International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention (IJHSSI)
ISSN (Online): 2319 – 7722, ISSN (Print): 2319 – 7714
www.ijhssi.org ||Volume 7 Issue 05 Ver. V ||May. 2018 || PP.35-57

Interagency Collaboration and the Provision of Basic Education to Internal Displaced Persons (Idps) In Borno State, Nigeria

Manpaaaliyumusa(Phd), Ifatimehin O. Olufemi,And Hassanai.Waziri (Mrs)
Department of Public Administration University of Maiduguri, Borno state, Nigeria.
Department of Political Science University of Maiduguri, Borno state, Nigeria.
Corresponding Author: Manpaaaliyumusa(Phd)

ABSTRACT: *Internal displacement of persons as a result of violence, violation of fundamental human rights and other form of disasters both manmade and natural is one of the worst humanitarian crises recorded in recent global history with over 66 million people displaced from their homes. Nigeria has the highest number of internal displaced persons (IDPs) in Africa with North east having conservatively about 2.7 million IDPs out of which Maiduguri the capital of Borno state account for 1.7 million IDPs. This increase in the number IDPs is as a result of the nefarious activities of the dreaded bokoharam terrorist in the region. BY international principles and conventions the national and local authorities within whose domain the IDPs take refuge are responsible for providing them basic life support including protection, livelihood, healthcare service and basic education. However pressure on resources and lack of capacity on the side of the various national and local Authorities to adequately cater for the needs of the IDPs has necessitated the need for synergy among government agencies and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in such area. This paper therefore examines the effects of interagency collaboration on the provision of basic education to IDPs in Maiduguri Borno state, Nigeria. The study adopted survey method where data were collected through questionnaire, interview, focused Group Discussion (FGD) and observation from strategic stakeholders notably, government officials, nongovernmental organizations and IDPs. The study revealed lack of interagency collaboration on the issue of the design of curriculum to suite the education needs of the IDPs as interviewees were unanimous in pointing out that they use the existing curriculum obtainable in all Nigerian schools to teach the children. The only things done are to empower the teachers on new teaching methods to cater for the peculiarities of the IDP children. On the question whether IDPs have access to education before the displacement it was established that there is no significant difference between access to qualitative education before displacement and during displacement of the IDPs. On the issue of satisfaction with the quality of education during the emergencies the study revealed that Most of the IDPs in camps were satisfied with the quality of education received during displacement. This is because according to them their children now have access to educational materials and resources which were not available in the previous schools. Some also point out their children can now recite ABC and are taught in the English language. The paper concluded that although there is evidence of interagency collaboration in the provision of basic education but such synergy is lacking in the area of designing school curriculum to address the education needs of the IDP children. The paper recommend among others that the agencies should work out a workable curriculum for the education of the IDP children that should cater for the present needs of the IDPs and for their future needs when they return to their communities.*

KEYWORDS: *Interagency collaboration, basic education and internal displaced persons*

Date of Sumisión: 19-05-2018 Date of aceptante: 04-06-2018

I INTRODUCTION

The political and economic pressures to reduce the size and scope of government responsibilities and to cut expenditures and the lack of capacities by most countries ravaged by these conflicts informed the restructuring. The need for inter-agency collaboration as part of the restructuring has received serious attention, especially in human services. Inter-agency collaboration is put in place to ensure more predictable funding, strengthening coordination mechanisms, adoption of better preparedness measures and improved common services in the response to humanitarian crisis.

Inter-agency collaboration is the synergy or relationship between or among agencies Government and Nongovernmental (NGOs) working together to achieve common goals. Collaboration usually takes different forms which are based on the organisational goals and means to achieving these goals. Collaboration could be cooperative: If the goals and means are similar; complementary: If the goals are similar but the means are dissimilar; co-operative: If the goals are dissimilar and means are similar and confrontational: If the goals and means are both dissimilar. The relationship types are not mutually exclusive; there might be both cooperative

and confrontational relationships at the same time within the same relationship (Najam, 2000). Whatever the form collaboration takes its major goal is to ensure that common goal is achieved.

This changing trend in responding to the plight of those affected by conflict is most imminent in the 21st century as it has continued in witnessing devastation in the humanitarian crisis in the form of internal conflict, resulting in internal displacement. It is becoming increasingly evident that internal displacement is one of the most pressing humanitarian, human rights, and political issues now facing global community. In more than thirty countries, an estimated 50 to 60 million internally displaced persons struggle to survive, having been driven from their homes but have not reached or crossed an international border to become refugees (International Office of Migration, (IOM), 2016). These individuals, families, and communities have been displaced as a result of generalised violence, violation of human rights, natural disaster or human-made disaster, and, most frequently, by armed conflict.

In 2016 the number of IDPs has doubled in the Middle East as result of the activities of Islamic State of Iraq and Levant .The scenario depicted above is not different from Nigeriaas the phenomenon has manifested in the emergence of Boko Haram terrorist group in the Northeast with Borno state receiving the largest backlash which has attracted global attention. Nigeria has one of the highest numbers of displaced persons in Africa in 2016 and accounts for about 15 million internally displaced by conflict and generalised violence (Bilak et al, 2016). This does not include internal displacement induced by development projects that are regulated by states. Between July and October 2012, National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) (2013) estimates that a total of 7.7 million people were affected by inter-communal conflicts and flooding across the federation. Out of the affected population, 2.1 million people were internally displaced (IDPs) as a result ofBoko Haram terrorist activities which been killing people and destroying homes, leading to the influx of over 1.5 million millions of internally-displaced persons displaced from about 18 local government areas of Borno stateto Maiduguri. . NEMA (2013) reports that Boko Haram terrorists had forced residents of various communities in Borno state to take refuge in Maiduguri, Adamawa, Bauchi, Gombe, Taraba, Yobe and Abuja but as at July 2016, about 1.5 million IDPs are being camped in various public school premises, newly-completed but yet-to-be-commissioned housing estates, as well as among host communities in Maiduguri, Borno state.

Since internally displaced persons remain within the territorial jurisdiction of their own countries, the primary duty and responsibility for the management and humanitarian assistance to them without discrimination and in accordance with international human rights and humanitarian law lie with the National and Sub-National authorities concerned. However, global trends for the management of IDPs has called for restructuring in terms of collaboration along with others to enhance cooperation between governmental agencies and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) with shared responsibilities and overlapping jurisdictions.

The United Nations Guiding Principle (1998), The Kampala Convention (2009) and Nigerian Policy of IDPs (2012) as part of their implementation framework for restructuring the management of IDPs, provides for an institutional mechanism for collaboration, including the establishment of a collaborative and coordination framework, designation and strengthening of a lead internal displacement coordination institution, creation of humanitarian coordination sectors and prescription of terms of reference for harmonious working relationship among the agencies.

Management of IDPs means ensuring equitable access to services and protection for displaced persons to improve their quality of life and dignity during displacement one of the basic needs of these IDPs is the provision of accessible and qualitative basic education. The National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) and Borno State Emergency Management Agency (SEMA) are playing significant roles in the management of these IDPs. This paper is set to examine the role effort of inter-agency collaboration in the provision of Basic education to the IDPs in Borno State Nigeria.

II OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The main objective of the paper is to assess the effect of inter-agency collaboration in the provision of accessible qualitative education to IDPs in Maiduguri, Borno state.

Research Question

This paper is guided by the following question

i. How has inter-agency collaboration enhanced the provision of accessible qualitative education to IDPs in Maiduguri, Borno state?

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses was formulated to guide the study

HOThere is no significant difference between access to qualitative education before displacement and during displacement of the IDPs in Maiduguri, Borno State.

2.1 Conceptual Issues

2.1.1 Inter-Agency Collaboration

Inter-agency collaboration is a concept that has received considerable attention from thinkers and practitioners working in human service systems. This has given birth to the different conceptualisation of inter-agency collaboration.

Gazley and Brudney (2007) view the concept as the process by which organisations with a stake in a social problem or issue seek a mutually determined solution aiming at objectives they could not achieve by working alone. Similarly, Brinkerhoff (2002), posits that state-NGO partnerships are a cross-sectorial interactions whose purpose is to achieve objectives through the combined efforts of both actors, where the roles and responsibilities of those actors are distinct. Accordingly, Clark (1991) pointed out that inter-agency collaboration is dependent on the social and political context of the country and NGOs may oppose, complement, or seek to reform the state .

Najam's (2000) Four Cs model, offers a more detailed view of inter-agency collaboration by examining the extent to which their organisational goals and means overlap: Cooperative: If the goals and means are similar, then government and NGOs develop a cooperative relationship. Complementary: If the goals are similar but the means are dissimilar, then a complementary relationship between government and NGOs emerges. Co-operative: If the goals are dissimilar and means are similar, then government tries to build a co-operative relationship with NGOs, and Confrontational: If the goals and means are both dissimilar, then government and the NGOs are in a confrontational relationship. The relationship types are not mutually exclusive; there might be both cooperative and confrontational relationships at the same time within the same relationship. The definition as given by the author presents relationships as the result of strategies that both state organisations and NGOs use.

A more concise conceptualisation is offered by Linden (2002), who states that inter-agency collaboration occurs when people from different organisations, produce something through joint effort, resources, and decision making, and share ownership of the final product or service. This collaboration can occur on multiple levels, from frontline collaboration among caseworkers, families, mental health providers, teachers, and others, to collaborative relationships between policy-makers and administrators responsible for addressing organisational mandates, financing, and management. In addition to State and local organisations, inter-agency collaboration can involve public, private, and/or faith-based sectors as partners.

Inter-agency collaboration is a process by which representatives from various agencies come together to identify and work toward a common goal. To this end, Brunner (1991) defines inter-agency Collaboration as a process to reach goals that cannot be achieved acting singly (or, at a minimum, cannot be reached as efficiently). As a process collaboration is a means to an end, not an end in itself. The desired end is more comprehensive and appropriate services. The unique characteristic of inter-agency collaboration is that problems and solutions are shared across agencies. One perspective of inter-agency collaboration is that collaboration is a result of resource dependency. According to Tseng (2004), the primary driver for organisations to collaborate is to survive. Agencies seek inter-agency collaboration for resources they need while trying to preserve their autonomy. Rivard, Johnson, Morrissey, and Starrett (1998) while supporting this perspective define inter-agency collaboration as the extent to which organisations exchange two primary resources: client referrals and information.

2.1.2 Internally Displaced Persons

The concept of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) has equally gained currency in the field of social and management sciences in the 1980's as a result of changing dimension in the conflict in nations. Hitherto, the conflict was inter-states but this period witnessed a shift to intra-state conflict. Hence, United Nation Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement (1998:1) states that IDPs are –Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border.‖ United Nations Human Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) describes internally displaced persons (IDPs) as probably the largest group of vulnerable people in the world (UN, Guiding Principle, 1998). This definition although universally accepted fails to recognised those who were displaced by the perceived feelings to threat. According to the UNHCR (2007.a), it has an interest in the protection and welfare of persons who have been displaced by persecution, situations of generalized violence, conflict or massive violations of human rights: in other words, all those, who had they crossed an international frontier, would have had a claim to international protection. Notably, this description does not include IDPs displaced as a result of natural disasters or development activities. Nonetheless, the subsequent ‗overriding' consensus is that these persons are also worthy of attention since they can also be subject to discrimination and human rights violations in the course of their displacement.

