

BANDITRY IN NIGERIA AND THE TRAUMA OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN IDP CAMPS: MEDIA INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

Jacinta Chinenye, Igwe (M.Sc.)
chinenyjacinta895@gmail.com

Prof. Ifeyinwa, Nsude
ifeyinwansude@gmail.com

&

Dr Stephen Nwanchor, Elem
elemstephen@yahoo.com

Department of Mass Communication, Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki
Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities

Abstract

The number of women and children in Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camps in Nigeria has remained a social and economic problem to the wellbeing of the victims and national development. The purpose of this study was to explore the media intervention strategies used by journalists to ameliorate the experiences of the victims. The study employed online survey research method. It was anchored on Social Cognitive and Routine Activities Theories. Three research questions were addressed. A total of 388 respondents were sampled. The study found that the women and children displaced by the bandits in Northern Nigeria suffer various forms of trauma; the journalists in the Northern part of Nigeria employed different media intervention strategies; the media intervention strategies used in assuaging trauma in IDP camps were successful. The study recommended that the media should direct its campaigns toward making the displaced persons in IDP camps free from all forms of traumas in the camps; there is need for the media to explore more strategies that will be more effective in reducing the traumatic experiences of the people in IDP camps; the media should sustain its campaigns against trauma in IDP camps.

Keywords: Banditry, IDP, trauma, security, media

INTRODUCTION

Conflicts and disasters often cause large-scale displacement of people due to destruction of homes, properties and the environment (Ibrahim et al., 2024). These internally displaced persons (IDPs) are group of persons, who have been forced to leave or have been evacuated from their places of habitual residence, and who have not crossed an internationally recognised state border

(Owoaje, et al., 2016 as cited in Ibrahim et al., 2023) are accommodated in IDP camps. Majority of displaced persons may be women and children. Nigeria has had its fair share of displaced people as a result of political and ethno-religious conflict (International Committee of the Red Cross, 2016). Despite government efforts, the security situation in Nigeria is deteriorating.

This study explores the traumatic experiences of the displaced women and children who are victims of banditry and are accommodated in IDP camps. It does so against the backdrop of reports of increased bandit attacks on farms, markets, mining sites, villages and rural communities, and the rising tide of violent crimes in Nigeria, especially the northern region.

The questions this study seeks to answer are:

1. What are the forms of trauma the women and children displaced by bandits face in IDP camps?
2. What type of media intervention strategies do Nigerian journalists employ to assuage the traumatic experiences of the women and children in IDP camps?
3. To what extent has the media intervention strategies used in assuaging trauma among the women and children in IDP camp been successful?

The Problem

Trauma is a bad psychological experience which could cause other health related issues such as depression and mental illness. The displacement of people from their homes by the activities of bandits, terrorists and other insurgents in Nigeria has led to many Nigerians in the Northern region of Nigeria to live in IDP camps. Many studies have been conducted on banditry in Nigeria and the trauma of displaced people (e.g Morina, Akhtar, Barth & Schnyder, 2018; Olapeju & Adeniyi, 2020; Olapeju & Adeniyi, 2020; etc. However, only few of the studies to the best of the knowledge of the researchers paid attention to the traumatic experiences of the women and the children in the IDP camps in Nigeria, and media intervention strategies used to reduce the traumatic shocks of those in IDP camps. This present study was undertaken to close this gap in knowledge

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Banditry

Banditry refers to a set-up criminal activity deliberately designed and carried out for personal gains (Olapeju & Adeniyi, 2020). Due to the complex nature of bandits' activities, Egwu (2016) in a restricted manner, described banditry as a practice of stealing cattle and animals from herders or raiding of cattle from their ranches. In the same vein, Uche and Iwuamadi (2018) state that banditry is reflected in criminal escapades like cattle rustling, kidnapping, armed robbery, drug abuse,

arson, rape and the brazen and gruesome massacre of people of agrarian communities with sophisticated weapons by suspected herdsmen and reprisal attacks from surviving victims, a development that has been brought to the front burner of national security.

