

## EDUCATIONAL SERVICES AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN MAIDUGURI, NIGERIA: IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION

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### ABSTRACT

**Introduction:** Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) are people who involuntarily migrate from their homes due to armed conflict or drought and disasters in such critical situations that the relocation of an affected population becomes inevitable. They are scourged by poverty and hunger, diseases, neglect and feelings of alienation, among others. **Purpose:** The study focused on effects of the Boko Haram insurgency on educational needs, educational services, and socio-economic interventions by the various NGOs and governmental actors involved in humanitarian assistance, coordinated by the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) and State Emergency Management Agency (SEMA) on the basis camp in Bakasi, Dalori and Farm center IDPs of Borno state, Nigeria.

**Methodology:** The survey design was used for the study. A descriptive study using pre-test and post-test treatment with a stratified sampling technique was used to select three (3) IDPs camps (IDPCs). The Hypotheses were tested using ANOVA was used to test the hypothesis. A total of 435 questionnaires were administered to the respondents, out of which 395 (Bakasi 116, Farm Centre 75, and Dalori 244) questionnaires were fully completed.

**Result:** The study reveals that socio-economic and educational services of the respondents and educational facilities on the basis of the camp had not differed.

**Recommendation:** Educational provisions should be made available where the children of the IDPs will be hosted and skills acquisition programmes to cater to skill development in different areas to enhance their economic status. There should be effective synergy between security forces, Government, civil society NGOs, locals and internationals in order to build confidence and trust.

**Keywords:** Internally displaced persons Camps (IDPCs), educational services, socio-economic status, implication.



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## **PUBLIC INTEREST STATEMENT**

The findings of this study will be of immense benefit to students, policymakers, government, and non-governmental organizations. This research will serve as a reference material for others who like to further investigate this field. The study will be of immense importance to policymakers, government and non-governmental organizations to effect positive changes at IDPCs.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) are people whom involuntary migration from their homes as a result of armed conflict or drought and disasters in such critical situations that the relocation of an affected population becomes inevitable. Fishman, (2010) submitted that IDPs are those who seek relocation due to a conflict in their region. However, Salama and Brennam (2001) opted that people who flee their homes seek a safer net within the confines of their national borders or home country are classified as IDPs. It was recent that IDPs were given attention. Before this time, the focus of discourse was on Refugees. In 1988, the Special Representative Security General of the United Nations issued a Guiding Principles for IDPs; this was a framework that helped in curtailing the challenges faced by internally displaced persons. Similarly, IDPs encounter greater challenges and uncertainty in camps, ranging from the right to property to dehumanizing conditions.

They are scourged by poverty and hunger, diseases, neglect and feelings of alienation, among others. All these conspire to worsen their status as internally displaced persons to psychosocially and emotionally displaced persons. Salami (2001) noted that the group of IDPs who migrate to other places does so unwillingly; hence they can be categorized under the term "forced displacement." A phenomenon where the existence and magnitude of which are at best the subjects of political discussion and the dynamics of which remain predominantly in the hands of individual actors (Goldman, et al. in Sanda, Hudson & Buba, 2016). To show the remarkable difference between IDPs and Refugees, Cohen and Deng (1998) observed that, unlike refugees, IDPs often fall within a vacuum of responsibility within their countries.

There is no clear international responsibility for assisting and protecting the internally displaced aside from the general international humanitarian law, whereas, for refugees, the UNHCR exercises that responsibility on a clear ground. Cohen and Deng (1998) have thrown up something that ordinarily would have remained elusive and vague to us; thus, the distinction is better understood from the 'internal-external' angles of displacement. The fact that the plight and welfare of the IDPs are not adequately treated in the same respect as the well-being of the refugees remains contentious.

The devastation and destruction of human lives and properties inflicted upon those living in the states are beyond imagination. The importance of education in a person's life can never be overemphasised in both temporal and spiritual aspects of human existence. Education is very paramount; it is the light that shows the way by removing the darkness of ignorance. It is the salt that gives taste to life. The greatest favor one can do to himself is to get educated and to others to give them education (Akinlabi, 2015). Insurgency, violence, conflicts or war, threats of such intimidation or abuse can have very serious and permanent effects on education, thus slowing down any progress or development of potentialities available, giving prominence to mediocrity as the priority because of excellence. When and where there is insecurity, the priority becomes survival. That is the first natural instinct.