1990 and has been ratified by 193 countries. Because the CRC sets out the –rights‖ of children, the prohibition against discrimination in Article 2 means that whatever benefits a State provides to its own child citizens must be afforded to all children within its territory. Furthermore, several articles specifically address children‘s right to education, as well as humanitarian assistance when seeking refugee status. Article 22 states that children who are refugees shall be ensured their human rights through protection and humanitarian assistance. Articles 28 and 29 articulate the right to education for all children, implicitly including refugees and internally displaced persons. Finally, Articles 38 and 39, as well as the Optional Protocol on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict, address the issue of child soldiers and the promotion of both physical and psychological recovery and social integration of children affected by armed conflicts. In addition to the national government signatories, multilateral organizations, such as UNICEF, UNHCR, and UNESCO, are guided by the principles of the CRC.

It is clear, however, that IDPs‘ right to and need of education is broader than primary schooling. As part of the UN‘s International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1976), countries that are party to the Covenant recognize the right of everyone to education and that in order to fully realize this right, *"*secondary education in its different forms, including technical and vocational secondary education, shall be made generally available and accessible to all by every appropriate means, and in particular by the progressive introduction of free education‖ and –higher education shall be made equally accessible to all, on the basis of capacity, by every appropriate means, and in particular by the progressive introduction of free education.‖

One of the high targets during conflict situations is the destruction of education facilities. During the Mozambique conflict in the 1980s-1990s, for example, 45 percent of schools were destroyed (Save the Children 2002). Many refugees and internally displaced children lose their chance of getting an education.. The right to education is enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, yet in the case of many urban IDPs, the state bureaucracy has failed to provide adequate education to IDPs. In Khartoum, teachers are scarce because they are paid so little and many schools have been bulldosed by the government. IDP children are often kept out of schools because families cannot afford the fees, children‘s labor is critical to family survival and the children are needed at home to guard the shelter. In 2006 approximately 48% of children of school age were not attending school in the Khartoum IDP camps (Jamil, 2014). Moreover, according to same author-teachers in the Khartoum camps have complained of poor conditions with no desks or chairs, inadequate funding, lack of teaching materials and also of the fact that students often fainted in class because of a lack of food. In Maiduguri, Borno state many children attend school irregularly, while others have missed up to two school years. The education sector, which has remained the target of attacks have been particularly hard hit by terrorism. In the state capital, 77 schools and 533 classrooms offering basic education have been burnt, 9,546 desks destroyed and teachers killed (Ifatimehin, 2014).this means that the educational facilities are limited to cater to the needs of both the host communities and IDPs

Importance of Education among the IDPs

Education is of primary importance in ending the plight of IDPs. The education available to IDPs should ideally be designed to provide the knowledge and skills necessary to facilitate a smooth reintegration process if and when the urban displaced decide to return to their areas of origin (Guiding Principle, 1998). In the Khartoum camps, however, the limited education available to IDPs is Islamic-based and taught in Arabic (Jamil, 2014).

IDPs access to quality education is very important as far their management is a concern. Studies conducted shows that access to education by the IDPs could sometimes be promoted by displacement and vice versa. While some Schmidt (2013) posits that the Jordanian Ministry of Education and UNICEF provide formal education in two temporary schools with a capacity of 5,000 students each, covering all grades except the final year of secondary school. In reality however, with, 76% of girls and 80% of boys between the age of 6 and 18 years attending school.

Chuei (2010) pointed out that in Kakuma camp effort were made by the UNHCR and the aid agencies to make education accessible to all refugee children has been the main priority of the aid workers in the camp. As a result of this commitment, the UNHCR has significantly reduced the shortage of educational facilities and teachers. The enrolment figures of refugee children in the camp have remained high. OCHA (2010) points out those IDPs in Chad have more access to education in camps before they were displaced, that formany of the internally displaced children, there was no school in their village of origin either, so moving into UNICEF-managed displacement camps have actually increased their opportunity to access formal education.

In some areas, IDPs living in camps or in host communities near camps and large distribution centers have attended Education in Emergencies (EiE) programmes provided by local agencies supported by the UN Children‘s Fund (UNICEF). The coverage of such programmes, however, is unknown. EiEprogrammes are an emergency response to deliver life-saving health and hygiene messages, psychosocial support and supervision for vulnerable children. They cannot be seen as a substitute for formal education or as a means of displaced children catching up on lost schooling.

Emergency situations such as those created by armed conflict and displacement present many challenges; however, such times of transition can also offer opportunities for change. In the case of IDPs, resettlement in another region may provide an opportunity to provide education to persons that have never been able to access it before. There exists the potential for new financial resources available from NGOs as well as diminished resistance from existing bureaucratic structures during such times. Winthrop & Mendenhall (2006) point out that in existing camps for displaced populations; the quality of education accessible to IDPs lags far behind that accessible to refugees. It is imperative that to benefit from this window of opportunity, the implementation of education is considered a priority for internally displaced populations.

Education in IDP‘s life serves to alleviate the long-term impact of such trauma. Education also assists in identifying IDPs who are suffering from severe shock or trauma. Once identified, additional services can be provided to these community members to address their psychological needs (Bensallah, 2002). Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education (2008) asserts, –Education provides physical, psychosocial l and cognitive protection that can be both lifesaving and life-sustaining. Education offers safe spaces for learning, as well as the ability to identify and provide support for affected individuals, particularly children, and adolescents. Education mitigates the psychosocial impact of conflict and disasters by giving a sense of normality, stability, structure, and hope during a time of crisis, and provides essential building blocks for social reconstruction and future economic stability‖ (Muñoz, 2010).

Education also acts as a deterrent to involvement in illicit activities, particularly among youth. Research by Women Refugee Commission (WRC) (2007) has demonstrated that where education is not available, individuals are more susceptible to recruitment into illicit activities including fighting groups or the sex trade. While both sectors employ the use of human trafficking, this study distinguishes between recruitment by armed forces for roles as combatants, laborers, or sex slaves who takes place primarily during the conflict and for-profit recruitment by sex traffickers which increases in post-conflict settings. In both instances, the recruitment may be either forced or voluntary under deceptive pretenses. Inter-agency collaboration is strongly needed in this direction to empower the IDPs through education.

As rightly points out, education can be a significant tool in the area of conflict prevention. Conversely, insufficient educational opportunities result in a population inadequately prepared to rebuild their lives and their countries. The lack of political will and targeted funding reveals that education for displaced populations still has not received due precedence for the role it plays in peace-building and long-term recovery.

Access to Education by the IDPs

It is estimated that of the more than 27 million children lack access to education in emergency situations, substantial numbers are internally displaced (Women‘s Commission for Refugee Women and Children, 2004). For these children not only is their education development denied, but they are deprived of other important benefits as well. Going to school is known to provide a degree of stability and normalcy in the traumatised lives of IDP children, and can be a critical source of psychosocial support. It helps to reduce children‘s exposure to threats including sexual exploitation, physical attack, and military recruitment. Classrooms can also be effective forums for conveying life-saving information about other risks including landmines and HIV/AIDS. Moreover, access to education is an important element of IDP integration into the local community where they are displaced, as well as when they return to their home areas or resettle elsewhere.

One important factor in education to IDPs is the availability of teachers. However, teachers are usually scarce as they too have been uprooted. Wax (2004) posit that in Darfur, Sudan, teachers, and schools have been singled out for attack as part of what Human Rights Watch has characterised as an effort to stop a culture and prevent people from being educated.

Women Refugee Commission (2004) found that in IDP camps, the availability of educational services is even less systematic than in refugee camps. Where schools in IDP camps do exist, typically these are makeshift, under-resourced, over-crowded and limited to primary education. In IDP camps visited in Liberia in the summer of 2004, more than half of the children had no access to schooling whatsoever; schools that had been established-often by the IDPs themselves—lacked the most basic supplies, such as blackboards, chalk, book, and even roofs (Mooney, 2003).

Often time, educational services are not available in IDP camps and settlements, making the nearest schools which may be located at considerable distances and walking to and from school may not be safe for IDP children, particularly girls. Traveling to school may require traversing areas strewn with landmines or crossing checkpoints set up by military forces or other armed groups, where children may be subjected to harassment and at greater risk of enforced military recruitment and abduction. In Afghanistan, threats of sexual violence en-route to school have kept many IDP girls at home (Amnesty International, 2002). Once at school, additional safety concerns can arise. For instance, there are cases where the lack of separate lavatories, which can put girls at risk to sexual violence, has deterred displaced girls from attending school altogether. It is, therefore, a priority for agencies to partner in providing education to IDPs camps taking significant consideration to the norms and

values of the people.

Since internal displacement often occurs along ethnic lines, it disproportionately affects minorities and indigenous groups, who may not speak the local language of instruction. However, in Peru, the Representative of the Secretary-General on Internally Displaced Persons found that IDP students from the indigenous Quechua group were unable to understand or communicate with their Spanish-speaking teachers, resulting in significantly lower levels of school attendance and higher levels of illiteracy, particularly among girls and women (UN, 1996). In Burma, the compulsory use of Byrmess in government-run schools account for high dropout rates among displaced students from minority groups.

The discrimination that IDPs often suffer on ethnic grounds, or even simply on the basis of being internally displaced, can be so pervasive as to limit IDP children‘s access to education. In a study by Cohen and Sanchez-Garzoli (2000), it was found that indigenous and minority IDP students have been turned away even before entering classrooms in Colombia and Mexico. In Colombia, one woman recounted that her son was told by his teacher –no wonder you are stupid, you are a displaced‖ (UN, 2000). The refusal was as a result of the fact that only governmental agencies operate a school within the IDP setting if NGOs were to have operated in such children will not be discriminated upon.

Discrimination in accessing education may also take the form of segregated schools established for IDPs. In parts of Georgia, a system of separate school facilities for IDPs impedes their integration into the community. This system of separate schooling is especially problematic given the protracted nature of internal displacement in Georgia, which has persisted for over a decade. It has also led to feelings of isolation and psychological trauma among IDP students as well as contributed to an increase in tensions between resident and displaced populations (United Nations Association of Georgia, 2000). In Serbia and Montenegro discrimination has resulted in IDP in Roma children being refused the possibility of registering in local schools and required to attend separate schools, which in the words of one advocate, –condemns them to a life of exclusion‖ (European Roma Right Center, 2004). Indeed, parallel education systems for Albanian-speaking students continues through to the university level and works against the integration of Kosovo Serb and other IDPs from minority groups in the long term (UNHCR/OSCE, 2002).

