PSYCHOSOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES OF INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT AND COPING STRATEGIES IN JIGAWA STATE, NIGERIA

BY

Abubakar, M.^{1*}, Mamman, M.¹, Laah, J.G.² and Yusuf, R.O.¹

¹Department of Geography and Environmental Management, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria ²Department of Geography, Kaduna State University, Kaduna State ^{*}Corresponding Author's Email: maryamabubakar08@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The rise in forced displacement of households has become a global trend. Coping with the challenges faced by internally displaced persons is not only about people finding new ways of providing the basic needs of their families, but about finding new ways of meeting their emotional, spiritual and social needs. This paper examined the psychosocial and economic consequences and coping strategies of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Jigawa State, Nigeria. The objectives were to examine the psychological and economic consequences associated with internal displacement as well as the strategies adopted by IDPs to cope with their situation. A self-designed instrument was used to collect the required data. A total of 375 respondents were sampled for the study using the snowball sampling technique, however, 317 were found useful for analysis. The study revealed that the major psychological and social consequences suffered by IDPs are trauma (20%) and hunger and starvation (51%). The key economic consequences of internal displacement are unemployment (44%) and lack of income (29%). Findings indicate that 66% did not receive counseling for emotional distress. The key coping strategies include engaging in prayers and meditation and self-employment. Thus, all government agencies responsible for protecting and assisting IDPs and other local actors should provide counseling and vocational services for displaced persons in Nigeria. The Federal and State Governments must strengthen the security system in Nigeria to enable them return to their homes.

Key words: Coping strategies, Internally displaced persons, Host communities, Psychosocial and economic consequences

INTRODUCTION

In the introduction of the United Nations' (UN) Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, internally displaced persons (IDPs) have been defined "as persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflicts, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights, natural or human made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border" (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees [UNHCR], 1998). Thus, IDPs are persons whose movements are confined within a national territory. The characteristics of these people are that their movements are involuntary and unpredictable. They move en masse with families often moving either together to one destination or in different

directions, and the duration of their stay depends on conditions in the host community on the one hand, and the developments in the originating community on the other (Mamman, 2009).

A significant and increasing proportion of people worldwide have migrated not primarily for economic reasons but as a result of humanitarian disasters and conflicts (Mamman, 2009). Millions of people are forced to flee their homes because of conflict or violence, often with little or no possessions. Some cross a national border in search of refuge; others remain within their country and become internally displaced people. Displaced persons are among the world's most vulnerable people. Unlike refugees, IDPs have not crossed an international border to find sanctuary but have remained inside their home countries. Even if they have fled for similar reasons as refugees, IDPs legally remain under the protection of their own government – even though that government might be the cause of their flight. As citizens, IDPs retain all of their rights and protection under both human rights and international humanitarian law (Norwegian Refugee Council/Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre [NRC/IDMC], 2012).

The effects of internal displacement on IDPs themselves, as well as on the local authorities and communities that host them, can be devastating. While the act of displacement itself often may violate the human rights of those affected, the subsequent loss of access to homes, lands, livelihoods, personal documents, family members, and social networks can negatively affect the ability of IDPs to assert and enjoy an entire range of fundamental rights. Thus, making IDPs dependent on others for basic needs such as shelter, food and water. Likewise, their helplessness may be increased by barriers to accessing health care, education, employment, economic activities, and electoral processes in their areas of displacement. To make matters worse, displacement may result in the breakdown of traditional family and social structures, leaving IDPs dependent on outside aid and vulnerable to economic and sexual exploitations. Such dependency reduces the chances of durable solutions and sustainable reintegration into the society (Brookings-Bern, 2008).

IDPs in host communities may benefit from initial support; however, their resources tend to degrade with time. In many instances, IDPs with adequate resources to cope in the early months of displacement frequently find these quickly diminishing as they struggle with the high cost of housing, lack of access to livelihoods, inability to access social services like health, sanitation, education, power and water supply, the loss of their material possessions, and the absence of their usual support structures. As a result, some IDPs may become more vulnerable and impoverished over time. They may also resort to undesirable coping mechanisms, such as reducing the quantity and quality of meals per day, or moving to some areas that are less secure (NRC/IDMC, 2012).

Durosaro and Ajiboye (2011) investigated the problems and coping strategies of internally displaced adolescents in Jos metropolis of Plateau state, Nigeria. The results showed that educational and emotional problems are most prominent among internally displaced adolescents. The main emotional problems displaced adolescents experienced were memory of fearful events and nightmare. The major coping strategy employed by displaced adolescents is repression because they often avoid thinking about their present condition. The study recommended that alternative educational activities should be provided for internally displaced adolescents. Also, trauma counselling should be adequately and readily available for displaced adolescents.