The other entire thing, education inclusive becomes Secondary Schools are closed, pupils and students stay out of school or institution for as long as the insecurity persists where school building and properties were destroyed or looted, the situation becomes more complex, the effects more challenging. Sad as this

situation may look if is better than cases where students are pursued and killed in their schools. This can be more brutal? Evil? How can there be education if there are no people to receive education? Students and pupils that are lucky to escape such brutality may be marred physically, intellectually or psychologically for life, and sentenced for a life cripple. Students in all the public schools have stayed at home without going to school for four years. Some have resumed, but many of the Secondary Schools used as IDP camps are still closed in Borno state particularly (Cunningham, in Sanda, Hudson & Buba, 2016).

Boko Haram insurgents increasingly killed men in areas they captured living women and children with the dead bodies of their husbands and fathers in the compound or outside on the roadside of the towns for them to bury the corpses of their loved ones. Women buried their loved ones killed by the group. These towns include Bama, Gwoza, Minchika, Askira, Marte, Baga, Monguno, Dikwa, Ngala and others., leaving over 50,000 women widowed and 60,000 children orphaned (UNICEF, 2015). The group, in 2013, forcefully married girls from their parents at the payment of N2, 000 as dowry or without anything. Many girls, thousands in number, were abducted from villages and none has returned up till now. In 2014, the security situation in the Northeast, especially Borno, Adamawa and Yobe States, worsened. The highest casualty figures stem from April. Women became the breadwinners of their homes after their husbands were killed. They were forced to go and look for jobs as house helps with their daughters in Maiduguri just to keep the family fed.

Many girls roam the streets of Maiduguri hawking in May 2014. The factors correlated with the growing instances of attacks against women and girls. Most vividly with the widely reported kidnapping of 270 secondary school girls from Chibok in April of the same year (World Health Organization (2015). Using women as hostages for strategic gain is now a primary tactic of insurgent groups – a strategy that was

first employed in Bama kidnappings of girls in exchange for the terrorist group demanding the release of their members. A spokesman from the group once warned that no one in the country would enjoy his women and children if this condition was not met (West Africa Insight, 2015). Several barriers complicate and hinder continuous access to high quality and relevant education for IDPs populations. These are often experienced differently depending on patterns of displacement. As might be expected, education is less likely to be available in the emergency phase of displacement as international and national actors focus on security and the provision of necessities of life. As time goes on and displacement becomes protracted, more attention is devoted to education though rarely enough to meet the needs and expectations of the IDPs. The availability of education depends on government policies, either of host governments in the case of refugees or national governments in the case of IDPs. When governments are involved in the conflict, such as Sudan or DRC, education usually is a subordinate priority to UNRWA developed and utilized a working definition of "refugee," those who had lived in the British Mandate of Palestine for at least two years before fleeing and must have lost both their home and livelihood as a result of the 1948 Arab-Israeli War, or be the descendant of someone who had 4.7 million Palestine refugees in UNRWA's five fields of operations – Jordan, Lebanon, Syria, the Gaza Strip and the West Bank, including East Jerusalem are eligible for UNRWA services.

Host governments may be reluctant to open their educational facilities to refugees, either because of a shortage of resources or because of a concern that they may decide to stay longer by making life too comfortable for refugees. It makes a difference whether displaced populations are living among communities or in camps where international actors generally find it easier to start their own educational programs than when they must negotiate access with local authorities. However, some issues, such as certification of

learning attainment, translating education into livelihoods, and gender dynamics, are cut across camp and non-camp contexts (IDPs living in communities).

There are some common obstacles to accessing education for both IDPs living outside of camps, including the fact that children may need to work to earn money to support the family or may need to care for siblings so that the mother can work. While an extended family may have played this role of child-caring back home, the nuclear family often needs to provide these services in displacement, which means an additional burden on children. Even when the child does not have to work, school fees may make education financially unavailable to displaced children. Because of the conflict, which displaced them, children have usually lost time in school and may find it difficult to catch up or may be embarrassed to be far older than other students in their classes. They may perceive stigma or discrimination because they come from elsewhere. There may also be concerns about the safety of children attending schools in unfamiliar settings. This seems particular to apply to girls as most teachers are men, and parents may fear sexual exploitation by male teachers from different countries or regions. A major obstacle facing refugees living in communities is that the governments of host countries may not allow refugees to attend public schools, particularly beyond primary education. As mentioned in the above section on laws and policies on IDP and refugee education, the 1951 Convention states that hosting nations should accord to refugees the same treatment as is accorded to nations with respect to primary education, as well as a treatment "as favorable as possible with respect to education other than elementary education," wording that essentially leaves the provision of post-primary education (as well as early childhood development) at the discretion of the host country.