Although education under international law is to be free, at least at the primary level, in practice, school fees often are informally levied at the primary level and commonly apply at the elementary and secondary levels. Recognizing that many IDPs have particular difficulty paying school fees, some governments have instituted an official policy of waiving school fees for IDP children. However, these policies have been limited in scope and in implementation. In Burundi, though it was government policy to waive school fees for internally displaced children, IDPs reported that this policy tended to be ignored. Many displaced children, as a result, were unable to attend school because their families could not afford the school fees, equivalent to $1 per semester (UN, 2000).In Colombia, displaced children formally registered as –IDPs‖ by the government – a certification that is extremely difficult to obtain – were to be excused from paying school fees for their first year of schooling following their displacement. After this time, however, the UN Special Rapporteur on the right to education (2004) reported that it was a matter of IDP families choosing between eating and sending their children to school.

The provision of education to IDPs requires serious collaboration between government and NGOs. A good working example of such collaboration has manifested in Nigeria, under the leadership of the Ministry of Education and technical secretariat led by the National Emergency Management Agency and within the design of the Safe Schools Initiative (SSI) Technical Committee‘s Action Plan as approved by the Steering Committee, UNICEF has been assigned the responsibility to support and oversee provision of quality education in IDP settings. The SSI is a response to the attacks on schools to improve linkages between the communities, the schools, and their security. In Borno, a number of SSI activities have been undertaken in Maiduguri and Biu whereas in Adamawa the SSI activities were concentrated in Yola city as well as some few host communities of Mubi North and Mubi South LGAs. A decision was taken to include the IDP camp in Gombe state in the assessment exercise due to that many people have moved there from other states, especially from Borno state. State Coordination Committees (SCCs) whose responsibility it is to manage SSI activities within each state/location has been established. The SCCs comprise membership from all stakeholders within Education in Emergency (EiE) and other structures at the state level. These SCCs have overseen the profiling of IDP learners, mapping of schools and allocation of IDP learners to schools. In addition, SCC has been playing a critical role in quality assurance of the double shift schooling (UNICEF, 2015).

The inter-agency implementation of assessment of profiling IDP learners and mapping of schools show that a total of 19 double shifts has been set up (9 in Maiduguri, 3 in Biu, 4 in Gombe and 3 in Adamawa (Yola). In addition, 10 additional classrooms have been constructed in Maiduguri. The process of determining the total number of additional teachers for each learning center/school is ongoing. The implementation shows a gap that

there are not enough displaced teachers that can adequately cater for the double shift schooling, therefore, resources (in the form of stipends) need to be made available for teachers that are not on the payroll. UNICEF has procured the School in a box and school bags (900 kits for a start) as per the initial decision to reach 36,000 school children. These kits and bags have been distributed to schools in the target locations (Multi-Sectorial Report, 2014).

With many IDPs sheltering in schools and humanitarian assistance often limited to life-saving interventions, displaced children are generally unable to pursue their education. Boko Haram attacks against schools since 2012 and state governments‘ closure of facilities in the worst affected areas, such as Borno state, have drastically decreased access. All schools in the towns of Baga, Bama, Jajeri, UmarariGarnam, Mai Malari, Mungono, andGamboru were forced to close between February 2012 and June 2013. Boko Haram destroyed 14 schools in the Borno state capital of Maiduguri between January and April 2013, and at least 256 were destroyed across the state (International, 2013; Multi-Sectorial Assessment, 2014). All state schools in Borno were closed in March 2014.

IDPs and members of the security forces occupying schools have damaged and in some cases destroyed infrastructure. A surge in displacement in northern Adamawa state during the July to September 2014 holidays led to a large number of IDPs sheltering in schools, which prevented classes from resuming at the start of the academic year. Attendance rates have declined dramatically in the north-east. Even in areas where schools have remained open, many children, including IDPs, do not attend for fear of attack and abduction. The abduction of students in IDPs‘ home areas has made parents wary of sending their children to school, even in the comparative safety of the areas of the refuge in neighboring states. Parents also tend to prioritise basic needs such as shelter and food over education (Multi-Sectorial Assessment, 2014). Displaced children‘s access to education varies from state to state. They are often refused attendance at host community schools that do not have the facilities or staff to take on more students. During the first half of 2014, admission was denied to many IDP children in Maiduguri, Borno state because the school year had already started (Multi-Sectoral Assessment, May-June 2014).

2.1.10 Empirical Review

Several studies have been conducted on the subject matter based on data collected from the primary sourceSchmidt (2013) conducted a study titled –Education in the Second Largest Refugee Camp in the World‖ where the study provides an insight into the struggles of children trying to continue their education in Za‘atari, the largest refugee camp in Jordan. Approximately 120,000 Syrian refugees live in the Za‘atari camp, half of them children. The camp now has grown to be the second largest refugee camp in the world only exceeded in size by the Dadaab camp in Kenya. The study used the human right approach to guide the analysis. Data were collected from both primary and secondary source. Data were analysed descriptively and by content analysis. The study found out that in principle, all girls and boys in Za‘atari camp have access to school. The Jordanian Ministry of Education and UNICEF provide formal education in two temporary schools with a capacity of 5,000 students each, covering all grades except the final year of secondary school. In reality, however, though, 76% of girls and 80% of boys between the age of 6 and 18 years do not attend school. 66% of all children in Za‘atari camp lost about three months of schooling already before arriving in Jordan while 23% lost more than a year. Boys have generally been out of school longer than girls. The consequence is significant: only 7% of the children who lost more than a year are currently in school. The study also found out that Jordanian teachers have a crucial role to play, though, because the Jordanian curriculum needs to be instructed by Jordanians so that children are eligible to receive certification by the Jordanian Ministry of Education. But teachers also face constraints: Some report that they do not feel safe working in Za‘atari camp and that transportation to the camp is costly and difficult. Often they are inexperienced because many of them have only recently graduated. For every two Jordanian teachers, there is approximately one Syrian assistant teacher. Syrian teachers are frustrated that they are only allowed to work as assistants in Za‘atari camp given they are fully qualified teachers. The study concludes that education in the camps does not encourage participation by children of the refugees.

Chuei (2010) in a study titled "Analysis of the displaced children‘s education in the Kakuma camp" focused at policy, accessibility and quality of education in the Kakuma Camp and how the displaced viewed that education. The data for this research were collect from various sources such as journal articles, internet sources, books, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) documents and the researcher‘s own experiences as a refugee person in order to form an analysis of the policy, accessibility and quality of education in the Kakuma Camp. Various resources from Kakuma Camp were used as the focus of this research analysis in order to provide readers with a sense of the displaced children‘s education in the camp as well data was collected from the interview. The study found out that effort made by the UNHCR and the aid agencies to make education accessible to all children has been the main priority of the aid workers in the camp. As a result of this commitment, the UNHCR has significantly reduced the shortage of educational facilities and teachers. The enrolment figures of children in the camp have remained high. The UNHCR records indicated that in Kakuma,

53,471 pupils (20,476 girls) attended primary school, and 2,932 pupils (388 girls) attended secondary school. Some 705 youths (530 males and 175 females) received vocational training, while 430 received tertiary education. The construction of a boarding school for girls has commenced, as well as the construction of 49 new classrooms and the renovation of 50 old ones. Currently, the educational sector provides employment for 862 displaced and 66 Kenyan teachers. The success of education in the camp was as a result of the UNHCR leadership effectiveness policies that were implemented by educational mentors. The aid agencies and the displaced have jointly run the policies of education programs in the Kakuma Camp smoothly. As a result of the joint coordination policies, the education program has followed the Kenyan Education System of 8-4-4 systems. The study equally found out that accessibility in the camp reached a high standard because education was widely available to all for both children and adults. Based on the analysis of the children's education in the Kakuma Camp, it was concluded that the quality of education in the camp was better than what the outsiders assumed. Therefore, the study concludes that without a strong leadership from the international community to support the aid agencies in the camp, a successful education for the displaced children would not be achieved.

In a study by OCHA (2010) titled –Overview of education situation for IDP children in Chad‖ which set to compare the rate of education enrolment before and after displacement. The study collected data from two basic sources. The primary source was with questionnaires administered to the school-aged children in the camps while the secondary source was from available data from several departments. The findings of the research showed that a total of 185,000 IDPs reside show that between 61 and 67 percent of the school-aged IDP children were not enrolled in school in August 2008 and 90 percent of the population in the region suffer from extreme education poverty. However, this enrollment rate actually demonstrates a decrease in the out-of-school population from 89 percent a year earlier. The study showed that for many of the internally displaced children, there was no school in their village of origin either, so moving into UNICEF-managed displacement camps have actually increased their opportunity to access formal education. The study concludes that educational enrolment in the camp among the displaced children is high. The study, therefore, recommends that educational facilities be provided in the villages by both the governmental and other stakeholders in other to ensure return and resettlement of the IDPs in order to ensure the children continue their educations.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework is a device or a scheme for adopting or applying assumptions, postulations, and principles of a theory in the description and analysis of a research problem. As the fulcrum for analysis, However, the Obligatory Humanitarian theory was adopted as the theoretical formulation that guided the analysis of the discussions of this study.

Within anthropology and normative public administration, the origin of moral obligation in the assistance of others can be traced to the work of Carolyn Pope Edwards (1985) and Ronald Cohen (1989). In the first instance, Edwards (1985) creatively addressed the issue of ethical discourse. Couched within a discussion of ethical relativism, the author stressed the importance of understanding and comparing discourses associated with rights and morals. One key issue is the author's cogent statement of the following, ‗Ethical discourse' can be defined as a string of…arguments containing ‗moral statements' (statements about *what* actions or attitudes are obligatory or virtuous) and/or ‗ethical statements' (statements about *why* those actions or attitudes are morally right or wrong)‖. In the second instance, Cohen (1989) built his argument upon considerations of human rights and cross-cultural variations in their interpretation. Both these authors stressed early-on that the use of empirical, case-based data is essential.

At the more immediate and more practical level of the specific organization, moral structure also plays a very important role. Even in the best of circumstances, an organisation's mission is not simply stated, then carried out. There are a variety of intervening steps (often expressed as goals, objectives, and tasks) that serve to turn the mission into reality. Planning, organisation, and implementation, it is argued, are best conducted within a precisely articulated moral frame. A moral framework, in this context, should be constituted in a discourse among key stakeholders that makes clear the distinctions among the different levels of thought that go into transforming an ideal mission into a practical operation.

A theory of obligation can be centered around one foundational assumption: that there exists a moral imperative to aid the structurally dispossessed and functionally abused. Other theories of obligation might emphasis different, more utilitarian approaches. This theory does not think to entertain a highly controversial assumption. Indeed, the moral imperative to assist others has been codified in international human rights laws which have been widely ratified and have garnered global (even if often rhetorical) attention and support (Donnelly 2006).

