in the north-east were worse off despite humanitarian aids provided by the government. One reason that may account for fall in the welfare of displaced persons is poor intervention strategy which according to Osagioduwa and Oluwakorede (2016) could be attributed to poor training of government agencies in charge of IDPs, corruption and mismanagement of funds.

Erong (2017) studied the role of host communities in the integration and local development of IDPs in north-eastern, Nigeria. The study employed qualitative analysis of displaced persons in one of the camps in Maiduguri, Borno state, Nigeria, to explore reasons IDPs preferred staying outside government designated camps. The study pointed out that host communities played a significant role in assisting displaced persons meet their basic needs, especially, at the onset of displacement; when there were no camps, humanitarian intervention and when access to camps was difficult due to problem of identifying their

IDP status. Another reason stated by most IDPs interviewed in the study is that, IDPs preferred community hosting because of the opportunity to engage in economic activities, education and freedom of movement. Community hosting are preferred by most IDPs because it tends to provide the economic, physical, social, spiritual and emotional needs of the IDPs. The study noted, however, that resources of host communities are sometimes stressed out which often resulted in negative coping strategy. Such negative effects could be coped with adequate assistance that provides alternative means of survival instead of IDPs depending solely on the resources of host communities.

Ejiofor, Oni and Sejoro (2017) assessed the impact of primary displacement on human security in northern Nigeria. The study employed descriptive statistics to analyze data from primary sources. The study found that most of government interventions on IDPs are mostly temporary measures as the agencies of government in charge of IDPs such as NEMA, North-East Development Commission, presidential committee on North-East Initiative and the like are poorly funded. The paper opines that crises in the northern region hinder development of the region. Although the findings of Ejiofor, Oni and Sejoro are important in understanding the effect of government intervention on IDPs, it provides statistical tools that are not robust in justifying the effect of intervention on displaced people as claimed in their study.

Gana and Abdulrahman (2018) studied the entrepreneurial training needs of IDPs in Borno State. The aim of the study was to examine the link between entrepreneurial training of IDPs in Borno State and sustainable development. The study analyzed different training options that could boost IDPs' skills. The study opined that training of IDPs will imbibe self-confidence, reduce poverty and unemployment and empower youths in Borno State.

Umar, Abideen and Yusuf (2018) studied the effect of closing IDPs' camp on IDPs in Yobe State, Nigeria. The aim of the study was to ascertain the willingness of internally displaced to return to their localities. The study employed descriptive and inferential statistics on a sample of 456 IDPs in Yobe state. The results show that the major reason IDPs are willing to go home is due the poor assistance received in camps and the relative return of peace to their villages. The findings of Umar, Abideen and Yusuf points to low level of intervention received from government and other non-governmental agencies towards ensuring the welfare needs of displaced people. The study, however, employed a simple analysis that is not robust in determining the actual reasons for

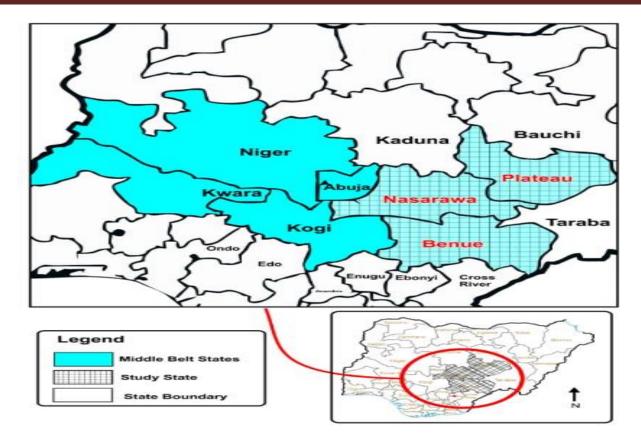
willingness to return as they may be other intervening factors influencing IDPs' willingness to return.