#### **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Insurgency has forced many IDPs in the North-East to run to safe

neighbouring communities, usually taking refuge in temporary shelters such as schools, public buildings and places of worship, among others; having been deprived of their homes and sometimes their homes their land and livelihoods. Most IDPs live in informal settlements or settlements within host communities, and some of these arrangements lack enough access to food, water and sanitation, health and non-food items. Most of the places being used as camps are secondary schools, teachers' village, Christian Association of Nigeria (CAN) Secretariat, NYSC camp, Arabic Teachers' College and other private places (OCHA, 2015).

In light of the above, this study seeks to assess the psychosocial needs and education services of IDPs in some selected camps in Maiduguri, Borno state Nigeria.

#### **PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The following objectives guided the study:

1. Assess the educational services provided to the IDPs in the Camps.
2. Determine the socio-economic interventions such as capacity building, case management activities, and voluntary teaching by government, civil society organizations and NGOs to the vulnerable group in the camps

#### **HYPOTHESES**

1. There is no significant difference in the educational needs of the IDPs on the basis of camps.
2. There is no significant difference in the responses on the basis of camp for the socio-economic interventions to the vulnerable group in the camps.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

##### **Research Design**

For the purpose of this study, a descriptive research design of survey type was used. Research design is a descriptive survey research design that was used to gather data from the respondents. The descriptive survey is suitable for this study because it allows for a large population to be sampled within single research and for many

inferences (deductions) to be made. The descriptive survey design is deemed appropriate for this study which seeks to assess the psychosocial needs and educational aid of IDPs in some selected camps in Maiduguri.

### Population and Sample

The population for this study comprises the whole Internally Displaced

Persons population in Maiduguri, which are put to 132,769 (International Organisation for Migration, 2015 and Displacement Tracking Matrix ROUND VII), while the target population comprised three selected camps in Maiduguri, namely: Bakasi, Farm centre and Dalori camps.

**Table 1**

Camps	Population	Male	Female
Bakasi camp	8,760	2920	5840
Farm centre camp	5,786	1929	3857
Dalori camp	18, 977	6327	12679
Total	33523	11167	22356

Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM, 2019)

Table. 1 shows the population of the three selected IDPs camps in Maiduguri. Dalori camp is the highest camp in terms of population and the biggest in terms of size in Borno state at large. Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) reported that the three selected camps for this study as shown in Table 1, are the largest camps in Maiduguri, containing IDPs from all three zones in the state.

The study's sample size is 435, obtained using Research Advisors 2006 table for determining the sample. To select the sample for this study, the researcher adopted multi-stage sampling

techniques. In the first stage, the study disaggregated the study area's total population into three sampled camps. In the second stage, stratified sampling was used to group the selected camps' population into IDPs, camps administrators/officials, and camps security personnel (both JTF and civilian JTF). In the third stage, it used a simple random sampling technique in each of the camps to select 244 respondents in Dalori camp, 116 in Bakasi camp and 75 in Farm centre camp. Therefore, the total sample size is 435 (Male 106 and Female 329 respectively).

**Table 2 Sample Size of the Population**

Name of Camps	Population	Sample	M	F
Bakasi camp	8,760	116	28	88
Farm centre camp	5,786	75	17	58
Dalori camp	18, 977	244	61	183
Total	33,523	435	106	329

Displacement Tracking Matrix (DMT, 2019)

The educational background of the respondents shown in Table 3 and figure 1 reveal that in Bakasi 16.5 % of