In turn, a theory of obligation structures response to the moral imperative to give aid. At its simplest, the obligation is found in basic human interactions and expectations. Friendship entails obligation, often accompanied by feelings of gratitude. Gratitude, in turn, is expressed for acts of kindness (Epstein 2006). Such understandings provide a framework within which can operate ethically and effectively not only in everyday

interactions but to benefit the dispossessed and abused and to guarantee their human rights. Thus the theory of obligation has two major components: a moral/ethical element which informs decisions as to which issues are appropriate for humanitarianism and which actions are morally permissible in pursuing them; and a pragmatic element which guides in evaluating the most effective use of available resources. The overlap between the two components, the morally possible and the materially possible, consists of those actions that are obligated, as representatives of humankind, to pursue.

When evaluating what actions are materially possible, it is of primary importance to recognise the need for pragmatism: the acknowledgment of real-world conditions that constrain actions and impact the results of those actions, coupled with the acceptance of the idea that the value of ideas and actions is found in their real-world consequences. As it is obviously physically impossible to resolve every humanitarian issue at once, setting realistic, achievable goals that can be met on the ground is vital (Smillie and Minear 2004). Sustainability is key in this respect: to be pragmatic, one must choose initiatives that are able to be supported and sustained over time. Sustainability depends on access to reliable resources, the presence of staff and/or volunteers who are sufficiently committed to the mission, and an –indigenous connective-ness‖ to the mission in order to address felt needs. Thus workable solutions are context-based.

One key characteristic of humanitarian assistance, it is assumed, is to facilitate the empowerment of beneficiaries. Prioritizing felt needs above institutional concerns ensures that the individual remains the central concern of humanitarianism. While this seems to be a basic concept, it is one that is easily lost in the bureaucratisation of many large humanitarian organisations. The work of Harrell-Bond (2002) highlights one important reason why the felt needs of IDPs, in particular, are often considered secondary to institutional needs. Harrell-Bond (2002) argues that humanitarian organisations compete against each other for donor funds and thus for their institutional survival; the motivation for institutional survival in a competitive environment makes humanitarian organisations more sensitive to their responsibilities towards donors than towards beneficiaries:

Harrell-Bond (2002) advocates moving responsibility, and funding, for IDPs away from humanitarian organisations and into the national and local governments of host countries where it could be run in a fashion similar to other social services. However, the theory argues, if international aid is still to be the primary source of IDPs funding, the issue of external accountability is not necessarily relieved, it is merely shifted. Instead of humanitarian organisations competing for funding, national and local governments would do so.

If a key characteristic of humanitarian assistance is the empowerment of others, as the theory contend, then aid decisions must incorporate the needs and desires of the intended beneficiaries. Today, however, much aid is structured in such a way that the needs and desires of donors are paramount, further disempowering aid recipients as they are forced into disadvantageous situations within the service structure of the humanitarian organisations themselves. The theory believes that humanitarian organisations are indeed best positioned to offer aid in most circumstances; the challenge is to make their programs flexible and focused on recipients‗ (i.e., intended beneficiaries') felt needs.

Finally, when implementing programs and policies, the network of service providers and associated infrastructure also must be considered. These networks are an integral part of the local context that structures humanitarian action. Verdirame and Harrell-Bond (2005) argue that the social context includes a multiplicity of actors, each standing in a particular relationship of power vis-à-vis the other, which the study assumed it was necessary to unravel. An assumption that studying humanitarian organisations required not only examining the policy documents emanating from ‗headquarters' but also the practices of regional and local offices down to the actions of individuals working at the (IDPs) camp level (Verdirame and Harrell-Bond, 2005).

In many humanitarian situations, and especially in refugee and IDPs situations, there are a multiplicity of aid organisations, governmental actors, and local actors that form a complex web of service providers and service obstructers. Over 400 were operating in Afghanistan as at 2000. Unraveling this web requires a great deal of local knowledge including a solid understanding of the motivations of various actors and the likely real-world, pragmatic impact of proposed actions on the local population. It is a vital task. In the context of limited resources and a finite amount of infrastructure, understanding who has the capacity and the willingness to perform which tasks enables greater efficiency in resource distribution. It also allows humanitarians to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the existing networks so that they can be further developed to benefit people at risk.

Application and Relevance of the Theory

This theory is relevant to this study in so many regards. In the first instance, when situated within the context of this study, the management of IDPs in Borno state requires economic, cultural, ethnic, psycho-social, and geopolitical boundary crossing in two regards. First, the prevailing security situation in Maiduguri is such that agencies in the management of IDPs most especially, for the NGOs most especially will not strive, however, the situation is different as both the government and NGOs have maintained contacts despite difference in culture, language, and geographical locations, with IDPs both in camp and outside camps in

Maiduguri. In the other instance, the financial commitment to people in need, buttress the point that the theory is simply in the right direction as far the study is concerned.

A key component of the theory that makes it more relevant to this study is that it sees the management of the vulnerable as more of a right than a privilege. Humanitarianism is equated to human right in this study. The main element of a human right within the prism of this study as they affect the IDPs include; Attention to needs and rights of vulnerable groups, freedom of discrimination through consultation, participation, accountability, human right consistencies and progressive realisation. The theory sees the management of IDPs not as a privilege but as a fundamental human right. Therefore policymakers owe it a duty to ensure that they fulfill the constitutional obligation of protecting human rights which is contrary to a violation of the law.

Another key assumption that makes the theory more relevant is in the aspect of the moral framework as it relates to the ―should, would and could‖ paradigm for which all the organisations in the management of IDPs are guided by accordingly. At the ―should‖ level, both the government and the NGOs are obligated to act not necessarily because the law requires them to both because it is expected that they should act in support of the vulnerable. However, what is more, important is what the organisation could do. At the more practical level, the moral imperative to help the structurally dispossessed and functionally abused is critical to this theory. This assumption place more emphasis on the management of IDPs as a moral obligation than rights. The moral imperative to assist others has been codified in The Guiding Principle which translated in the Kampala Convention and National Policy on IDPs that obligated both the Government and NGOs to manage IDPs.

Finally, this theory is relevant to this study because of the requirement of inter-agency collaboration. There must be a web of humanitarian actors synergising to avoid repetition and waste to enhance the capacity of the IDPs. In the context of limited resources and a finite amount of infrastructure, understanding who has the capacity and the willingness to perform which tasks enables greater efficiency in resource distribution. In this regard, government and NGOs have been working together to ameliorate the plight of the displaced persons in camps and host in Maiduguri, Borno state.

III MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study was conducted in Maiduguri. Maiduguri otherwise known as Yerwa is a home of peace, it is the capital and the largest city of Borno State in North Eastern Nigeria. The city sits along the seasonal Ngadda River which disappears into the firkin swamps in the area around Lake Chad. It was founded in 1907 as a military outpost by the British. Maiduguri replaced Kukawa as the new traditional capital city. It has as an estimated population of 1, 197, 497 by 2009 (The World Gazetteer, 2010), and it is the most populated council in the state with the highest density of 1, 738 people per square kilometers (2006 population census). Maiduguri was a city of opportunities, with a beehive of activities in almost all its markets during the day and Nightlife to cool and ebb away the troubles of the day at spots that dot every corner of the city at Night. It was for nothing that it became the capital of the Northeast of Nigeria. For a people that have produced some of the brightest heads that have played significant roles in the Nigerian project, with a rich history that dates back to the saifawa dynasty that produced the El-Kanemis and the Mais, Maiduguri was not a second-class capital in the comity of capitals. Indeed, it predates virtually every other capital in Nigeria. Majority of its people speak Kanuri, a language that takes its root north of Africa. They love their home so much that they seldom traveled out of it.

The city has witnessed a drastic exodus of residents due to the lingering Boko Haram conflict, it has been said that not more than a quarter of its population was depleted before 2012. But with the influx of IDPs, the capital city is today almost bursting at the seams a

s its population density now hiked up to about three million people. Major streets of Maiduguri are congested all day, as both new and old residents try to get to one part of the city or the other. Most of the IDPs are not restricted in the camps; they are free to move around the township only to return back to the camp for meals or sleep at night. The situation has since doubled the job of the security agencies in the state capital, which have to painstakingly keep watch on movements of persons and ensure that no one tries to get in trouble or cause trouble for others.

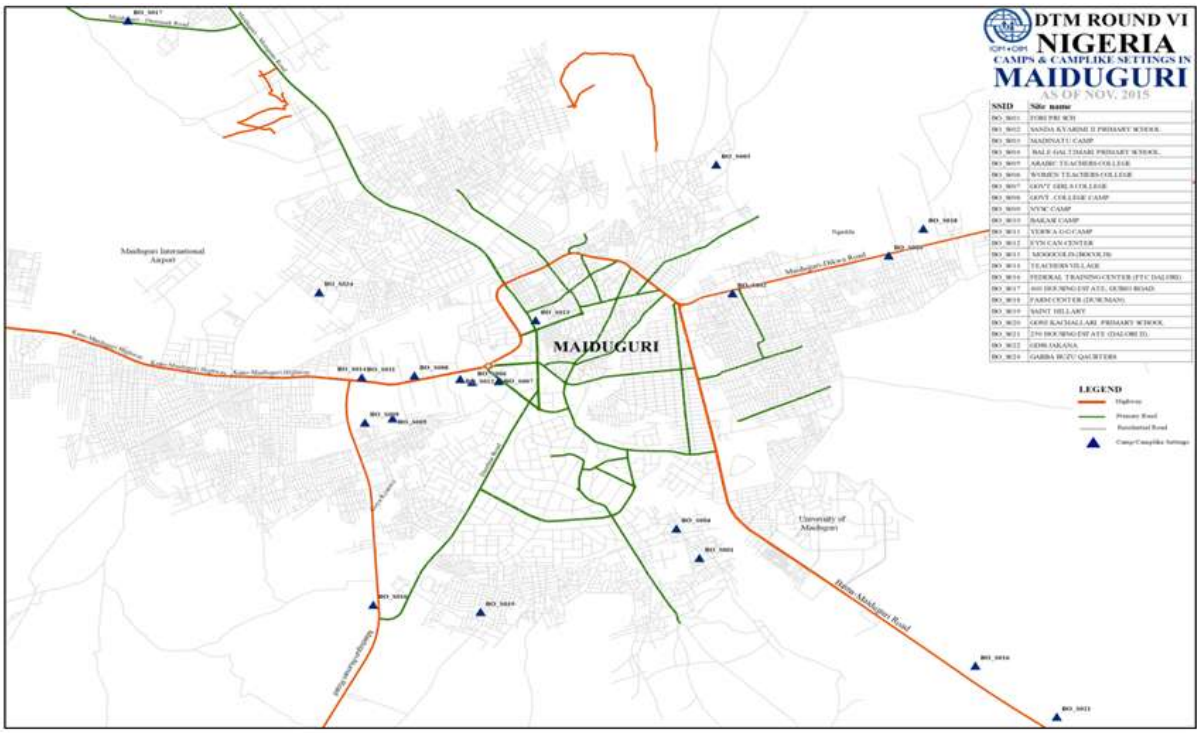

Fig. 3.1: Map of Maiduguri Showing the Locations of IDPs

3.2 Sources of Data

The sources of data for this study are both primary and secondary. The primary source was obtained from response of government officials, NGOs, and IDPs while secondary data were from textbooks, documents from NEMA, SEMA, and journals.