The contribution of this study to the growing literature on IDPs and economic growth is threefold: first, the study investigates the effect of intervention beyond return to places of origin. So far, our understanding on the effect of intervention on the economic activities of returned IDPs still remain vague especially in north-central states, Nigeria. Second, studies on intervention on IDPs are mostly focused on political and social justification. This study quantifies this effect using economic models and tools, thus, providing strong statistical inferences for policy analysis. Furthermore, this research, thus, argues that intervention on IDPs in Nigeria should be geared towards economic reintegration of IDPs especially in Nigeria where most of the IDPs are vulnerable to poverty. Thus, this study hypothesizes that the extent to which IDPs receive intervention could determine how quick they return to economic activities.

3. Data Source and Method

3.1 Study Area

The north-central region of Nigeria consists of 6 states and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). The states are Benue, Nasarawa, Plateau, Niger, Kwara and Kogi (Figure 1). According to the last population census, the region has an estimated population of 23.5 million NBS (2011). Significant number of the population engages in farming. The region has good vegetation with abundant grass, making it a centre of attraction to herdsmen. The herdsmen are mostly nomads which makes clashes with farmers a frequent occurrence. This study focuses on three states: Benue, Nasarawa and Plateau where most displacement occurred; due to constant conflict between farmers and herdsmen in the region, at least in the past 6 years. According to the NBS (2011), the estimated population in the three selected states as at 2010 was 10.4 million people. The choice of these three states is informed by the high number of internally displaced people and the consequent effect on their livelihood, and the economy of the region. The National Emergency Management Agency [NEMA] (2018) estimated the number of displaced persons as at January 2018 in the three states to be 183,869 persons. The study focuses on the crises and displacement that took place between 2013 to 2018. This period is characterized by frequent and varying degree of crises with high number of death and displacement in the region (NBS, 2018). Although intermittent crises do occur in other states of the region, the severity of crises and displacement in these three states drew significant attention in both local and international arenas (NBS, 2018; International Crises Group, 2017; International Organisation Migration [IOM], 2018).



Source: Author's Construct

Figure 1: Map of North-Central Nigeria

3.2 Data Collection and Sampling

The data used for this study was obtained from a cross sectional survey conducted from August to October 2019 of 427 respondents across Benue, Nasarawa and Plateau States. The target population of this study is IDPs that have returned to their places of origin or communities. Based on the formula proposed by the United Nations Statistics Division (2005) for household sample size determination, 456households were determined as the sample size. The selection of respondents follows a multistage sampling technique. First, the selection of the three states was based on the incidence of crises - based on the states mostly affected by farmers-herder's crises or inter-communal crises. Four local governments each were randomly selected from each state to ensure appropriate distribution of sample to cover the target population in the affected states. The study obtained list of villages that have high number of returnee population from the various SEMAs and key informants that are familiar with the region. This strategy is similar to the applied by International Organisation approach Migration [IOM] (2018), where informants provide useful information on displaced communities in northeast Nigeria. Three villages or communities were randomly selected from each local government selected. The criteria for sampling are: (1) considering villages where all the residents were displaced from their places of origin due to crises, and (2) places where the crises have occurred at least in the past 6 years. These criteria are necessary to ensure that respondent was formerly a displaced person and also provides useful answers to questions on the effect of crises on economic activities both before and after crises. At the last stage, 13 households were selected based on systematic random sample. Respondents are household heads or representatives from 15 years and above.

Semi-structured questionnaires were issued to sampled respondents. The content of the questionnaire was in part guided by previous studies on internally displaced persons (Bozzoli, Bruck & Muhumuza, 2012). Some of the questions were moderated to meet the objective of this study and were supervised and authenticated by research committee of the Departments of Economics Federal University of Lafia and Psychology, Benue State University, Nigeria. A pilot study was carried on two communities in Doma LGA, Nasarawa State with the initial draft of the questionnaire. During the pilot study, vital aspects of the questionnaire were assessed for: how well the questions were understood by the respondents, structure of the questions, number of questions included and possible language bias. The final questionnaire included5 sections. The questionnaire solicits

information of respondents' socio-demography, effect of crises on personal and economic activities, possibility of return and property rights in the three selected states. For internal consistency, the study employs the Harman's single factor test for common method bias. Harman's single factor test suggests that there is internal consistency in the data. The description of the variables used in both models is given in table 1.