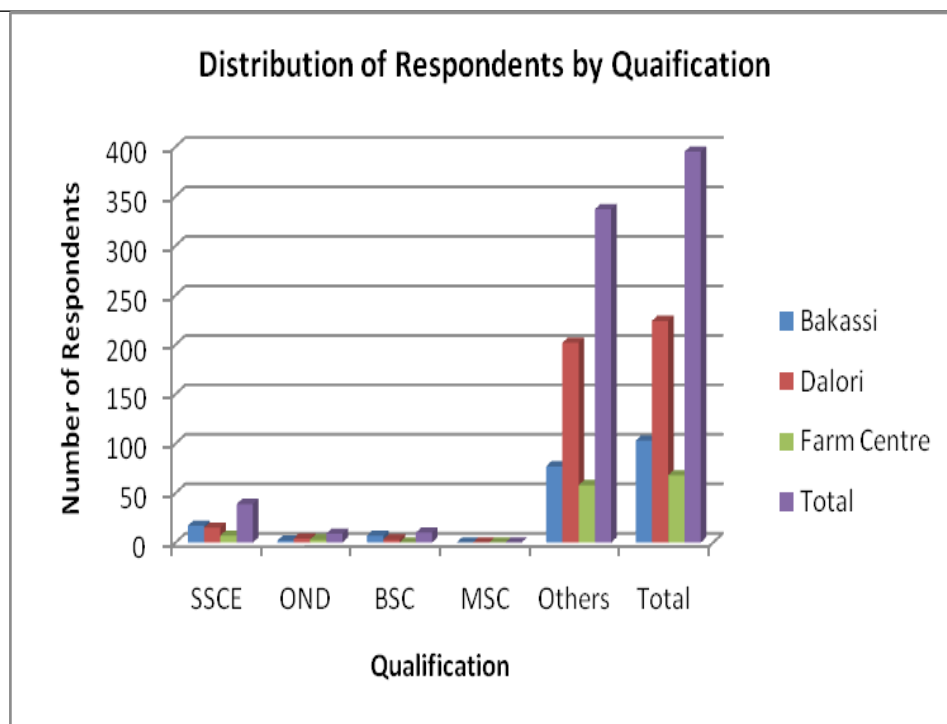
respondents have only SSCE, 1.94% are OND, and 6.6 % of the respondents are B.Sc. or HND Holders and 0.00 % of the

respondents with M.Sc. /MPA and 74.8% are illiterates, Dalori 6.70 % of respondents have only SSCE, 1.79% are OND, and 1.34 % of the respondents are B.Sc. or HND Holders and 0.00 % of the respondents with M.Sc. /MPA and 90.2% are illiterates, and Farm Centre 10.3 %

of respondents have only SSCE, 4.4% are OND, and 85.3% of the respondents are B.Sc. or HND Holders and 0.00 % of the respondents with M.Sc. /MPA. 74.8% are illiterates.

**Table 3: Demographic Information of Respondents' Qualifications**

Status	Bakassi	%	Dalori	%	Farm Centre	%	Total
SSCE	17	16.5	15	6.70	7	10.3	39
OND	2	1.94	4	1.79	3	4.4	9
BSC	7	6.80	3	1.34	0	0	10
MSC	0	0.00	0	0	0	0	0
Uneducated	77	74.8	202	90.2	58	85.3	337
Total	103	100	224	100	68	100	395



**Figure 1: Distribution of Respondents by Qualification**

**Instrument for Data Collection**

The researchers used a researcher-designed questionnaire titled "Psychosocial Needs, Psychotherapy and Educational aid of IDPs in some Selected Camps in Maiduguri". Documentary

sources were to elicit information from the respondents. The questionnaire is closed-ended questions based on four scale to measure the respondents' responses. The scale to rate the respondents is: Strongly Agree (SA),

Agree (A), Strongly Disagree (SD) and Disagree (D) with corresponding assigned values of 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively. The designed questionnaire was validated by the supervisory team of the study and other experts were given to the faculty of education and extension services, Usmanu Danfodiyo University Sokoto, who ascertained the questionnaire's content. The observation was duly corrected accordingly.

The instrument was validated by experts in education. The research instruments have been test-retest to other IDPs NYSC Camp and CAN Centre out of study area to ensure reliability. This technique involved administering the same questionnaire twice to the same group of subjects, after an interval of two weeks. The responses from each administration were correlated to determine the extent of consistency. Test

**Table 4: ANOVA of IDPs' Educational and Socio-Economic Statuses**

Source of variation	Sum of square	df	Mean square	F-cal	P	Remark
Between groups	0.680	2	0.340	1.107	0.332	accept
Within groups	120.455	393	0.307			
Total	121.136	395				

$N_{Bakasi} = 103, N_{Dalori} = 224, N_{Farm\ Center} = 68, P > 0.05(0.332)$

The result in Table 4 revealed that the p-value at  $F(2, 392)$  regarding the educational and socio-economic statuses of the IDPs in Bakasi, Dalori and Farm Center is 0.332. This value is greater than the p-value of 0.05 (level of significance), indicating that the educational and socio-economic statuses

retest was used to ensure reliability of the instrument and Pearson Product Moment Correlation coefficient with the scores of 0.75 was obtained as the reliability index of the instrument.