The population of the study comprises of a governmental official, NGOs, and IDPs. The first category of the population consists of a staff of NEMA, Borno SEMA, the staff of Ministries of health, and education, security personnel and civilian JTF totaling 1973. The second category of the population is 45 NGOs in Maiduguri. The last category of the population consists of 64065 adult registered IDPs living in official camp; and 34642 living in unoficial camp.The total population of IDPs as at the time of data collection is 98,707 (August 2017). The total population of the study is 100695 (SEMA, 2017). However, it is important to note that camp setting is dynamics.

The sample size for the study is of 333 officials of government agencies (obtained using Yamane Formula), 398 IDPs (obtained using Yamane Formula) and 16 NGOs (purposively obtained). The sample is 747. A multistage sampling technique was adopted to select the sample. Simple random sampling technique and proportionate sampling techniques were applied to select 333 government officials of camps (both official and unofficial). Purposive sampling technique was used to select All NGOs that have been in Maiduguri since 2014 whose core competencies are within the scope of this study. Convenient and proportionate sampling technique was used to select 398 IDPs based on the local government and camp location. Cells for the Focus Group Discussions were constituted as follows. A group of 7 members was constituted as a cell, however, where the group number is less than 7 it was considered as a group. The selection of the IDPs for each of the groups was done conveniently while taken note of their demographic characteristics. A total of 60 groups were selected for the Focus Group Discussion (FGD).

The study is a survey research and data was collected using four major instruments; Questionnaire, interview, focus group discussion, and participatory observation. The questionnaire was distributed to camp officials (government agencies); the interview was conducted with non-governmental organisations, while Focus Group Discussion was conducted with the IDPs

The data collected in this study was analyzed by both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics consisted of percentage, frequency distribution, tables, bar charts and pie charts which were used for presentation of data. The inferential statistics that were used are Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and chi-square. This was tested using statistical packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20

IV RESULTS AND DISCUSION

This section presents data collected from governmental agencies, NGOs and IDPs. The data is presented in sections A, B, and C. Section A highlighted the analysis of the responses of the governmental agencies; section B, on the other hand, presented the interview conducted while section C dealt with data on FGD.

Inter-agency collaboration and Provision of Education to IDPs in Borno state

This section dwells on the research question which states that; how has inter-agency collaboration enhanced the provision of accessible qualitative education to IDPs in Borno state? The variables that are examined below provide the answer to the research question.

i. Education and Displacement

The researcher sought to know from the respondents whether the curriculum for the IDPs is designed by all agencies involved in the provision of education to meet the needs of the IDP children. The study also enquired to know from the respondents whether educational facilities are provided and maintained by both the government and NGOs. This is with the view to knowing the extent of collaboration in the provision of educational facilities to the IDPs. The principles for the management of the IDPs in terms of education require strong synergy in the provision of teachers for the IDPs. The study, therefore, enquired to know from the sampled population who are government official whether collaboration has enhanced the quality and quantity of teachers. This is with the view to knowing the extent to which agencies have collaborated in ensuring the supply of teachers.

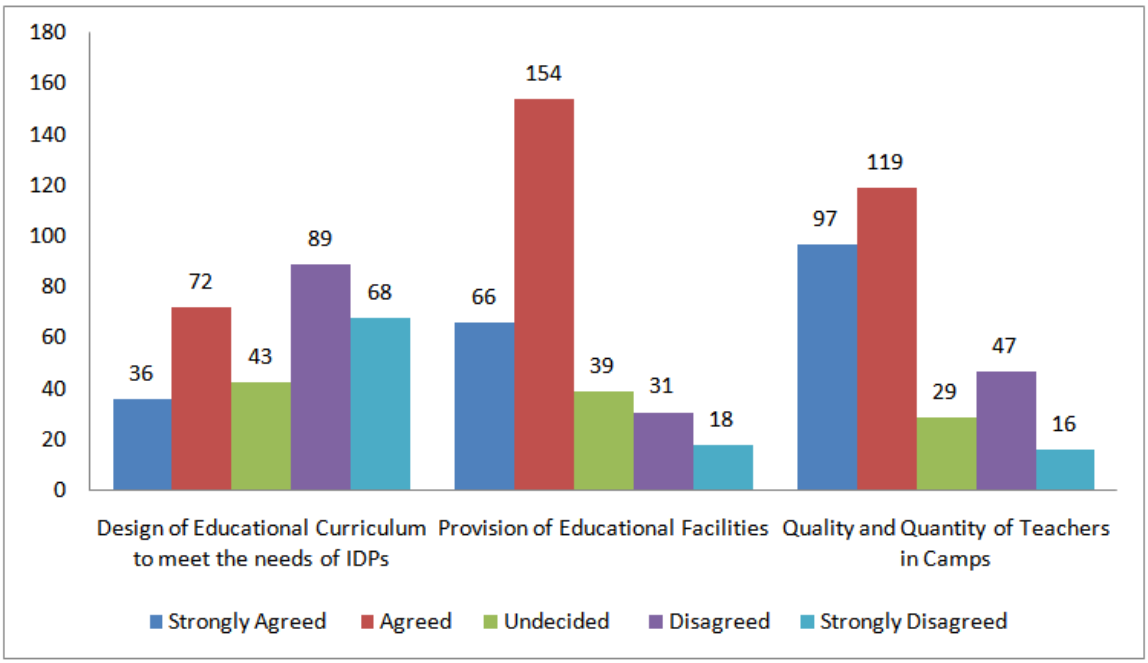

Figure 5.7: Education and Displacement

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Figure 5.7 shows the level of involvement of agencies in the development of educational curriculum to meet the needs of the IDP children. The result shows that 36(12%) and 72(23%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that all agencies are involved in the development of the curriculum. It also shows that 89(29%) and 68(22%) disagreed and strongly disagreed in the involvement of all stakeholders in the design of the curriculum. The inference from the result showed that stakeholders are not involved in the development of educational curriculum especially as regards the responses from the Ministry of Education (Teachers). The implication of the finding is that the curriculum used in the school does not cater to the specific needs of the IDPs.

The result from the figure also shows the extent of collaboration between governmental agencies and NGOs in the provision and maintenance of educational facilities in the camp. The figure shows that 66(21%) and 154(50%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed that educational facilities are provided and maintained by both the government and NGOs. It also shows that 31(10%) and 18(16%) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that educational facilities are provided and maintained by both the government and NGOs. Analysis of the result showed that educational facilities are provided and maintained by both the government and NGOs.

Furthermore, the figure shows that 97(31%) strongly agreed that collaboration has enhanced the quality and quantity of teachers supplied to the IDP schools, 119(39%) agreed that collaboration has enhanced the quality and quantity of teachers, 47(15%) disagreed that collaboration has enhanced the quality and quantity of teachers and 16(5%) strongly disagreed that collaboration has enhanced the quality and quantity of teachers. Analysis of the finding showed that there is an effective collaboration between the government and NGOs which has enhanced the quality and quantity of teachers. The implication of the finding is that there isa sufficient number of teachers for the IDP camps supposing a quality education.

ii. Level of Access to Education by IDPs before Terrorist Attacks

The researcher sought to know from the respondents whether IDPs have access to education before their displacement. This is to test the hypothesis that states that there is no significant difference between access to qualitative education before displacement and during displacement of the IDPs.

Table 5.4: Level of Access to Education by IDPs before Terrorist Attacks

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Agreed	94	31
Agreed	82	27
Undecided	22	7
Disagreed	41	13
Strongly Disagreed	69	22
Total	308	100

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 5.4 shows the level of access to education before displacement. The table shows that 94(31%) and 82(27%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that IDPs have access to education before the displacement, while 41(13%) and 69(22%) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that IDPs have access to education before they were displacement from their various homes of original habitation. The analysis of the finding showed that majority of IDPs pointed out that their children have access to education before being displaced. The implication of this finding is that IDPs in Maiduguri have had contact with education presupposing that most of the locality in Borno state enjoys the presence of public schools and that the IDPs are in the process of continuing their education.

iii. Level of Access to Education by IDPs during Emergency

The study enquired to know from the respondents whether inter-agency collaboration has enabled the majority of the IDPs in getting the formal education.

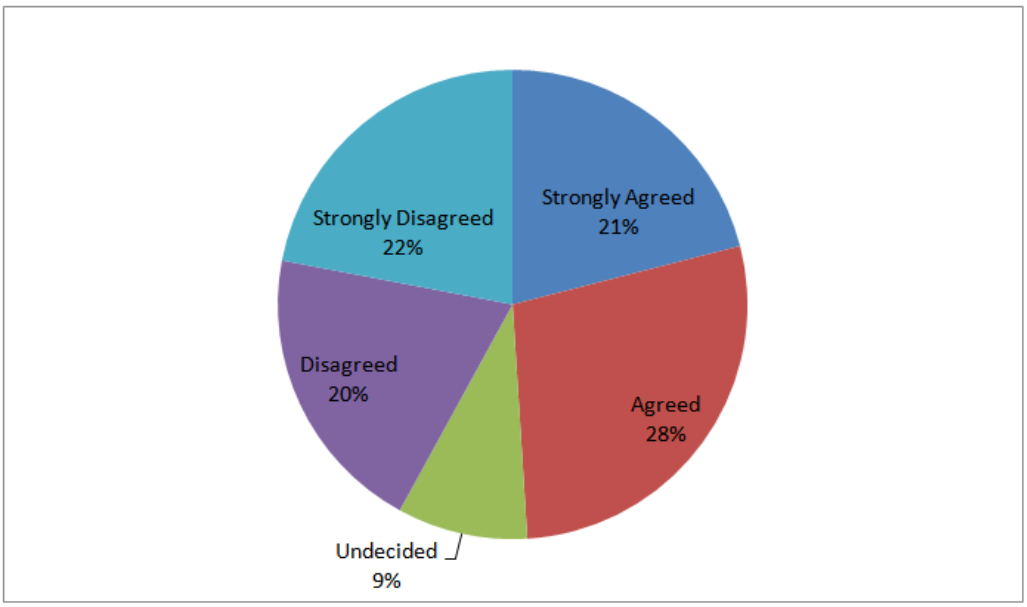

Fig. 5.8: Level of Access to Education by IDPs during Emergency

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Figure 5.8 shows the effort made collaborative to ensure access to education by the IDPs. The figure shows that 64 (21%) and 87(28%) of the respondent strongly agreed and agreed respectively that inter-agency

collaboration has enabled the majority of the IDPs in getting the formal education. It also shows that 27(20%) of the responden are undecided as the effort of inter-agency collaboration enabling the majority of the IDPs in getting a formal education. Equally the figure shows that 63(20%) and 67(22%) disagreed and strongly disagreed that IDPs have access to education. The inference from the result points out that Inter-agency collaboration has enabled the majority of the IDPs in getting the formal education. The implication of the finding is that agencies have put up measures to ensure access to education by the IDPs in Maiduguri, Borno State.