Table 1 Description/Coding of Variables

S/N	Variable name	Description	Coding
	ehold Characteristics	Description	Coung
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Gender	Gender of household head i in state j	M = 1
1	Gender	Gender of nousehold head i in state j	F = 0
2	Age	Age of household head i in state j	15-19 years =1
2	Age	Age of household head I in state j	20-29 years =2
			30-39 years =3
			40-59 years =4
			60 years and above =5
3	Level of education (ED _{ii})	Level of education by household i in state j.	No Education = 1
3	Level of education (LD _{1]})	Level of education by household I in state J.	Primary Education = 2
			Secondary education = 3
			Tertiary education = 4
4	Occupation	Present occupation of household head i in	Open ended
•	Gecupation	state j	open enaca
5	Marital status	Marital status of respondent	Married =1
-			Single = 2
			Divorced =3
			Widow = 4
			Widower $= 5$
6	Status in family	Status of respondent	Husband =1
	•	•	Wife $= 2$
			Other $=3$
Deper	ndent Variables		
7	Return to economic	Return to economic activities of household i	Open ended
	activities (RT _{ij})	in state j. Proxied by time it takes to start full	
		economic activities.	
	endent Variables		
8	Experience (EX _{ij})	The experience of household i in state j on	Open ended
		present job. Proxied by number of years in	
		present occupation	
0	Total and the Art Company	Taken and a vertice of 1 1111 and 1	37 1
9	Intervention training (IT _{ij})	Intervention training of household i in state j.	Yes = 1
		Proxied by whether or not household i in state	No = 0
		j received training skills in camps.	
10	Cash received (CC)	Cash or worth of goods received from	Open anded
10	Cash received (CG _{ij})	Cash or worth of goods received from governmental agencies and NGOs for	Open ended
		business start-up of household i in state j.	
		ousmoss start-up of household i ill state J.	
11	Perceived security (SS _{ii})	Perceived state of security at the place of	Place is secured = 1
11	received seediffy (SS _{1j})	origin by household i in state j. Reasoned for	Place not secure = 0
		return	
12	HC_{ii}	Household characteristics such as education,	
12	ıı)	age, gender of household heads for household	
		i in state j.	
	£	The random term that includes other variables	
	ϵ_{ij}	that are not included in the equation. ε_{ij} is	
		assumed to be independently and identically	
		distributed (iid) and normally distributed.	
	βs	Parameters to be estimated.	
	r~	- manietori to be estimated.	

3.3 Model Specification

The theoretical underpin of this study is anchored on the segmented labour market theory (Cain, 1976; Doeringer and Piore, 1985) which emphasised the importance of intervention to correct market imperfection in the labour market. This study hypothesis that interventions affect return to economic activities is positive especially in cases where people are forcefully displaced. This study

$$RT_{ii} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 SS_{ii} + \beta_2 IT_{ii} + \beta_3 CG_{ii} + \beta_4 HC_{ii} + \varepsilon_{ii}$$

Where; RT_{ij} = return to economic activities of household i in state j. Proxied by time it takes to start full economic activities. SS_{ij} = perceived state of security at the places of origin by household i in state j. IT_{ij} = Intervention training of household i in state j. Proxied by whether or not household i in state j received training skills in camps. CG_{ij} = cash or worth of goods received from government agencies and NGOs for business start-up of household i in state j. IT_{ij} = Household characteristics such as education, age, gender of household heads for household i in state j. IT_{ij} = the random term that includes other variables that are not included in the equation. IT_{ij} is assumed to be independently and identically distributed

(iid) and normally distributed; and βs = parameters to be estimated.