Shalangwa (2013) regards banditry as the practice of raiding and attacking victims by members of an armed group, whether or not premeditated, using weapons of offence or defense, especially in semi-organised groups for the purpose of overpowering the victim and obtaining loot or achieving some political goals. This definition is similar to that of Olaniyan & Yahaya (2016) that sees banditry as the occurrence or prevalence of armed robbery or violent crime; it involves the use of force, or threat to that effect, to intimidate a person with the intent to rob, rape or kill. Banditry thrives within the 'social ecology of the rural sector characterised by gross governance deficits. However, in Nigeria, banditry has undergone transformation from a mere act of sudden subtle attack on individuals, communities or organisations in order to take what they possess to violent and armed attack, kidnapping, and mass killings, taking over farmlands or even gaining control of the community as a whole, and imposing levy on them, rustle cows and other animals and take ransom as rescue fees for kidnapped victims.

In the context of this paper, we take banditry to mean the totality of incidences of armed robbery or allied violent crimes, such as kidnapping, cattle rustling, village raids as well as highway raids which involves the use of force, or threat to that effect, to intimidate a person or a group of persons in order to rob, rape, kidnap or kill the victims (Olafeju & Adeniyi, 2020; Okoli & Okpaleke, 2014).

Trauma in IDP Camps

Trauma encompasses the psychological and emotional response triggered when an individual undergoes or witnesses an exceptionally distressing event surpassing their coping capacity (Oshodi et al., 2013). This may involve incidents like accidents, violence, death, or war exposure (Adejumo & Daramola, 2019). The repercussions of trauma can be far-reaching, impacting diverse facets of an individual's mental and physical wellbeing. Psychologically, trauma may give rise to a spectrum of symptoms, including intrusive memories, flashbacks, nightmares, emotional distress, hyper vigilance, and heightened arousal responses (Atilola et al., 2015). On an emotional level, trauma can evoke intense feelings such as fear, sadness, anger, shame, guilt, and helplessness.

The physical aftermath of trauma varies, presenting as physical pain, fatigue, sleep disturbances, headaches, and alterations in appetite or weight (Oshodi et al., 2013). Socially, trauma can disrupt an individual's capacity to trust, establish, and maintain relationships, potentially leading to social isolation, withdrawal, and challenges in forming intimate connections (Oshodi et al., 2013). Jayne (2020) describes trauma as an emotional response to a terrible event like an accident, rape, or

natural disaster. However, a person may experience trauma as a response to any event they find physically or emotionally threatening or harmful. Not everyone who experiences a stressful event will develop trauma (Jayne, 2020). Some people will develop symptoms that resolve after a few weeks, while others will have more long-term effects.

A traumatised person may feel overwhelmed, helpless, shocked, or have difficulty processing their experiences. Trauma can also cause physical symptoms (Jayne, 2020). It can have long-term effects on the person's well-being. If symptoms persist and do not decrease in severity, it can indicate that the trauma has developed into a mental health disorder called post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). There are several types of trauma, including: acute, chronic trauma, complex trauma and secondary trauma, or vicarious trauma.

Security and Insecurity

Security is a term viewed by many people as the safety of persons or country from internal and external threats. However, many scholars view it from different perspectives. This makes the concept difficult to be accorded a universal definition. By implication, security has a wider meaning such as to feel safe, to be protected and it is used to describe a situation without any risks or worries (UNDP, 2002) as cited in Oghuvbu (2021). Security is broadly viewed as “freedom from danger or threats to an individual or a nation. It is the ability to protect and defend oneself, be it an individual or a nation, its cherished values and legitimate interests and the enhancement of well-being” (Mijah, 2007 cited Eugina 2013, p.60). Nwagboso (2012) cited in Adagbabiri and Okolie (2018, p.48) argue that security is “commonly associated with the alleviation of threat to the survival of individuals or groups”. Thus, security can be equated with freedom from present and future danger, harm or anxiety

On the other hand, insecurity is the absence of security. It expresses a state of fears emanating from uncertainty surrounding the protection of lives and property. Olapeju and Adeniyi (2020, p.4) described insecurity as “the state of being exposed to risk or anxiety, where anxiety is a vague unpleasant emotion that is experienced in anticipation of some misfortune”. From the explanation above, the phenomenon of security or insecurity implies both physical occurrence and psychological state of mind that constitutes a challenge to peace and development of both the individuals and the societies (Olapeju & Adeniyi, 2020). This definition adequately explains what insecurity is all about in the context of Nigeria and with a particular reference to the experiences of women and children in IDP camps. Women and the children in IDP camps in Nigeria are subjected to circumstances that create physical and psychological fears and trauma in their minds.