Section B

The presentation of the interview was done here based on interaction with the heads of NGOs based on their core competencies (areas of specialization). The discussion that follows presented the overall view of the NGOs on inter-agency collaboration and the management of IDPs in Maiduguri

How has inter-agency collaboration enhanced the provision of accessible qualitative education to IDPs in Borno state?

This section answers the research question that states that; how has inter-agency collaboration enhanced the provision of accessible qualitative education to IDPs in Borno state? Of the 16 NGOs selected only four were interviewed on the provision of education to the IDPs. These NGOs include the following; IOM, UNICEF and Save the Children. The discussions that follow provide the answer to the question.

i. Provision of Education Facilities

The researcher sought to know from the interviewee to give detail on whether the educational facilities for the IDPs are provided by inter-agency collaboration. This is with the view to knowing if facilities provided and the extent to which these facilities are provided by the agencies responsible for the educational management of IDPs in Maiduguri, Borno state.

Interview 5.13: Provision of Education Facilities

The researcher found out from the interviewee that in each of the official camp, schools are provided and maintained by both the government and designated NGOs. According to one of the interviewee, there is a high level of collaboration among agencies in the provision education to the children in the camp. NGOs provide instructional materials and facilities while the government provides the personnel/teachers to handle the children. The makeshift classes are provided by UNICEF, IOM and Save the Children. The children are provided with facilities and Uniforms and the education provided to them is free of charge. However, IDPs children in un-official camps rely on the host communities for the education. The parents pay the school fee (PTA) and provide books and uniforms for their children and wards. The inference from the interview suggests that education facilities are provided by the government and NGOs in official camps while this is not the case in unofficial camps. The implication of the finding is that while IDP children have access to education, those in un-official camps may not have the capacity to attend school.

ii. Designing Curriculum to cope with the needs of IDPs

The researcher sought to know from those interviewed whether the curriculum for the IDPs is defined by agencies providing the education. This is with the view to knowing if the curriculum is designed to meet up with the current needs of the IDPs based on the requirement for the management for the IDPs as specified by the principles.

Interview 5.14: Designing Curriculum to cope with the needs of IDPs

The researcher found out that the interviewees were unanimous in pointing out that they use the existing curriculum obtainable in all Nigerian schools to teach the children. The only things done are to empower the teachers on new teaching methods to cater for the peculiarities of the IDP children. Analysis of the interview pointed out that the curriculum for the IDPs is not defined by agencies providing the education. The implication of the finding is that the curriculum used in teaching the children does not take care of their current needs.

iii. Provision Teachers for IDP camp schools

The researcher enquired to know from the interviewee whether Collaboration has enhanced the quality and quantity of teachers. This is with the view to understanding the nature and dimension in the supply of teachers to IDPs school.

Interview 5.15: Provision Teachers for IDP camp schools

The finding of the interview suggests that there is a high level of synergy among the agencies in enhancing the quality and quantity of teachers supplied to IDP schools. The interview showed that teachers are provided by the government in a high number; this is because teachers from all the local government are mandated to teach in schools designated for their local government. To ensure the improvement in their quality, both the government and NGOs conduct regular capacity building training for the teachers. From the analysis of the interview, it can be said that teachers in official schools are provided in large quantity and are qualified to offer educational services to the children. The implication of the finding is that the children are provided with quality education.

iv. Access to Education before Terrorist Attacks

The researcher sought to know from the interviewees that based on their record, whether IDPs do not have access to education before their displacement. This is with the view to testing the hypothesis that states that there is no significant difference between access to qualitative education before displacement and during displacement of the IDPs.

Table 5.9: Access to Education before Displacement

Items	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agreed	0	0
Agreed	0	0
Undecided	0	0
Disagreed	2	67
Strongly disagreed	1	33
Total	3	100

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 5.9 shows that 2(67%) disagreed that IDPs do not have access to education before their displacement and 1(33%) strongly disagreed that IDPs do not have access to education before their displacement. Analysis of the table showed that IDPs have access to education before their displacement. The implication of the finding showed that IDPs have access to education and could tell of the difference in terms of quality of education before and during displacement.

v. Access to Education under Emergency

The researcher sought to know from the interviewee based their experience within Borno so far, whether the majority of the IDPs are getting the formal education for the first time. This is with the view to knowing if there is access to education before displacement.

Interview 5.16: Access to Education under Emergency

The finding of the interview showed that the IDP children are not getting an education for the first time. The IDP children have access to education in their local government before displacement. However, the quality of education is not sufficient as shown in the skills. Most of them are versed in Quranic education. Their level of spoken and written English is not adequate. In terms of access to western education, the majority of the children have attended schools in their locality. The inference from the interview indicated that majority of the children had access to education before displacement. Plate 5.5 shows the children in an educational facility during their break time in Gubio Road Camp, which is collaboratively maintained by UNICEF and the state government. The implication of the finding is that IDP children are not getting a formal education for the first this is because schools in the local governments in Borno state are functional before displacement or the terrorist attack of their settlement.

Plate 5.5: Children during break time in a school at Gubio Road Camp
Source: Field Survey, 2017

Provision of Education to IDPs in Borno state

This section dwells on the fourth research question which states that; how has inter-agency collaboration enhanced the provision of accessible qualitative education to IDPs in Borno state? This section engaged the IDPs with the view to know their perception about the provision of education to the IDP children.

FGD 5.14: Provision of Education Facilities

The researcher sought to know from the IDPs whether they are aware of who provides the facilities for education in their camps. The discussion showed that 380 (95%) of the IDPs are aware of who provide educational facilities to their children. The majority of the IDPs in official camp pointed out that both the government and NGOs are involved in the provision of educational facilities. Largely the NGOs have been providing their children with educational kits containing all the items needed by the children. Equally the government has through NEMA and SEMA provided the children with school uniforms and the education is free for all the IDP children. In the un-official on the other hand, no educational facilities exist except in Farm center where safe the children provide educational facilities. The children of the IDPs in such camps relied largely on the host communities for the education of their children. As a result of some identified factors such as being booed and bullied by the children of the children in the host communities and the lack of fund, most of the children do not attend schools. The inference from the discussion showed that educational facilities are provided by both the government and NGOs in official camp while those living in un-official camps relied on the schools in the host communities.

Displacement and Access to education

The researcher sought to know from the participants of the focus group discussion who are IDPs whether their children were not enrolled in school before displacement and during. This is with the view to testing the hypothesis that states that there is no significant difference between access to qualitative education before displacement and during displacement of the IDPs.

Table 5.14: Displacement and Access to education

Items	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agreed	62	16
Agreed	53	13
Undecided	27	7
Disagreed	146	37
Strongly disagreed	110	28
Total	398	100

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 5.14 shows that 62(16%), 53(13%), 27(7%), 146(37%) and 110(28%) strongly agreed, agreed, undecided, disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that children of the IDPs were not enrolled in schools before displacement. The inference from the finding showed that the children of the IDPs were enrolled in schools before the period of displacement. The implication of the finding is that the parents are in a good position to determine the quality of the education provided during and before displacement, which indicated access to education.

FGD 5.15: Access to Education during Emergencies

The study enquired to know from the participants whether inter-agency collaboration has enabled their children in getting the formal education during displacement. This is with the view to knowing the effort put in place by government and NGOs to ensure the continuation or access to education by the IDPs.

The finding of the discussion shows 347(87%) of IDPs indicated that the children have access to education during displacement. In all the official camps there are primary and Junior secondary education provided. The children in unofficial camps have access to education in nearby schools. The children from official camps are provided with all the facilities but those in unofficial camps have to buy. This has affected the level of enrolment among IDP children who cannot afford to buy books and uniforms and pay the PTA levy. In EYN camp, one of the participants said their children were cajoled and bullied by the children of the host community, which erupted into a fight and as such their children do not attend school and only very few could afford to send their children to school. Another participant coded as EYR7 said he has to sale his food ration to get one of his sons to school.

The education in the camps is mostly provided by both government and NGOs. While the NGOs provide the facilities the government provides the personnel. The teachers are adequate because the same teachers from the displaced local government areas are used in the camps. The inference from the finding showed that IDP majority of the IDP children in the official camp are enrolled in school while the majorities in the unofficial camps are not. The teachers and facilities are adequate. The implication of the finding is that collaboration among agencies has been effective in ensuring access to and continuation of education during displacement.

FGD 5.16: Satisfaction with Quality of education

The study enquired to know from the participants whether they are satisfied with the quality of education received by the children/wards when compared with the education received in their villages. The finding of the study reveals divergent views. Most of the IDPs in camps were satisfied with the quality of education received during displacement. This is because according to them their children now have access to educational materials and resources which were not available in the previous schools. Some also point out their children can now recite ABC and are taught in the English language. However, especially in Dalori camp I, Bakasi camp and EYN said that their children don‘t even attend the schools because of lack of impact. Initially, they were trying hard to educate them, but now the story is that of teachers only coming to school ones in a week because other days are used to look for daily bread because. The inference from the finding showed in the official camps, the quality of education is high, while in unofficial camp the quality of education is low. The implication of the finding is that qualitative education is provided for IDPs in Maiduguri.

Test of hypothesis

This Section analyses the hypotheses for the research, in which hypotheses was tested using Chi-Square as an.

Table 5.21: IDPs and Access to Education (Contingency Table IV)

Responses	Government Agencies	NGOs	IDPs	Total
Strongly agreed	94	0	62	156
Agreed	82	0	53	135
Undecided	22	0	27	49
Disagreed	41	2	146	186
Strongly disagreed	69	1	110	180
Total	308	3	398	709

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 5.21 is the contingency table which brings together responses of the officials of government, NGOs, and IDPs from tables 5.4, 5.9 and 5.14 respectively.

Table 5.22: ANOVA Summary of Access to Education

Source of variation	Sums of Square	DF	Means of squares	F	P
B/W_{SS}	13631.4	2	3407.85	2.31	< 0.05
W_{SS}	14723.3	12	1472.33		
T_{SS}	28354.7	14			

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Decision: The calculated value is 2.33 while the critical (table) value is 4.08. Therefore, the calculated value is less than the critical value and so the null hypothesis is accepted and concludes that there is no significant difference between access to qualitative education before displacement and during displacement of the IDPs. The implication of the finding is that IDPs have access to education before their actual displacement.

V DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

The importance of education to the life of the people can never be over emphasis. Education is vital for peace and tranquility in any society. Borno state has been under siege as a result of the activities of Boko Haram terrorist group. The study tested the hypotheses to know whether education was provided to the people before displacement. The result of the study accepted the null hypothesis and concluded that there is no significant difference between access to qualitative education before displacement and during displacement of the IDPs. The implication of the finding is that IDPs have access to education before their actual displacement. Principle 23(1) pointed out that every human being has a right to education. Therefore, children displaced or not have the right to education. The study found out in figure 5.4 with 176(57%) response of government officials that IDPs do have access to education before being displaced. This corroborates the response of NGOs in table 5.9 with 3(100%) agreement that IDPs have access to education before their displacement. Similarly, the response of the IDPs in table 5.14 with 322 (80%) opined that the children of the IDPs were enrolled in schools before the period of displacement.