(1)

4. Analysis and Discussion of Results

4.1 Preliminary Analysis

To assess the validity of the instrument used in this study, we carried out the Harman's single factor test for common method bias. The common method bias test examines the variances in the responses that may result from faulty research instrument rather than the predisposition of the respondents. The result of the common method bias test is presented in table 2.

Table 2: Common Method Bias Test

Total Variance Explained								
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction sums of Squared Loading				
	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative		
		Variance	%		Variance	%		
Single Factor	4.59	21.89	21.89	4.59	21.89	21.89		

The result in table 2 indicates that there is no common method bias in the responses. This is indicated by the cumulative single factor loading of 21.89% which is less than 50% - the threshold for which an instrument is deemed to have common methodbias. Thus, the responses generated with the help of the research

instrument in this study are valid fordiscussion and policy inferences. 456 questionnaires were issued to respondents in the selected states. Of the 456 questionnaires 427 were returned and certified fit for use in this study. The summary of respondents' characteristics is displayed in table 3.

Table 3: Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	
State				
Benue	141	33.02	33.02	
Nasarawa	149	34.90	67.92	
Plateau	137	32.08	100	
Total	427	100		
Gender				
Male	315	73.77	73.77	
Female	112	26.23	100	

Total	427	100		
Age				
Age less than 19	3	0.70	0.70	
Age 20 to 29	71	16.63	17.33	
Age 30 to 39	134	31.38	48.71	
Age 40 to 49	124	29.04	77.75	
Age 50 to 59	80	18.74	96.49	
Age 60 above	15	3.51	100	
Total	427	100		
Marital Status				
Married	351	82.20	82.20	
Single	26	6.09	88.29	
Divorced	11	2.58	90.87	
Widow	29	6.79	97.66	
Widower	10	2.34	100	
Total	427	100		
Level of Education				
No Education	113	26.46	26.46	
Primary Education	96	22.48	48.94	
Secondary Education	154	36.07	85.01	
Tertiary Education	64	14.99	100	
Total	427	100		
Occupation				
Farmer	346	81.03	81.03	
Civil Servant/Farmer	33	7.73	88.73	
Artisan/Farmer	9	2.11	90.87	
Business/Farmer	39	9.13	100	
Total	427	100		
Cause of Crises				
Farmers-Herders	392	91.80	91.80	
Inter-Communal	35	8.20	100	
Total	427	100		
nitial Response to Crises				
Stayed in Govt. Camp	101	23.65	23.65	
Stayed in Comm. Camp	78	18.27	41.92	
Stayed with Relative	229	53.63	95.55	
Stay Other Places	19	4.45	100	
Total	427	100		
Interventions and Economic Activity				
Full access to Work Place	189	44.26	44.26	
Partial Access to work Place	163	38.17	82.43	
Yet to access Work Place	75	17.56	100	
 	427	100		

Source: Field Work

Table 3 shows the demographic and socioeconomic information of respondents. The table indicates that 141 (33.02 percent), 149 (34.90 percent) and 137 (32.08 percent) of the respondents are from Benue, Nasarawa and Plateau state respectively. The table also shows that majority of the respondents are male (73.77 percent). This is not surprising as most rural communities are patriarchal in nature with males as head of households. In cases where femalesassume heads of household, is either the male partner is dead or divorced. The table shows that majority of the respondents are between the ages of 30 to 59. This is the average age of active population and

most household heads in rural communities in Nigeria. The table shows that most of the respondents (36.07 percent) have secondary school education. The table also shows that 81.03 percent of respondents are farmers while 7.73, 2.11 and 9.13 percent of the respondents are civil servants, artisans and in business respectively. Those who are engaged in other economic activities are also engaged in farming.