Displacement of Persons and Traumatic Experiences

In places where conflict, war, violence, and natural disasters are frequently observed, displacement from these areas to the safe zone is expected (Kett, 2005). Globally, more than 40 million people have been displaced from their primary living areas (United Nations Commission on Human Rights, n.d). With the war in Gaza and Ukraine, this number has more than double in 2024. A person or group of people who have been forced or obliged to flee or leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of most of the internally displaced people being

accounted for by human-made causes like wars, violence, and ethnic conflicts is said to have suffered displacement. The impacts of these events not only change socio-political structures but also have a lasting impact on people's migration (Morina, Akhtar, Barth & Schnyder, 2018).

Displaced persons in Nigeria are camped in makeshift structures in IDP camps for temporal stay. Most forced and prolonged displacements take place against the backdrop of resource-poor settings where social vulnerability, lack of adequate infrastructure along with loss of hope for the future can act to compound the already raised risks (Sigvardsson, Malm, Tinghog, Vaez, Saboonchi, 2016). When displacement takes place, victimised internally displaced persons experience a variety of mental health problems, particularly depression and post-traumatic disorders (Morina, Akhtar, Barth & Schnyder, 2018). More importantly, if the displacements are prolonged, the person will experience more behavioural problems (Norwegian Refugee Council, 2015). Those that are displaced are usually exposed to multiple types of traumatic events in their place of origin and during displacement. These events are often repeated, prolonged and interpersonal in nature and have been demonstrated to have a deleterious effect on mental health (Nickerson & Levy, 2011). The public health implication of this is, the psychological distress occurring in the post conflict environment also contributes to harmful health behaviours such as hazardous drinking, substance abuse, suicidal tendencies and increased smoking (Owoaje, 2016; Roberts, et al., 2009).

Media Communication Strategies for Trauma Victims

Effective communication with trauma victims is a delicate and nuanced process that requires a combination of empathy, cultural competence, and the establishment of trust. If the media people are to communicate effectively with trauma victims, certain strategies have to be adopted to ensure efficacy in the communication process. Communication strategies can include providing examples of successful coping strategies and stories of individuals who have overcome similar traumas. Trauma victims can learn from the experiences of others who have gone through similar circumstances. Sharing narratives of recovery and resilience can inspire hope and provide a sense of validation to trauma victims in Nigeria. (Hassan, Ibrahim, Abdulmumini, Amos, 2024).

Establishing trust has proven to be an effective strategy for communicating with trauma victims. Building rapport and credibility is foundational to effective communication with trauma victims. Demonstrating genuine empathy and interest in the individual's experiences is crucial, creating a sense of connection and understanding. Consistently conveying reliability and honesty builds a foundation of trust, assuring trauma survivors that their concerns are taken seriously (Foa et al., 2021).

Active listening has also been argued to be a cornerstone of effective communication with trauma victims. The media can draw the attention of the women and children in IDP camps to their programmes and influence their listening habits. This can help the victims learn from the media the ways they could reduce trauma in the camps. Acknowledging and validating the emotions expressed by trauma survivors fosters a sense of understanding and compassion (Hassan et al., 2024).

The media by encouraging trauma victims and making their messages empathic can encourage traumatized women and children in IDP camps to share their stories. Also, utilising reflective listening and asking open-ended questions are effective techniques to confirm understanding and encourage further expression. Psychoeducation is another strategy said to play a pivotal role in empowering trauma victims with information about the effects of trauma and available support services. Offering clear and accessible information about common reactions to trauma help normalise emotional responses and reduce feelings of isolation. Communicating that trauma is a natural response to distressing events and encouraging individuals to seek support as a strength rather than a weakness contributes to a supportive communication environment (Akinsulure-Smith, 2020; Foa et al., 2021).

Cultural competence as a strategy is integral to effective communication; recognising that cultural factors influence the expression and interpretation of trauma experiences is important. Acquiring cultural competence through education and awareness of diverse cultural backgrounds enhance communicators' ability to engage sensitively with trauma survivors. Adapting communication styles to align with cultural preferences and involving cultural leaders or guides facilitates a deeper understanding and bridges potential communication gaps (Hinton, 2015; Street, 2017; Odejide, 2021). In addition, through media modeling, trauma stricken victims in IDP camps can benefit from observing positive models and engaging in role-play scenarios.

Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on two theories: Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) and the Routine Activities Theory (RAT). The Social Cognitive Theory was developed by Albert Bandura in 1986. The theory provides a framework for understanding and supporting effective communication with trauma victims in Nigeria. SCT posits that individuals learn and develop behaviours based on observation, modelling, and reinforcement process (Hassan, Ibrahim, Abdulmumini, Amos, 2024).

SCT is related to the study in the sense that communication with trauma victims can be enhanced by employing the components of the theory which include: self-efficacy, modelling and vicarious learning and reinforcement. Also, by fostering a sense of self-efficacy, communication can empower trauma victims and facilitate their active participation in their healing. By Modeling, according to the theory, trauma victims can benefit from observing positive models and engaging in role-play scenarios. Vicarious learning, as a tenet of this theory, posits that trauma victims can learn from the experiences of others who have gone through similar circumstances. Sharing narratives of recovery and resilience can inspire hope and provide a sense of validation to trauma victims in Nigeria. (Hassan, et al., 2024).

However, the above theory was considered to be inadequate for this study as it fails to explain the motivational factors that enhance criminality. Hence we supported the theory with the Routine Activities Theory (RAT). RAT was pioneered by Cohen and Felson (1979) in an attempt “to understand patterns and upward trends of predatory criminal events in the historical context of changing economy (Hsieh and Wang 2018). The theory holds that crime is likely to occur when there is a spatial-temporal convergence of three essential elements of crime, namely a motivated offender, an attractive target, and the absence of capable guardianship (Tahir & Usman, 2020;

Tahir & Usman, 2020; Maxfield 1987). According to exponents of the theory, motivated offenders are individuals who are capable and willing to commit a crime while suitable targets can be a person or object that are considered by offenders as vulnerable or attractive (Tahir & Usman, 2020). On the other hand, guardianship can be a person or an object that is effective in deterring offense to occur. Mere physical presence of guardianship in space and time can deter crime committal (Tahir & Usman, 2020).

Applied to the purpose of the study, it is to be observed that armed banditry is a crime that has been precipitated and sustained by the prevailing socio-existential environment in the rural and urban societies characterised by a high proclivity to criminal indulgence like banditry. This is typically the situation in Nigeria but worse in northwest Nigeria where marauders and brigands are having a sustained field day in a criminal escapade that is threatening to overrun the entire region.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The study employed online survey design. Talentic Survey Software was used to develop online questionnaire and survey that enabled the respondents to easily navigate the survey interface on their own, and helped the researchers to gather responses, generate statistics and export the responses. The number of the respondents that responded to the questionnaire were sufficient and produced expected feedbacks. This method was considered the best way to get correct information from both the victims of banditry living in IDP camps and the journalists in the Northern part of Nigeria where bandits operate. The online method provided safety measures for the researchers as it was considered dangerous to make personal contacts with the respondents because of the security challenges and the heavy presence of security men who could prevent the respondents from making physical contacts.

Sampling Procedure

The population of this study was divided into three categories, the first category included adults and children living in IDP camps at Kaduna, Sokoto, Zamfara and Katsina; the second category consisted of persons who have been victims of armed banditry; the third group was the journalists who worked in the Northern part of Nigeria. A total of 388 respondents were sampled.

RESULTS

Table 1: Awareness of the Trauma in IDP Camps

Item	Response	Frequency	Percent
Are you aware of the existence of Trauma in IDP camps in Northern Nigeria?	Yes	388	100.0
	No	N/A	0.0

Do you experience Trauma in IDP camps	Yes	388	100.0
	No	N/A	0.0

Source: Field survey (2024)

As presented in Table 1, all the respondents (100%) surveyed indicated that they are aware of the existence of trauma in IDP camps. This suggests that they are informed on the research problem and are in position to supply answers that would address the research questions adequately. With a good knowledge about the problem under investigation, the respondents are better poised to offer valid opinion that helps to achieve the research objectives of this study.

Table 2: Knowledge of Media Campaigns against Trauma in IDP Camps

Item	Response	Frequency	Percent
Do you have any knowledge of Media Campaigns against Trauma in IDP Camps?	Yes	387	99.7
	No	1	2.9
Has the media messages to reduce trauma helped you in any way?	Yes	387	99.7
	No	1	0.3
Would you like to continue hearing such media messages?	Yes	378	97.4
	No	8	2.1
	NA	2	0.5

Source: Field survey (2024)

As indicated in Table 3, only 1 person (0.3%) indicated to not have knowledge of the media campaigns to reduce trauma in IDP camps. This number is insignificant, and therefore, implies that a wide range of knowledge of the media campaigns against trauma in IDP camps exists among the inmates of the camps. This implies that they can apply the knowledge to reduce trauma and depressions people experience in IDP camps in Northern Nigeria.