The education provided during emergencies must take care of the special need of the people. The curriculum should be able to cater for needs of the displaced. Principle 23(2) of the Guiding Principle emphasized that education provided should respect their cultural identity, language, and religion as well as the issue of reintegration, rehabilitation and resettlement. The study assessed to know whether the curriculum used in teaching the displaced children are designed by the managers of IDPs with the view to catering the particular needs of the IDP children. The study found out in figure 5.7 with 157(51%) that stakeholders are not involved in the development of educational curriculum for the IDPs in Borno state. The response of the NGOs corroborates that of government agencies in interview 5.14 that the curriculum for the IDPs is not defined by agencies providing the education. The study found out that the national education curriculum is what used for the IDPs. The study corroborates the work of Jamil (2014) that education provided to the IDPs is not designed to provide the knowledge and skills necessary to facilitate a smooth reintegration process. Therefore, the education provided to IDPs does not cater for their special needs.

There are several IDP camps in Maiduguri and the conditions in Maiduguri permit the provision of education and facilities. Principle 23(4) of the Guiding principle (1998) and Section on the right of IDP children (k and l) of National Policy on IDP (2012) pointed out education and training facilities shall be made available to internally displaced persons by all stakeholders, whether or not living in camps, as soon as conditions permit. The study found out in figure 5.7 with 220(71%) response from government officials that educational facilities are provided and maintained by both the government and NGOs. Interview 5.13 which is the response of NGOs also found out that education facilities are provided by the government and NGOs in official camps while this is not the case in unofficial camps. The response from the IDPs in FGD 5.14 with 380 (98%) also found out that educational facilities are provided by both the government and NGOs in official camp while those living in un-

official camps relied on the schools in the host communities. Chuei (2010) points out that the effort made by the UNHCR and the aid agencies to make education accessible to all children has been the main priority of the aid workers in the camp. As a result of this commitment, the UNHCR has significantly reduced the shortage of educational facilities. However, according to Winthrop and Mendenhall (2006) in the existing camps for displaced populations, the quality of education accessible to IDPs lags far behind.

The study found out in figure 5.7 with 216(70%) response of government officials that there is an effective collaboration between the government and NGOs which has enhanced the quality and quantity of teachers. The study also found out in interview 5.15 with NGOs that teacher in official camps teachers are provided in large quantity and are qualified to offer educational services to the children, while IDPs in un-official camps relied on the host communities from the education of their children. The view expressed by the NGOs is supported by that of the ID Ps in FGD 5.14 that teachers and facilities are adequate and those in unofficial camp relied on the host communities. However, Wax (2004) shows that teachers are usually scarce as they too have been uprooted. This contradicts the finding of the study that points out that as a result of a commitment by both the government and NGOs, there is a high number of teachers in each of the official camps. The state government has mandated all the teachers from the various local governments to identify themselves to teach in the camps for their salaries to be paid. This has increased the number of teachers available in the camps.

It is estimated that of the more than 27 million children that lack access to education in emergency situations, substantial numbers are internally displaced (Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, 2004). Education during displacement can protect against exploitation and harm; offer structure, stability, and hope in a time of crisis; promote the acquisition of skills for life, and support conflict resolution and peacebuilding. The study found out in figure 5.8 with pointed out that Inter-agency collaboration has enabled the majority of the IDPs in getting a formal education during displacement. The study also found out from the NGOs in interview 5.16 that although some of the IDPs had access to education before their displacement a lot of the children are having access to education during displacement. The response from the IDPs in FGD 5.15 also indicated that 347 (87%) of the IDP pointed out that the IDP children in the official camps are enrolled in school while the majorities in the un-official camps are not. According to Jamil (2014) in 2006 approximately 48% of children of school age were not attending school in the Khartoum IDP camps. This contradicts the finding of the study that IDPs have access to education. Schmidt (2013), Chuei (2010) and OCHA (2010) points out that IDPs have more access to education in camps before they were displaced and that the enrolment figures of children in the camp have remained high. However, Lyod (2010) and Commission de Seguimento (2009) disagrees that IDPs have access to education in camps more before they were displaced.

VI CONCLUSION

Based on the summary of the findings, the study concludes that collaboration among agencies has protected the rights of IDPs .The study, therefore, concludes that inter-agency collaboration has been effective in the provision of basic education to IDPs in Maiduguri, Borno state.

On the issue of collaboration in the design of curriculum to suite the education needs of the IDPs it is concluded that the is collaboration between the government agencies and non-governmentalorganization .This is evident in the fact that the interviewees were unanimous in pointing out that they use the existing curriculum obtainable in all Nigerian schools to teach the children. The only things done are to empower the teachers on new teaching methods to cater for the peculiarities of the IDP children. Analysis of the interview pointed out that the curriculum for the IDPs is not defined by agencies providing the education. The implication of the finding is that the curriculum used in teaching the children does not take care of their current needs. On the question whether IDPs have access to education before the displacement it is concluded that there is no significant difference between access to qualitative education before displacement and during displacement of the IDPs. The implication of the finding is that IDPs have access to education before their actual displacement. Principle 23(1) pointed out that every human being has a right to education. Therefore, children displaced or not have the right to education

On the issue of satisfaction with the quality of education during the emergencies it is concluded that Most of the IDPs in camps were satisfied with the quality of education received during displacement. This is because according to them their children now have access to educational materials and resources which were not available in the previous schools. Some also point out their children can now recite ABC and are taught in the English language.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the forgoing the following recommendations became eminent: That the agencies should work out a workable curriculum for the education of the IDP children that should cater for the present needs of the IDPs and for their future needs when they return to their communities. This can be achieved, when all the

stakeholders will jointly designed curriculum that will not only cater for the sake of provision of education but also prepare the children for the future especially, the need return and resettlement.

Finally, a workable template should be worked among agencies to eliminate the barriers to collaboration especially as organizational capacity is concern. The international NGOs should partner with local NGOs with the view to promoting collaboration as well building their capacities. This is with view to enhancing the capacity of the NGOs to respond to emergencies in Africa.

REFERENCES

[1]. Amnesty International, (2002, October 6th). Afghanistan: –No one listens to us and no one treats us as human beings‖: Justice denied to women'. Refugees International, ‗Vulnerabilities faced by child and adolescent returnees,' *Refugees International Bulletin*.

[2]. Annan, K. (2005).Guiding Principles and national laws and policies. United Nations

[3]. Balikci, A. (2004). IDPs in Baku: A Qualitative Approach. *Report prepared for World Bank*. University of Montreal, Canada

[4]. Bensalah, A. (2000). Education in Situations of Emergency and Crisis: Challenges for the New Century.

[5]. Bilak, A., Cardona-Fox, G. Ginnetti, J. Rushing, E.J. Scherer, I. Swain, M. Walicki, N. &Yonetani, M. (2016).Global Report on Internal Displacement. Published by Internal Displaced Monitoring Center and Norwegian Refugee Council

[6]. Bradley, M. (2012).Kampala Convention Sets a Global Example for IDP Protection. *IDPs Survey.Quarterly*.29, p.6-11.

[7]. Brinkerhoff, J.M. (2002). Government-nonprofit partnership: a defining framework. *Public Administration & Development*, No.22: 19-30.

[8]. Chuei M. (2010) Analysis of the refugee children's education in the Kakuma refugee camp.*Educational Research and Reviews* Vol. 5 (6), pp. 292-297.

[9]. Clark, J. (1991). *Democratizing Development: The Role of Volunteer Organizations.* Sterling, Va.: Kumarian Press.

[10]. Cohen R. & Sanchez-Garzoli, G., (2001).*Internal Displacement in the Americas: Some Distinctive Features* Brookings Project on Internal Displacement.

[11]. Cohen R. (2006). *Forced migration: putting IDPs on the map; an achievement and challenges.* Brookings Institute, Washington, U.S.A.

[12]. Cohen, R. & Deng, F.(2001). *Masses in Flight: The Global Crisis of Internally Displaced Persons*. Brookings Institution Press: Washington, D.C.

[13]. Cohen, R. (1989). Human Rights and Cultural Relativism: The Need for a New Approach. *American Anthropologist* vol. 91(4):1014-1017.

[14]. Cohen, R. (2004). The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement: An Innovation in International Standard Setting, *Global Governance*, Vol. 10 (2004): 466.

[15]. Comisión de Seguimiento (2009). El reto ante la tragediahumanitariadeldesplazamientoforzado: *Superarlaexclusión social de la poblacióndesplazada.*

[16]. Convention Relating to the Status of Refugee (1951).

[17]. Deng F.M. (1994). Profiles in Displacement: Sri Lanka. *Refugee Survey Quarterly*, vol. 14, nos. 1&2.

[18]. Deng, F. M. (1998). The global challenge of internal displacement: *Journal of Law and PolicyVol 3*(2).

[19]. Donnelly, J. (2006). Human Rights.*In* J. Dryzek, B. Honig and A. Phillips (eds) *Oxford Handbook of Political Theory*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[20]. displaced persons in Abia state, Nigeria.*Libyan Journal of Medicine* Vol 4(1): 23–26

[21]. Epstein, J. (2006). *Friendship: An Exposé*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

[22]. European Roma Rights Center (2004). Report to Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe Supplementary Human Dimension Meeting on Internally Displaced Persons, Vienna, 4 November 2004.

[23]. F.A.R., IOM, IRC, Medair, MSF-F, OCHA, War Child, (19 January 2005). *Khartoum State Inter-agency Rapid Assessment Report*, pp. 24-5.

[24]. Faist, T. (1997). The Crucial Meso-Level.In T. Hammar, G. Brochmann, K. Tamas& T. Faist (eds.), *International Migration, Immobility and Development.Multidisciplinary Perspectives*. Oxford: Berg.

[25]. Famine Early Warning Network (FewsNet), (2014). Trip Report: Northern Nigeria. Joint Food Supply Assessment Mission Internet: http://www.fews.net/docs/Publications/1001220.pdf, accessed 21 April 2016

[26]. Fassin, D. (2005). Compassion and Repression: The Moral Economy of Immigration Policies in France. *Cultural Anthropology* 20(3):362-387.

[27]. Ferris E. & Winthrop R. (2010).*Education and displacement: assessing conditions for refugee and internally displaced persons affected by conflict*. The Brookings institutes.

[28]. Flynn, C., & Harbin, G. (1987).Evaluating inter-agency coordination efforts using a multidimensional, interactional, developmental paradigm. Remedial and Special Education, Vol 8(3): 35-44.