Question was asked on the cause of respondents' displacement; 91.80 percent of respondents were displaced due to farmers-herdsmen crises while 8.20

percent were displaced due to inter-communal crises. Most inter-communal disputes are due to encroachment over farm land among neighboring villages or ethnic groups as in the case of Ekaida community and Adugbe Communities in Agatu local government area of Benue State. The respondents were also asked on their places of abode during crises; 23.65, 18.27, 53.63 and 4.45 percent stayed in government camps, community camps, relative and other places respectively. The responses in table 4 shows that most IDPs (53.63 percent) affected are not coordinated to be in camps. They preferred to go to relatives or rent apartment in neighboring villages and towns rather than to be in government camps. Most of the IDPs cited the problem of poor facilities and inadequate care for IDPs as reasons for not going to IDPs camp or left the camp or they are economically viable to cater for themselves. The responses of corroborate with

findings of Erong(2017) who found out that most IDPs in north-east, Nigeria affected by Boko Haram crises preferred staying in neighboring villages rather than going to camps. On whether or not respondents have started full time economic activities upon return, 44.26 percent have started full time economic activities, 38.17 percent of respondents have started work partially and 17.56 percent indicates that they are yet to start full time economic activity. This implies that about 55.73 (38.17 + 17.56), more than half of the respondents are either partially engaged in economic activities or are yet toreturned to economic activities.

This study provides evidence on the effect of intervention on IDPs returning to economic activities. First, we provide a descriptive analysis of the main variables in table 4. The summary of the data used in this study is shown in table 4.

Table 4 Descriptive statistics: Mean and Standard deviation of main variables

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Return to economic activities (RT)	5.40	6.91	0	36
Perceived security (SS)	0.59	0.49	0	1
Training/skills (IT)	0.19	0.38	0	1
Intervention (CG)	11,057.52	22,477.63	0	207,000
Years of Experience	19.13	11.00	0	50

Source: Field work

The result in table 4 shows that on average it takes respondents 5.4 months to return to economic activities. The minimum and maximum values indicate that some of the respondents return almost immediately while it took some respondents 36 months to return to full employment. Return to full time economic activities takes some time for some of the respondents for fear of being attacked again, especially for those respondents whose farms are far away in the bushes and forest. The outcome on return to economic activities buttresses the fact that there is difference between return to places of origin and return to economic activities. This corroborates with the responses on the question of whether respondents have started full employment; apart from the 44.26 percent that has return fully to economic activities, 33.17 percent partially have access to work and 17.56 percent are yet to return to economic activities. The table also shows a mean value of 0.59 for perceived reasons for return. This implies that more people return to their places of origin due to security reasons than other factors. The mean values for training/skills received of 0.19 in table 2 suggest that most of the respondents did not receivetraining. One reason for low participation in the training and skills acquisition among respondents is that most IDPs left camp or preferred to stay with

relatives instead of going to camp. The average value of intervention received is \\ \frac{1}{11},057.52. The mean value for the years of experience of respondents is 19.13.

4.2 Results of Regression Analysis

To evaluate the effect of intervention on return to economic activities of IDPs in the selected states, the study employs robustordinary least square (OLS) regression. Among all linear regression estimator, ordinary least square (OLS) estimate is considered the best and efficient estimator as long the Gauss-Markov theorems are met (Green, 2003). One of such assumptions is homoskedasticity, that assumes the residuals are independent and identically distributed $(\varepsilon \sim IID (0,\sigma 2))$. In practice, it is not unusual for heteroskedasticity to be present especially in cross sectional data analysis. As such, the use of OLS estimates although unbiased produces less efficient standard errors that may result in poor statistical test. Gerveni and Yohai (2002) suggest the use robust regression as it is apt in addressing heteroskedasticity with efficient standard error. Table 5 shows the output of robust OLS regression model for the combined data and individual states.