Journalists Result on Media Strategies

In the area of the media strategies the IDP camps trauma reporters employ, our respondents' journalists differed in the strategies that they use. However, majority of the respondents agreed that they make use of pictures to indicate to those in IDP camps can actually be happy. They accompany their stories with pictures of people in bad mood for long and those in good mood to draw a contrast that allowed the women and children experiencing trauma to think about and

choose the mood they preferred. They also report the health consequences of bad mood. Overall, we identified persuasion, moralisation, dramatisation, emotional appeals, canceling, building rapport and credibility, modeling, reinforcement and Trauma-informed care to be some of the media intervention strategies the journalists identified.

Discussion of Major Findings

The study found that the women and children displaced by the bandits in Northern Nigeria suffer various forms of trauma. The women in IDP camps experience different forms of mental health issues, especially depression. This finding is similar to that of Morina, Akhtar, Barth & Schnyder (2018) and the Norwegian Refugee Council (2015) which found that displaced women in IDP camps experienced a variety of mental health problems, particularly depression and post-traumatic disorders. For those that had prolonged displacements, they experience behavioral problems (Norwegian Refugee Council, 2015). This means that majority of the displaced women were not only aware of the prevalence of trauma in the camps or had the knowledge as shown in Tables 1 and 2 but also had their health jeopardised. Children on their own side suffer shocks that also have effects on their health. This agrees with the finding of Jayne (2020) that a traumatised person may feel overwhelmed, helpless, shocked, or have difficulty processing their experiences.

We also found that the journalists in the Northern part of Nigeria employ different media intervention strategies to reduce the effects of trauma or experiences that could lead to trauma among the women and children in IDP camps. In support of this finding, Hassan et al., (2024) study showed that mass media messages were used to provide IDP inmates with coping strategies, inspired hope, and provide a sense of validation to trauma victims in Nigeria. Responses from the journalists showed that they engage the victims with persuasion, moralisation, dramatisation, emotional appeals, canceling, modeling and reinforcement.

Finally, our study found that the media intervention strategies used in assuaging trauma among the women and children in IDP camps were successful. This is evidenced by the testimony of the displaced victims of banditry who were relocated to IDP camps. The major media intervention strategies identified were persuasion, moralisation, dramatisation, emotional appeals, canceling, building rapport and credibility, modeling, reinforcement and Trauma-informed care. Many of the respondents to our questionnaire said they have been able to sustain life because of the positive messages from the mass media and even the entertainments the media provide.

Conclusion

We conclude that the activities of bandits are horrific and disheartening with serious economic and social consequences on Nigeria. The displaced women and children are exposed to economic and social hardships that lead to trauma. The development is unacceptable and is synonymous to a state of war. Trauma is a bad experience and when children and women are subjected to it, the effects could live with them forever and chronic trauma could lead to death.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, we recommended as follows:

1. The media should direct its campaigns toward making the displaced persons in IDP camps free from all forms of traumas in the camps. .
2. There is need for the media to explore more strategies that will be more effective in reducing the traumatic experiences of the people in IDP camps.
3. The media should sustain its campaigns against traumas in IDP camps by improving on its persuasion, moralisation, dramatisation, emotional appeals, canceling, building rapport and credibility, modeling, reinforcement and Trauma-informed care strategies.