Bello, Daoud and Baig (2014) examined the coping strategies of displaced Darfurian women in Khartoum, Sudan. Purposive sampling technique was adopted to select 90 displaced women and the main instrument used in the study was questionnaire. Findings of the research indicated that the displaced women were living in extremely poor conditions. More than half (57%) of the displaced women could only afford to eat once daily. Furthermore, 74% of the displaced women were compelled to accept low wage jobs to meet their basic needs. The survival strategies adopted by the displaced women to cope with poverty include working in the informal sector to generate income; followed by 91% of the respondents adopting reduction in household expenditure to purchase food items; 89% depended on buying low price food items and 87% relied on purchasing second hand clothing. The study recommended among others that government should increase financial investment in infrastructure to facilitate the expansion of services needed in the peripheral areas of Khartoum.

Much about how IDPs cope with internal displacement still remains unexplored in Nigeria. None of the studies previously mentioned analyzed the consequences of internal displacement and coping strategies of IDPs in host communities of Jigawa State, Nigeria. Thus, creating a gap in knowledge which this research intends to fill. It is against this backdrop that the study seeks to examine the psychosocial and economic consequences, counselling services and coping strategies of internal displacement in the study area.

THE STUDY AREA

Jigawa State is located between Latitudes 11°00′-13°00′ North of the Equator and Longitudes 8°00′-10°30′ East of the Greenwich Meridian. The State shares borders with Kano and Katsina States to the west, Bauchi State to the east and south, Yobe State to the north-east and Republic of Niger to the north as indicated in Figure 1. The State has 27 Local Government Areas (LGAs).

Majority of the people in the state are farmers with about 90% of them engaged in farming. Food crops produced include maize, millet and guinea corn; cash crops like cotton and groundnut are also produced. Livestock is also an important aspect of the economy of the state. Large numbers of cattle are reared in the state. There are industrial enterprises in the state and these industries operate mostly with raw materials produced locally. Other informal sector activities include blacksmithing, leather-works, craft, tailoring services, auto repairs, metal works, carpentry, tanning, dyeing, food processing, masonry and so on (www.jigawastate.gov.ng, 2015). The total population of IDPs in Jigawa State is 15, 217 (Jigawa State Emergency Management Agency [JISEMA], 2015). The predominant religion of the people in the state is Islam. The socio-cultural setting in Jigawa State could be described as homogeneous: it is mostly populated by Hausa/Fulani, and the Mangawa who can be found in all parts of the state. There are also the Kanuri who are largely found in Hadejia Emirate, with some traces of Badawa mainly in its north-eastern parts (www.jigawastate.gov.ng, 2015). The people of Jigawa State are hospitable to the IDPs from all over the country specifically those from the north-east, who have been the hardest hit by the ongoing insurgency in Nigeria. The Hausa/Fulani community in the State contributes morally, socially and even economically to support IDPs who are living in precarious conditions.

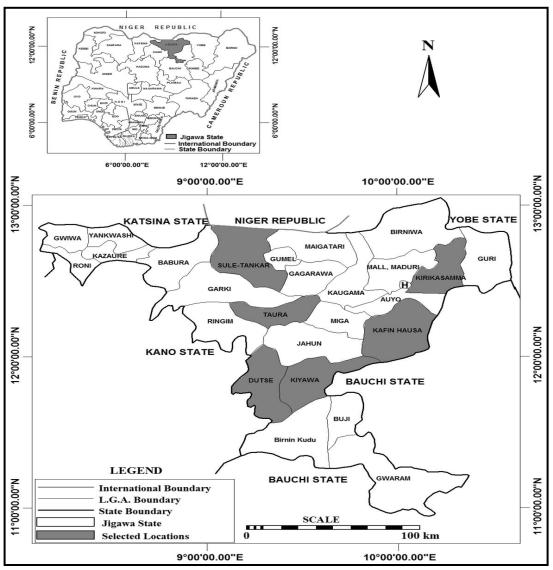


Figure 1: Study Area Source: Nigeria Geological Survey, 2015

MATERIALS AND METHODS

To be well acquainted with the study area, a reconnaissance survey was undertaken by visiting National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) zonal office at Kaduna where the researcher was linked to JISEMA office in Dutse, Jigawa State in 2015. There, one of the officials locally responsible for the welfare of IDPs guided the researcher to some of the host communities. The researcher obtained secondary data from JISEMA since it has documented data on the number of IDPs in the study area as well as the host communities they live in. The researcher visited some of the existing IDPs' locations in the state to observe the conditions of the displaced persons, and met with host community leaders or *Mai anguwa* and IDPs' leaders who are in charge of the welfare of these IDPs at community level. The main instrument used for the collection of data

was a structured questionnaire. The copies of questionnaire were self-administered to the IDPs in the study area.