[29]. Fussell, E. (2012). Space, Time, and Volition: Dimensions of Migration Theory, in M.R. Rosenblum and D.J. Tichenor (eds.) *The Oxford Handbook of the Politics of International Migration*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[30]. G.T.I (2016).Global Terrorism Index. A Publication of Institute for Economics and Peace; www.economicsand peace.org (assessed March 13, 2016)

[31]. Gazley, B. and Brudney, J. (2007).The Purpose (and Perils) of Government-Nonprofit Partnership, *Nonprofit, and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, No. 36: 389-415.

[32]. Geoffroy A. D. (2007)from internal to international displacement in Sudan. The forced migration and refugee studies programme. The American University in Cairo, Egypt.

[33]. Georgia (2007).State Strategy for IDPs. Decree 47

[34]. Perspective, *International Migration Review*, Vol. 29(2): 317-351.

[35]. Guiding Principles of Internal Displacement (1998) UN doc. E/CN.4/1998/52/Add.2, 11 February 1998.

[36]. Harrell-Bond, B. (2002). Can Humanitarian Work with Refugees Be Humane? *Human Rights Quarterly* 24(1):51-85.

[37]. Human Rights Watch, (2003).Sudan, Oil and Human Rights.Available at <http://www.hrw.org/reports/2003/sudan1103/sudanprint.pdf>.Accessed on 23/05/2016

[38]. Ibeanu O. (1998). Exiles in their own homes: internal population displacement in Nigeria. African Association Political Science. Port-Harcourt, Nigeria.

[39]. IDMC (2014.a). Global Overview: people internally displaced by conflict and violence: Norwegian Refugee Council, Chatelaine,

Geneva.
[40]. Ifatimehin, O.O. (2014). Assessment of the level of implementation of Universal Basic Education (UBE) in Maiduguri, Borno State, Unpublished M.Sc Thesis, Borno state, University of Maiduguri.
[41]. Imasuen, E. (2015). Insurgency and humanitarian crises in Northern Nigeria: The case of Boko Haram. *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations*, Vol. 9(7): 284-296.
[42]. Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergency, (2004).The minimum standard for education. Preparedness, responses, recovery
[43]. International Labour Organization (ILO) & United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), (2006).*Youth employment and reintegration in Liberia*. ILO-UNHCR: Geneva.
[44]. IOM (2009). Monitoring and Needs Assessments–Assessments of Iraqi Return, *Monthly*
[45]. *Report.*
[46]. IOM (2014). The IDP situation in North-Eastern Nigeria: displacement tracking matrix report.
[47]. IOM (2016). The IDP situation in North-Eastern Nigeria: displacement tracking matrix report.
[48]. Jamil, K. (2014, January 11). South Darfur: 5 killed, 7 injured in attack on IDPs camp. *Khartoum paper*
[49]. Kaiser, F.M (2011). Inter-agency Collaborative Arrangements and Activities: Types, Rationales, Considerations. Congressional Research Service
[50]. Kälin, W. (2006).The future of the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, *Forced Migration Review Special Issue* Vol. 5(2).
[51]. Kampala Convention (2009). African Union Convention on the rights of Internally Displaced Persons.
[52]. Kamsalem, A., Ngbale, N., Dige M.A, &Ihekwoaba, M.C. (2016).An assessment of the effects of agencies functional coordination in relief administration to IDPs in Maiduguri Metropolis.Unpublished Undergraduate project, University of Maiduguri, Department of Public Administration, Maiduguri, Borno State
[53]. Ladan, M.T. (2006). Migration, Trafficking, Human Rights and Refugees Under International Law: A case study of Africa, Ahmadu Bello University Press, Zaria, Nigeria p9. 1-6 and 250
[54]. Linden, R. M. (2002). *Working across boundaries: Making collaboration work in government and nonprofit organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
[55]. Lloyd C. B., (2010). Schooling and Conflict in Darfur: A Snapshot of Basic Education Services for Displaced Children, *Women's Refugee Commission and the Population Council Manual on Field Practice in Internal Displacement* (United Nations: 1999), p. 49.
[56]. Mabogunje, A. (1970). Systems Approach a Theory of Rural-Urban Migration, *Geographical Analysis*, Vol. 2(1): 1-18.
[57]. Monsutti, A. (2005). *War and Migration: Social Networks and Economic Strategies of the Hazaras of Afghanistan*. New York: Routledge.
[58]. Mooney E. &Jarrah, B. (2005). Safeguarding IDP Voting Rights, *Forced Migration Review23* (May 2005).
[59]. Mooney, E. (2003). Introduction, *Forced Migration Review 17*, (April 2003). p. 5-6.
[60]. Multi-sectorial Assessment (2014).May-June IDMC Nigeria Multiple displacement crises overshadowed by Boko Haram.
[61]. Multi-sectorial Assessment (2015).May-June IDMC Nigeria Multiple displacement crises overshadowed by Boko Haram.
[62]. Muñoz, V. (2010)..*Protecting Human Rights in Emergency Situations*, inM.D. Kevin (ed.) *Even in Chaos: Education in Times of Emergencies*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution
[63]. Najam, A. (2000). The Four-C's of Third Sector-Government Relations: Cooperation, Confrontation, Complementarity, and Co-optation, *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, No.10(4), pp.375-396.
[64]. National Commission for Refugees, (NCFR).IDP Assessment in Nigeria. Internet:http://www.internaldisplacement.org/8025708F004CE90B/(httpDocuments)/4B10BF14F26F8871C125751C00472BE3/$file/IDP+assessment+-+NCFR.pdf, accessed 5th April, 2015
[65]. National Emergency Management Agency (2013).*Annual report*. Abuja: Yaliman press Ltd
[66]. National Policy on IDPs (2012).Domestication of the UN Guiding Principle and Kampala Convention. Draft Document submitted to National Assembly.
[67]. Nigeria Security Tracker (2016).–The Boko Haram Battle and Thousands of Deaths in North East Nigeria‖.Internet:http://www.nst.nen/Current-Affairs/Security Watch/Detail/?lng=en&id=105612 , accessed 10 August2016
[68]. OCHA (2010).Overview of education situation for IDP children, in Chad.*Norwegian Refugee Council*
[69]. OCHA (2014.a). Nigeria: Borno, Yobe, and Adamawa state of emergency.
[70]. OCHA (2014.b).Updates on IDPs in camps and host communities in Adamawa state, situation Report no-1.
[71]. OCHA, (2016). Annual Report: a year of challenges and unprecedented needs
[72]. OHCHR, (2005.b).*Report of the Representative of the Secretary-General on the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons: Mission to Nepal*, April 2005. (OHCHR: Geneva).
[73]. Ramanath, R. &Ebrahim A. (2010).Strategies and tactics in NGO-government relations.Insights from Slum Housing in Mumbai.*Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, Vol.21, No.1: 21-42.
[74]. Report of Special Rapporteur on the right to education, UN Doc. E/CN.4/2004/45/Add.2, 17 February 2004, para. 25.
[75]. *Report of the Secretary-General concerning the situation in Abkhazia, Georgia*, UN Doc. S/2000/697, 17 July 2000, para. 17.
[76]. Rivard, J., Johnson, M., Morrissey, J., &Starrett, B. (1998). The Dynamics of inter-agency collaboration: how linkages develop for child welfare and juvenile justice sectors in a system of care demonstration. *Journal of Social Services Research*, Vol. 25(3): 61-82.
[77]. Salkida, A. (2012). Counting the cost of Boko Haram crisis.http://desertherald.com/country-the
[78]. Save the Children, (2002). Annual Report on Humanitarian Assistance in Nigeria
[79]. Save the Children, (2003). State of the World's Mothers 2003.*Protecting Women and Children in War and Conflict* 5.
[80]. Save the Children, (2016). Annual Report on Humanitarian Assistance in Nigeria
[81]. Schmidt, C. (2013). Education in the Second Largest Refugee Camp in the World.*Journal of conflict studies* Vol. 2 (2).
[82]. .Sidi, M.M. (2015).*National Emergency Management Agency.Annual report*. Abuja: Yaliman press Ltd
[83]. Smillie, I. &Minear, L. (2004).*The Charity of Nations: Humanitarian Action in a Calculating World.* Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press.
[84]. Tseng, S. (2004). Inter-agency collaboration in early intervention: Participants' perspectives. Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Maryland, College Park in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
[85]. Turkey, (2006). Von providential action plan for responding to IDP needs
[86]. U.N.T.S. (2000, 15 Dec). Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children.*New York*.
[87]. Ugandan National Policy for IDPs (2004)
[88]. UN International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Right (1976)
[89]. UNAIDS. (2004). *2004 Report of the Global AIDS Epidemic*. Geneva, UNAIDS. Accessed online 14 November 2015 at: HTTP://

www.unaids.org/bangkok2004/GAR2004_pdf/UNAIDSGlobal-Report2004_en.pdf
[90]. UNDP (2016). Early recovery Programmein Northeast
[91]. UNHCR (2007.a). Educational response to HIV/AIDS for refugee and internally displaced persons: discussion paper for decision – makers, UNESCO education sector Division for the coordination of on priorities in education section on HIV and AIDS, Paris, France.
[92]. UNHCR, (2000).*Internally Displaced Persons: The Role of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees*. (UNHCR: Geneva), p. 3. Available at <http://www.unhcr.org/excom/EXCOM/3ae68d150.pdf>
[93]. UNHCR, (2007.a).*UNHCR's Role in Support of an Enhanced Humanitarian Response to Situations of Internal Displacement. Policy Framework and Implementation Strategy*, 4 June 2007. EC/58/SC/CRP.18. Available at <http://www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/refworld/rwmain?docid=4693775c2>.
[94]. UNHCR, (2007.c).*Internally Displaced Persons: Questions and Answers*. (UNHCR: Geneva), p. 4. Available at <http://www.unhcr.org/basics/BASICS/405ef8c64.pdf>.
[95]. UNICEF (2015).Nigeria response for internally displaced children and women in North-East Nigeria.
[96]. United Nations Association of Georgia (2000).*Cumulative Report on Education among IDPs*, p. 2. Available at: http://www.una.org.ge/research/idpedureport.pdf
[97]. Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). Article 26; International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Article 13(2)(a); and Convention on the Rights of the Child, Article 28(1)(a).
[98]. Wax, E. (18 August 2004) ‗Targeting the Teachers of Darfur,' *Washington Post*, p. A12.
[99]. WCRWC (2006)**.***Beyond Firewood: Fuel Alternatives and protection strategies for Displaced*
[100]. Winthrop, R. & Mendenhall, M. (2006).*Education in Emergencies: a Critical Factor in Achieving the Millennium Development Goals*, Commonwealth Ministers Reference Book.
[101]. Women Refugee Commission, (2007).*From the Ground Up: Education and Livelihoods in Southern Sudan* 3
[102]. Women's Commission for Refugee Women (2004). *Global Survey on Education in Emergencies* (February 2004), p. iii and p. 9.

Manpaaaliyumusa(Phd)." Interagency Collaboration and the Provision of Basic Education to Internal Displaced Persons (Idps) In Borno State, Nigeria." International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention (IJHSSI) 7.05 (2018): 35-57.