**Method(s) of Data Analysis**

The descriptive statistics tool includes tables, mean and standard deviation which were used to answer research questions. One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test the hypotheses of the study at 0.05 level of significance.

**RESULTS**

**Hypothesis 1:** There is no significant difference in educational and socio-economic statuses of IDPs on the basis of camps.

of the IDPs in Bakasi, Dalori and Farm Center are not significantly different. Hence, the null hypothesis was accepted.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is no significant difference in the responses on the basis of camp on psychological interventions for the vulnerable.

**Table 5: ANOVA of IDPs on the Psychological Interventions to the Vulnerable**

Source of variation	Sum of square	df	Mean square	F-cal	P	Remark
Between groups	0.407	2	0.203	0.641	0.527	accept
Within groups	124.288	393	0.317			
Total	124.695	395				

$N_{Bakasi} = 103, N_{Dalori} = 224, N_{Farm\ Center} = 68, P > 0.05(0.527)$

The result in Table 5 revealed that the p-value at  $F(2, 392)$  regarding the psychological interventions by government, civil society organizations and NGOs to the most vulnerable effectiveness of the therapy and coping mechanisms for the traumatic and mentally stress IDPs in Bakasi, Dalori and Farm Center is 0.527. This value is greater than the p-value of 0.05 (level of significance), indicating no significant difference in the responses of IDPs in Bakasi, Dalori and Farm Center on the psychological interventions to the vulnerable. Therefore, the null hypothesis was also accepted.

## **DISCUSSIONS**

In the test of hypothesis 1 of the study, assess the educational needs, children enrolment, educational facilities of the IDPs camp, children's educational enrolment via self-sponsored and educational preference across IDPs in Bakasi, Dalori and Farm Center. The results revealed that there are no adequate educational facilities in the camp to facilitate the education of the IDPs children. Hence, the results showed a good number of the IDPs are attending school outside the camp via self-sponsored, also, in the Camps, it was found that most of the IDPs were not in school prior to their displacement by the Boko Haram insurgency.

The result further revealed that the respondent agreed that the majority of the IDPs are poor farmers who do not have the means of sponsoring their children in school. Hence, the majority of the IDPs agreed that they prefer attending Arabic school due to their socio-economic and religious background. Therefore, the result of the grand mean response of the respondents agreed that the insurgency affected the IDPs' educational and socio-economic statuses. The respondents' grand standard deviation ( $\delta$ ) was very close, indicating that the educational and socio-economic statuses of the IDPs in Bakasi, Dalori and Farm Center are not significantly different. Hence, the null hypothesis not rejected. The findings corroborate with the study conducted by Owolabi and

Emeka, (2012); Adebowale (2013) who confirmed that family type, size, socioeconomic status and educational background play an important role in children's education attainment and social integration. Furthermore, it was also found that most of the IDPs rely on Arabic schools, with little among that were able to enrol their children in formal education before the insurgency. However, some reported socio-economic and religious factor as their reasons not to enrol their children in formal education schools. The findings here are inconsistent with the report of Nathan (2014), who stated that severe internal crises characterized by security challenges have forced young people, mostly adolescents, out of school and displaced many from their homes which in turn affects their socio-economic status. Sanda, Hudson & Buba (2016) in their study also reported that, there has been a great educational effect on the IDPs in Maiduguri camps since there is no record of good educational setting either formal or informal in all of the camps.

In the test of hypothesis 2, it revealed that the respondents agreed that post insurgency resilience and recovery programmes launched by Government/NGOs like capacity building, voluntary teaching by NYSC, psychosocial support services and case management activities and organized host community activities in the IDPs Bakasi, Dalori and Farm Center camp had not differed significantly. The result showed the respondents' grand mean response across the camps was very close, indicating that the respondents agreed that there are psychosocial interventions by government, civil society organizations, and NGOs to the most vulnerable group in the study area. The respondents' grand standard deviation ( $\delta$ ) also slightly varies, although not significant. This implies that the respondents were very close in their responses in the three camps. Kalin (2016) pointed out that as part of collective responsibilities, counselling and other psychosocial activities must be effective to the affected individuals. Sanda, Hudson & Buba (2016) found that the effect of psychological trauma has



been high on women and children in most cases women and children developed a traumatic state leading to hatred, slow learning ability and dissociation (isolation).

### **CONCLUSION**

In a nutshell, the majority of IDPs are poor farmers from rural areas who, without government assistance, have no way of relocating and settling elsewhere. The government and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have provided some support services in the IDPCs, but not enough. The government should make an effort to provide educational facilities sufficient to meet the needs of IDPs in the short term and to resettle them in their various communities in the long term.