In 2015, JISEMA revealed that there was a total of 15, 217 IDPs in Jigawa State. Using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table for determining sample size for finite population, the sample size for a population of 15,000 is 375. As such a total of 375 copies of questionnaire were administered to the IDPs. Table 1 provides information on number of IDPs in the state as well as the host communities they reside in.

S/no	Jigawa	IDPs'	Jigawa	IDPs'	Jigawa	IDPs'
	North-East	Popu	North-West	Popu	South-West	Population
		lation		lation		-
1	Auyo	389	Babura	194	Birnin Kudu	600
2	Birniwa	222	Gagarawa	418	Buji	240
3	Guri	441	Garki	140	Dutse	1,860
4	Hadejia	227	Gumel	141	Gwaram	441
5	Kafin Hausa	530	Gwiwa	47	Jahun	1,002
6	Kaugama	400	Kazaure	72	Kiyawa	2,050
7	Kirikasanma	1,046	Maigatari	200	Miga	1, 698
8	Malam Madori	281	Ringim	310		
9			Roni	100		
10			Sule Tankarkar	961		
11			Taura	1007		
12			Yankwashi	200		
Total		3, 536		3, 790		7,891

Table 1: Population	of IDPs in the	Three Senatorial	Districts of Jigawa State

Source: Jigawa State Emergency Management Agency (2015)

Furthermore, the multistage sampling technique was used. This included the use of the purposive sampling techniques to select the locations for questionnaire administration. Arranging all the 27 LGAs in the three senatorial districts of Jigawa State in alphabetical order, 6 locations from the North-East, North-West and South-West senatorial districts were purposively selected in order to obtain the sample size in each of the selected communities. As such, two locations each (with the highest populations of IDPs) were chosen from the three senatorial districts in the State as shown in Table 1. Hence, Dutse, Kafin Hausa, Kirikasanma, Kiyawa, Sule Tankarkar, and Taura towns were chosen as the sampled populations.

To determine the sample size for each location, Yamane (1967) formula for determining number of respondents was used thus, $n/N \times 375$ as presented in Table 2. Where n = population of IDPs in each of the selected locations

N = total population of IDPs in the selected locations

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S/no	Location of IDPs	Total Population of IDPs	Sample size
1	Dutse	1,860	94
2	Kaffin Hausa	530	26
3	Kirikasanma	1,046	53
4	Kiyawa	2,050	103
5	SuleTankarkar	961	48
6	Taura	1,007	51
Total		7, 454	375

Table 2: Sampled Population of t	he Study Locations
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Source: Author's Compilation, 2016

The 375 copies of the questionnaire administered were based on the sample size of IDPs in each of the selected locations as shown in Table 3. Respondents were selected using the snowball sampling technique. This is due to the fact that the IDPs reside within the communities and therefore cannot be easily identified without the help of the State Emergency Management Agency (SEMA) officials, IDPs' and community leaders. As such any IDP willing to be a part of the survey was chosen until the sample size was met. SEMA officials, the IDPs' and community leaders helped identify the displaced persons and also gathered some of the IDPs together at community leaders' houses, for administering questionnaire.

The quantitative data obtained were analyzed using descriptive statistics including means and percentages and presented in the form of tables, pie and bar charts using IBM SPSS version 22 and Microsoft Excel.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the psychological, social and economic consequences of internal displacement; availability to counseling services as well as coping strategies.

Psychosocial Consequences of Internal Displacement

Table 1 shows the psychosocial consequences of internal displacement on respondents in the study area. For the psychological distress faced by IDPs, trauma is found to be the greatest with approximately 20% followed by loss of direction in life with 12%; only 3% felt isolated. This corroborates the results of Kim, Torbay and Lawry (2007) in Sudan which revealed a high prevalence of depression (31%) among Sudanese IDPs in South Darfur.