Table 5: Regression on the effect of Intervention on Return to economic activities

Variable	able Dependent Variable: Return to Employment (RT)						
	OLS	OLS Robust	OLS Robust	OLS Robust	OLS Robust		
	ALL	ALL	Benue	Nasarawa	Plateau		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)		
SS	1.739***	1.739***	1.769**	0.495	2.99		
	(2.54)	(2.75)	(1.90)	(0.63)	(1.31)		
CG	-0.000018	-0.000018	-0.000089	-0.000075	0.00013*		
	(-0.12)	(-0.14)	(-0.33)	(-0.57)	(1.74)		
IT	0.458	0.458	-0.276	1.289	-1.976		
	(0.51)	(0.59)	(-0.27)	(0.98)	(-0.72)		
HC1	1.145	1.145	0.714	2.411***	2.262		
	(1.46)	(1.51)	(0.61)	(2.46)	(0.80)		
HC2	0.0725**	0.0725**	0.041	0.119***	0.032		
	(2.25)	(2.35)	(0.93)	(2.48)	(0.22)		
HC3	-0.561	-0.561*	-1.262**	-0.599	1.279		
	(-1.63)	(-1.80)	(-2.43)	(-1.21)	(1.09)		
Cons.	3.422***	3.422***	6.446***	2.226	-3.554		
	(2.63)	(3.12)	(3.87)	(1.12)	(-0.88)		
	F-Test = 3.35	F-test = 3.74	F-test = 2.13	F-test = 3.60	F-test = 3.60		
	P-Value = 0.0031	P-Value = 0.0012	P-Value=0.051	P-Value=0.002	P-Value=0.002		
	$R^2 = 0.458$	$R^2 = 0.458$	$R^2 = 0.602$	$R^2 = 0.129$	$R^2 = 0.147$		
	N = 426	N = 426	N = 141	N=149	N=137		

Note: (.) are t-Values, *** means significant at 1 percent, ** means significant at 5 percent and * means significant at 10 percent.

Table 5 depicts the result of the effect of intervention on return to economic activities. The t-values of the OLS result (Column 2) shows that sense of security (SS) and years of experience of household head (HC2) are significant at 1 percent and 5 percent respectively. While education of household (HC3) is significant at 10 percent when corrected for heteroskedasticity. Concerning the interventions received, table 5 (Column 2) shows that a change in assistance (CG) and training (IT) received have positive but insignificant effect on return to economic activities. A look at the signs of the coefficient shows that SS, IT, HC1 and HC2 are in consonance with the expected sign, while CG and HC3 are not. The results in table 5 shows that return to economic activities is 1.74 months (1 month 22 days) when the respondents feel a sense of security in their places of origin holding all other variables constant. The result also shows that holding other variables constant, an additional year of experience increases return to economic activities by 0.0725 month (2 days). Table 5 further indicates that holding other variables constant, return to economic activities decreases by 0.561 months (16 days) with additional level of education. The t-values in the result shows that assistance (CG), Training/Skills (IT) and Gender (HC1) are statistically not significant. Thus, the results are not different from zero. This implies that assistance,

training/skills received and gender do not influence respondents' return to economic activities.

The estimated outcome in table 5 are robust and pass all post estimation test. One of the classical assumptions is the homoscedastic regression of constant variance of unobserved error conditional on explanatory variable. If the homoscedastic assumption is violated, the OLS estimates remains unbiased as long asthe other Gauss-Markov assumptions of no perfect collinearity among variables, linearity in the parameter, zero conditional mean and random sampling are not violated. However, the test statistics such as standard errors and t-statistics will be incorrect. Thus, the researcher is likely to draw false conclusion on the data. As observed by Arellano (1987) and Bertrand, Duflo and Mullainathan (2004), the OLS robust regression standard errors are robust thus, controls for heteroskedasticity. On the test for the existence of multicollinearity among variables of a model, a Vector Inflation Factor (VIF) of 5 and above connote the existence of multicollinearity. The test for multicollinearity shows a VIF of 1.12 which implies that there is no multicollinearity among the variables specified in the equation.

The outcome of the OLS result in table 5 implies that providing security at the places of origin remains an

important factor to return to economic activities of IDPs returnees. The provision of security in remote areas particularly in farms that are far-flung from roads and residential areas is crucial in IDPs return to economic activities. The result in table 5 implies that household characteristics in terms of years of experience in work and education of household head play a significant role in their return to economic activities. Household head with more experience are likely to return to economic activities than those with less years. This could probably bedue to the fact that households with more experience probably have invested more (at least in terms of time); thus, will want to return quickly to work.