### **RECOMMENDATIONS**

1. Education provisions should be made available where the children of the IDPs will be hosted and skills acquisition programmes to cater to skill development in different areas to enhance their economic status.
2. There should be improved the coordination between security forces, Government, civil society, NGOs, locals and internationals to build confidence and trust.

### **IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION**

Several barriers complicate and hinder continuous access to high quality and relevant education for IDPs populations. These are often experienced differently depending on patterns of displacement. As might be expected, education is less likely to be available in the emergency phase of displacement as international and national actors focus on security and the provision of necessities of life. As time goes on and displacement becomes protracted, more attention is devoted to education though rarely enough to meet the needs and expectations of the IDPs. The availability of education depends on government policies, either of host governments in the case of refugees or national governments in the case of IDPs. When

governments are involved in the conflict, such as Sudan or DRC, education usually is a subordinate priority to UNRWA developed and utilized a working definition of "refugee," those who had lived in the British Mandate of Palestine for at least two years before fleeing and must have lost both their home and livelihood as a result of the 1948 Arab-Israeli War, or be the descendant of someone who had 4.7 million Palestine refugees in UNRWA's five fields of operations – Jordan, Lebanon, Syria, the Gaza Strip and the West Bank, including East Jerusalem are eligible for UNRWA services.

Host governments may be reluctant to open their educational facilities to refugees, either because of a shortage of resources or because of a concern that they may decide to stay longer by making life too comfortable for refugees. It makes a difference whether displaced populations are living among communities or in camps where international actors generally find it easier to start their own educational programs than when they must negotiate access with local authorities. However, some issues, such as certification of learning attainment, translating education into livelihoods, and gender dynamics, are cut across camp and non-camp contexts (IDPs living in communities).

There are some common obstacles to accessing education for both IDPs living outside of camps, including the fact that children may need to work to earn money to support the family or may need to care for siblings so that the mother can work. While the extended family may have played this role of child-caring back home, the nuclear family often needs to provide these services in displacement, which means an additional burden on children. Even when the child does not have to work, school fees may make education financially unavailable to displaced children. Because of the conflict, which displaced them, children have usually lost time in school and may find it difficult to catch up or may be embarrassed to be far older than other students in their classes. They may perceive stigma or discrimination

because they come from elsewhere. There may also be concerns about the safety of children attending schools in unfamiliar settings. This seems particularly to apply to girls as most teachers are men and parents may fear sexual exploitation by male teachers from different countries or regions. A major obstacle facing refugees living in communities is that the governments of host countries may not allow refugees to attend public schools, particularly beyond primary education. As mentioned in the above section on laws and policies on IDP and refugee education, the 1951 Convention states that hosting nations should accord to refugees the same treatment as is accorded to nations with respect to primary education, as well as treatment "as favorable as possible with respect to education other than elementary education," wording that essentially leaves the provision of post-primary education (as well as early childhood development) at the discretion of the host country.

Thus, enforceable regulatory frameworks and legal provisions to govern the admission of IDPs children into school, particularly post-primary education, are largely missing. Moreover, as opposed to refugee camp situations that are established to deal with the displaced population, urban areas are less prepared to deal with the additional influx of students, particularly in education systems that may already be overstretched and be suffering from a lack of space and poor infrastructure. UNHCR estimates that only 11% of the urban areas hosting refugees have youth programs and that the problem is global, with urban refugees in Africa, Asia, and the Middle East facing similar constraints in accessing education. The situation is even direr for higher education, where many governments prohibit refugees from attending national universities, although trends may be slowly changing. For example, Kenya's 2006 Refugee Act allows refugees to enrol in higher education without specific student passes, but all school and university administrators have not fully understood this change. Sometimes UNHCR is able to negotiate access to primary and

secondary schools with the host government, in effect promising additional financial support to the schools in return for access. Thus in Syria, UNHCR negotiated long and hard with the Syrian government to persuade them to open primary schools to Iraqi refugee children. Access to education is particularly difficult for urban IDPs living without IDPs' legal status in urban areas in host countries (Blyth & Traeger, 1988).

**Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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### **Disclaimer Statement**

This research work is the original work carried out by Sarkinfada Halima and Kyari Ijai Multafu, and it is not for any institutions of learning.

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### **Authorship and Level of Contribution**

The first and the second author wrote the paper. The second author collected data and the first author edited the paper.

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