References

- Adagbabiri, M. M. & Okolie, U. C. (2018). Corruption and the Challenges of Insecurity in Nigeria's Fourth Republic. *Journal of political science and leadership research*, 4(3), 41 – 56.
- Adejumo, O. A., & Daramola, V. O. (2019). Trauma experiences and mental health of children and adolescents in Nigeria. *Mental health & prevention*, 13, 61-67.
- Akinsulure, A. (2023). The Rise of Drug Abuse in Internally Displaced Persons' Camps in Nigeria: in Okoli, A. C and Ngom. S. (2023). *Banditry and Security Crisis in Nigeria* (ed), [online] Available at: <https://www.routledge.com/Banditry-and-Security-Crisis-in-Nigeria/Okoli-Ngom/p/book/9781032395258#:~:text=Nigeria's%20banditry%20crisis%20and%20deepening,various%20forms%20of%20transnational%20crime.> [Accessed 26 March, 2024].
- Atilola, O., Oluwafemi, O. A., Ikuesan, B. A., & Balogun, O. W. (2015). Post-traumatic stress symptoms among adolescents in a Nigerian help-seeking sample. *Archives of psychiatric nursing*, 29(6), 387-392.
- Egwu, S. (2016). The political economy of rural banditry in contemporary Nigeria. In Kuna, M.J & Ibrahim, J (eds.). *Rural banditry and conflicts in northern Nigeria*, Abuja: Centre for Democracy and Development.
- Eugina, O. (2013). How to stop Terrorism in Nigeria. *JSOU Report*, 3(4), 108 – 117.
- Felson, M. & Cohen, L. E. (1980). Human ecology and crime: A routine activity approach. *Human ecology*, 8 (4), 389–406.
- Ferris, E. (2012). Internal displacement in Africa: An overview of trends and opportunities. In: Brookings - LSE Project on Internal Displacement - Conference Arlington, pp.1–12.
- Foa, E. B. Gillihan, S. J. Bryant, R. A., & Boscarino, J. A. (2021). Developing PTSD treatments that address the needs of trauma survivors in low-income countries. *Behavioural Research*, [online]. Available at: <https://www.google.com/search?q=Developing+PTSD+treatments+that+address+the+needs+of+trauma+survivors+in+low+income+countries.&dq=Developing+PTSD+treatments+that+address+the+needs+of+trauma+survivors+in+low->

- income+countries.&aqs=chrome..69i57.1269j0j7&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8#ip=1.
[Accessed 30 March, 2024].
- Hassan, J. T. Ibrahim, Z. A. Abdulmumini, A. & Amos, V. (2024). Towards Creating Effective Strategies for Communicating with Victims of Trauma in Nigeria, *TASAMBO journal of language literature and culture*, 3(1), 62-76.
- Hinton, D. E. (2015). Cultural adaptations of cognitive-behavioral therapy. *Psychiatric clinics*, 38(4), 691-707.
- Hsieh, M. and Wang, S. K. (2018). Routine activities in a virtual space: A Taiwanese Case of an ATM Hacking Spree. *International journal of cyber criminology*, 12(1), 333-352.
- Ibrahim, U. U, Aliyu, A. A, Abdulhakeem, O.A. Abdulaziz, M, Asiya, Sabitu, K.et al., (2024). Prevalence of Boko Haram crisis related depression and post-traumatic stress disorder symptomatology among internally displaced persons in Yobe state, North East. *Nigeria journal of affect disorders Rep.* [online]. Available at: <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2666915323001294>, [Accessed 30 March, 2023]. . doi: 10.1016/j.jadr.2023.100590.
- Ikström & Per-Olof (2019) Explaining Crime and Criminal Careers: The DEA Model of Situational Action Theory', *Journal of developmental and life-course criminology*, 6, 188–203.
- Internally Displaced Persons: Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, UN doc.E/CN.4/1998/53/Add. 2 1998.
- Jayne, I. (2020). What is trauma? What to know, [online]. Available at: <https://www.medicalnewstoday.com/articles/trauma>. [Accessed 16 March, 2024].
- Kett. M. (2005). Displaced populations and long term humanitarian assistance *BMJ*, 331, 98–100
- Koshe, T. Jarso, M. H, Walde, M. T, Ebrahim, J. Mamo, A, Esmael, A. Wedajo, L. F. Seife, S. Mohammedhusein, M. Nigatu, D. Debele, G. R. & Gezmu, W. (2023). A post-traumatic stress disorder among internally displaced people in sub-Saharan Africa: a systematic review. *Front Psychiatry*, [online]. Available at: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC10655091/pdf/fpsyt-14-1261230.pdf>, doi: 10.3389/fpsyt.2023.1261230. PMID: 38025413; PMCID: PMC10655091. [Accessed 30 March, 2024].
- Maigari, Y. T. Moses, D. A. Tungchama, F. P. Davou, F. J. Goar, G. S. & Christopher, G. P. (2010). Sociodemographic predictors of depression among survivors of armed conflict with posttraumatic stress disorder in Dogonahawa, North Central, Nigeria. *Jos journal of Med.* 11 (1), 1–16.
- Maxfield, M. G. (1987). Lifestyle and Routine Activity Theories of Crime: Empirical Studies of Victimization, Delinquency, and Offender Decision-making. *Journal of quantitative criminology*. 3 (4), 275–282.