The result in table 5 further implies that there is limited effect of intervention on return to economic activities. The provision of relief materials and money, although helpful in meeting the immediate basic needs of respondents, does not significantly determine the return to economic activities. In addition, the intervention effort of training IDPs is not important in their quick return to economic activities. As indicated by some of the respondents, the trainings received are not relevant to their work. The study also shows that gender plays a less significant role in the return to economic activities. As shown in the table, households with males (as the head of the family) haveno significanteffect on return to economic activities than those with female heads.

The study also examines the effect of the intervention on return to economic activities in the respective states. The outcomes of the OLS regression are also depicted in column 3 to 5 of table 5. For the individual state, security and level of education is shown to be the main determining factor affecting the return to economic activities in Benue state (Column 3). In Nasarawa State gender and years of experience are the main determinant affecting the return to economic activities (Column 4). While in Plateau State intervention received in form of relief material are the main determinant of return to economic activities (Column 5). Interms of the effect of intervention by states, the effect of assistance received is only significant in Plateau State but not significant in Benue and Nasarawa States. The significance of intervention in Plateau may probably be due to the high number of non-governmental organisations such as charity organisation and churches (Orji, 2011). In addition to government effort, some of the nongovernmental organisation go the extra mile to ensure returnees are integrated economically after returning to their places of origin – a component that may be lacking in the other two states. As a whole the result shows that the effect of training on return to economic activities is not significant in all the states.

The analysis of this study shows that although interventions are necessary to meet the needs of IDPs, their return to economic activities is not significantly affected by intervention but instead affected by a feeling of sense of security, years of experience and gender of respondents. This is an indication that IDPs eventually return to economic activities even when there are no incentives to do so; at least for the purpose of reducing losses.

Conclusion

The research findings established that interventions have insignificant effect on return to economic activities of IDPs; suggesting that the provision of relief materials and other forms of interventions such providing training and skill acquisition still remains very insignificant; as the result shows that the effect of intervention and return to employment is positive but not significant. This study also provides evidence that sense of security and years of experience of returnees significantly determine their return to economic activities rather than the intervention received. This paper provides evidence that IDPs' return to economic activities even when interventions are not enough to encourage them to do so. The results of this analysis suggest that government and non-governmental organisations should look beyond just meeting the basic needs of IDPs but ensure deliberate effort is made in providing relief materials that will enhance the economic recovery of returned IDPs. This is crucial to IDPs recovering from the economic shock caused by displacement and as well ensure lasting peace among communities. In addition, stake holders should cover more grounds in getting larger percentage of displaced persons and returnees into their intervention programs.

This study is however not without limitation. First is the unknown number of the target population used for the study. There are no proper records available for returning or returned IDPs in the three states. The study employed sample size determination for unknown population as employed by the United Nations Statistics (2005) for unknown population. Second, available records about returnees in affected local government areas and some of the villages where people have returned or have started returning in the three States Emergency Management Agencies (SEMA) are sparse. In other to overcome this shortcoming the study adopts the approach of International Organisation Migration [IOM] (2018) by using key informant and community leaders who are considered as the most trusted source of information to provide information on communities that have returned and the list of households in communities. The information gotten from key informant and community leaders is used to verify and, in most cases, substantiate the information received from the various SEMA. Thus,

the data and information of people and villages for the study are largely provided by community heads and research assistants who are familiar with the communities displaced. This flexibility provides the researcher with rich information on the effect of government intervention on the economic activities of returned IDPs which otherwise would not have been available from other secondary sources.

This study focused on three states most affected by crises and displacement in north-central region of Nigeria in recent years. While it would have been robust to carry out a study such as this on a national scale, however taking into consideration the inadequacy of resources in terms of human, capital and time limits this study to three states. Further research should consider national representative survey so as to overcome the problem of limited data and provide a larger coverage.

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