For the social consequences, results confirm that close to 51% of the respondents suffered from hunger and starvation, 35% were in closer relationship with their Creator and 24% faced overcrowding in their shelters among others. Such effects are to be expected due to the precarious conditions IDPs are lived in. The findings of this study show a similar situation to that of Kemirere (2007) where degradation of social and cultural values among many households in the IDPs camps in northern Uganda was common. There were also incidences of family breakdown that resulted into domestic violence and divorce.

Table 1 Distribution of Res	sponde	ints by	Psychosocial	Conseq	uences of Dispi	acement
Effects	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Excessive anger	21	6.6	296	93.4	317	100.0
Psychological trauma	62	19.6	255	80.4	317	100.0
Isolation	10	3.2	307	96.8	317	100.0
Hopelessness	26	8.2	291	91.8	317	100.0
Lost direction in life	39	12.3	278	87.7	317	100.0
Hunger/starvation	161	50.9	156	49.1	317	100.0
Over crowdedness	75	23.7	242	76.3	317	100.0
Missing relative (s)	62	19.6	255	80.4	317	100.0
Cultural breakdown	66	20.9	251	79.1	317	100.0
Societal breakdown	53	16.8	264	83.2	317	100.0
Increased indiscipline	21	6.6	296	93.4	317	100.0
Discrimination	38	12.0	279	88.0	317	100.0
Increased faith in God	112	35.4	205	64.6	317	100.0
Severed relationship	21	6.6	296	93.4	317	100.0
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Table 1 Distribution of Respondents by Psychosocial Consequences of Displacement

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Economic Consequences of Internal Displacement

Table 2 shows the economic consequences of internal displacement on IDPs in the study area. Loss of assets was found to be paramount with 47% followed by unemployment (44%), lack of income (29%) and acute poverty (28%). Others include inability to pay school fees (17%), lack of farmland to cultivate (15%) and inability to pay rent (14%).

Effects	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%	
Unemployment	140	44.3	177	55.7	317	100.0	
Lack of income	92	29.1	225	70.9	317	100.0	
Unskilled labour	25	7.9	292	92.1	317	100.0	
Acute poverty	89	28.2	228	71.8	317	100.0	
Lack of farmland	48	15.2	269	84.8	317	100.0	
Inability to farm	33	10.5	283	89.5	317	100.0	
Loss of assets	149	47.2	168	52.8	317	100.0	
Inability to pay school fees	55	17.4	262	82.6	317	100.0	
Inability to pay rent	43	13.6	274	86.4	317	100.0	
Source: Field Survey 2016							

Table 2 Distribution of Respondents by Economic Consequences of Internal Displacement

Source: Field Survey, 2016

It is no surprise that IDPs encounter such economic losses since they flee attacks without having the opportunity to take meaningful belongings with them. When villages and towns are completely ruined, there is tendency that IDPs are forced to start a new socioeconomic life from the scratch; and while some are able to return to their homes to manage what was left behind, others simply have to sell or abandon their assets forever and relocate or resettle elsewhere. This is often very difficult for IDPs who have lived all their lives in the Northeast although their states of origin are from other geopolitical zones of Nigeria. For them, the Northeast is the only home they have.

Counseling Services for IDPs

Table 4 shows the availability and sources of counseling services to IDPs. Findings indicate that 31.2% received emotional trauma counseling while the majority (66%) did not. This is not unexpected among IDPs living in host communities who do not even get enough to eat from Government agencies let alone counseling services.

Received	Frequency	Percentages	
Yes	99	31.2	
No	208	65.6	
No response	10	3.2	
Total	317	100.0	
Relative	12	12.1	
Friend	59	59.6	
Religious cleric	15	15.2	
Medical personnel	1	1.0	
NGOs	6	6.1	
Others	6	6.1	
Total	99 *	100.0	

Table 4 Distribution of Availability and Sources of Counseling Services to IDPs

Source: Field Survey, 2016

*Total number of respondents who received counseling

For those who received counseling, 60% and 27% obtained theirs from friends, religious clerics and relatives. The IDPs in this study can be said to be vulnerable to the aftermath effects of psychological stress when nearly two-third of them have no access to counseling services and the few who are counseled are not from trained or professional counselors. This may compound their psychosocial behavioural adjustments in the future with unanticipated consequences.