- Mooney E. (2005). The concept of internal displacement and the case for internally displaced persons as a category of concern, *Refugee survey questions*, 24, 9–26
- Morina, N. Akhtar, A. Barth, J. & Schnyder, U. (2018). Psychiatric disorders in refugees and internally displaced persons after forced displacement: a systematic review. *Frontier psych.* 9, 433. doi: 10.3389/fpsy.2018.00433.
- Nickerson A. Liddell, B. Asnaani, A. Carlsson J, Fazel, M. Knaevelsrud, C. Morina, N. et al. (2011). Trauma and Mental Health in Forcibly Displaced Populations an International Society for Traumatic stress studies briefing Paper, [online]. Available at https://istss.org/getattachment/Education-Research/Briefing-Papers/Trauma-and-Mental-Health-in-Forcibly-Displaced-Pop/Displced-Populations-Briefing-Paper_Final. [Accessed March 29, 2024].
- Norwegian Refugee Council (2015). IDMC Global Overview 2015, *People Internally Displaced by Conflict and Violence*, pp. 210–239.
- Norwegian Refugee Council (2016). *IDMC Global Report on Internal displacement (GRID)*. 8–13
- Oche, O. (2001). Democratisation and the management of African security, *Nigerian journal of international affairs*, 13(1), 1-12
- Oghuvbu, E. A. (2021). Security and the Challenges of Securing Nigerian State, *Turkish journal of computer and mathematics education*, 12(3), 3924-3930.
- Okoli, A. C. & Okpaleke, F. N. (2014). Banditry and crisis of public safety in Nigeria: Issues in national security strategies. *European scientific journal*, 10(4), 350–62
- Olafeju. R. M. and Adeniyi, O. P. (2021). The impact of banditry on Nigeria’s security in the fourth republic: an evaluation of Nigeria’s northwest, *Zamfara journal of politics and development*, 2(1), 1-26.
- Oshodi, Y. O., Adeyemi, J. D., & Okechukwu, V. I. (2020). Exploring the barriers to accessing mental health care in Nigeria: A qualitative study. *International journal of mental health systems*, 14(1), 1-12.
- Owoaje, E T. Uchendu, C. Ajayi, T. O. & Cadmus, E. O. A (2016). A Review of the health problems of the internally displaced persons in Africa, *Nigeria postgraduate medical journal*, 23(4), 161-171.
- Nwanegbo, C.J. & Odigbo, (2013). Security and National Development in Nigeria: The Threat of Boko Haram. *International journal of humanities and social sciences*, 3(4), 285-291.
- Noémie, B. & Per-Olof, W. (2011). *Al-Qa’ida-Influenced Radicalisation: A Rapid Evidence Assessment Guided by Situational Action Theory*. London: UK Home Office, pp. 21–22
- Ranasinghe, P. D & Levy, B. R. (2007). Prevalence of and sex disparities in posttraumatic stress disorder in an internally displaced Sri Lankan Population 6 Months After the 2004 Tsunami. *Disaster. Med. public heal prep*, 1 (1), 34–43.

- Sigvardsson, E. Malm, A. Tinghog, P. Vaez, M. & Saboonchi, F. (2016). Refugee trauma measurement: a review of existing checklists, *BioMed central*, 37(10), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40985-016-0024-5>.
- Tahir, T. A. & Usman, O. B. (2020). Curbing Armed Banditry in Nigeria: A Panacea for Good Governance, *Zamfara journal of politics and development*, 2(2), 1-10.
- Trauma Informed Care Implementation Resource Centre (n.d). Effects of trauma on health, [online]. Available at: <https://www.traumainformedcare.chcs.org/what-is-trauma/>, [Accessed 17 March, 2024].
- Uche, J. C. & Iwuamadi, C. K. (2018). Nigeria: Rural banditry and community resilience in the Nimbo community. *Conflict studies quarterly*, (24), 71-82.
- Vojvoda, D., Weine, S.M., Mcglashan, T., Becker, D.F., Southwick, S.M. (2008). Posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms in Bosnian refugees 3 1/2 years after resettlement. *Journal of rehabilitation, research development*. 45(3), 421–426. <https://doi.org/10.1682/JRRD.2007.06.0083>.