As buttressed in Akuto (2017), counseling generally is a helping process to address groups, societal and individual emotional, mental, psychological, social and economic problems. In reality, apart from food, shelter, clothing and physical wellbeing, a very important need of IDPs is counseling services. The sudden experiences of homelessness, loss of loved ones, properties, living in insecure states and many more create series of psychological problems such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), insomnia, depression, hallucinations, eating disorders among others and attendant effects that if counseling is not provided, some of them may become psychotic or attempt suicide. Therefore, the challenges of IDPs pose a lot of implications for counseling.

COPING STRATEGIES

Coping Strategies for Emotional Problems

The different coping strategies were analyzed using mean (\overline{X}) to reveal the ranking of each category of coping strategies. Table 5 indicates the ranking of items on displaced persons' coping strategies about emotional problems. Engaging in prayers and meditation ranked first, followed by often remembering pleasant moments of the past which is second and discussing with friends and relatives as a coping strategy ranked third.

Table 5 Ranking of Coping Strategies for Emotional Problems					
Coping Strategies	Mean (X)	Rank order			
Engage in prayers/meditation	4.57	1^{st}			
Relive pleasant moments	4.42	2^{nd}			
Discuss with friends/relatives	4.09	$3^{\rm rd}$			
Try to make new friends	3.85	4^{th}			
Involved in religious activities	3.74	5^{th}			
Avoid thinking	2.65	6^{th}			
Engage in sporting activities	1.90	$7^{\rm th}$			
Engage in drug abuse	1.77	8 th			
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Doubing of Coning Strategies for Emotional Droblems

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The findings of this study contrasts that of Durosaro and Ajiboye (2011) which revealed that the first emotional coping strategy was remembering pleasant moments of the past, avoid thinking about the present condition ranked second and engaging in private study ranked third. According to Carver, Scheier and Weintraub, (1989), acceptance of the stressor and turning to religion are additional coping strategies people develop to cope emotionally. The tactics IDPs develop or take advantage of are instrumental in their ability to handle displacement; and IDPs in the present study replicate this.

Coping Strategies for Income Generation and Monthly Expenditure

The ranking of coping mechanisms for income generation is indicated in Table 6. Engaging in self-employment ranked first, begging for alms on the street is second and hawking on the street to make ends meet ranked third. Begging is one of the major strategies used by IDPs to cope with their difficult situation. This prompted the Jigawa State Government to ban street begging in the capital, Dutse in 2016. According to NRC/IDMC (2014), vulnerable IDPs including children displaced in Yola town, Adamawa state in September 2014, were forced to engage in survival sex to meet their basic needs.

Table 6 Kanking of Coping Strategies for Low income and wonting Experiatione					
Coping Strategies	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	Rank order			
For Income Generation					
Engage in self-employment	3.19	1^{st}			
Beg for alms	2.75	2^{nd}			
Hawk	2.42	$3^{\rm rd}$			
Allow child labour	2.35	4^{th}			
Borrow money	2.18	5^{th}			
Rely on cash donations	1.96	6^{th}			
Exchange of sex for money	1.79	$7^{\rm th}$			
Steal	1.62	8^{th}			
For Various Monthly Expenditure Ne	eds				
Spend mainly on foodstuff	4.49	1^{st}			
Spend primarily on house rent	2.80	2^{nd}			
Spend mostly on school fees	2.52	$3^{\rm rd}$			
Source: Field Survey, 2016					

Table 6 Ranking of Coning Strategies for Low Income and Monthly Expenditure

The findings differ from that of Abdulazeez (2016) which revealed that many of the IDPs in the NYSC camp of Maiduguri, Borno state found unexpected ways to cope with their predicament like selling their relief materials to start up and developing some kind of economic activities to sustain them. Table 6 also shows the ranking of items on displaced persons' coping strategies for monthly expenditure. Spending mainly on foodstuff ranked first, payment of house rent is the second and paying children's school fees ranked third. Given their low economic status, IDPs must set their priorities right and forsake other needs.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that displaced persons are facing adversities in their lives. As a result of internal displacement, a large proportion of the displaced populations in Jigawa State face various challenges like psychosocial and economic consequences such as trauma, hunger and starvation, unemployment and lack of income. In addition, IDPs have not received professional counseling to deal with the emotional trauma associated with displacement, hence are living in difficult conditions. Thus, they have adopted various mechanisms to cope with the consequences of internal displacement in their host communities. It is recommend that IDPs should be counseled and treated for the psychological distress associated with displacement by professionals from government, non-governmental bodies and other agencies to overcome their emotional distress. Governments at all levels and humanitarian agencies should improve in the provision of food items to curb hunger and starvation and IDPs need to be trained by JISEMA with vocational skills so that they become economically independent.

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