NORTHWEST NIGERIA

2022 MULTI-SECTOR NEEDS ASSESSMENT (MSNA)

January 2023

REACH Informing more effective humanitarian action

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About REACH

REACH facilitates the development of information tools and products that enhance the capacity of aid actors to make evidence-based decisions in emergency, recovery, and development contexts. The methodologies used by REACH include primary data collection and in-depth analysis, and all activities are conducted through inter-agency aid coordination mechanisms. REACH is a joint initiative of IMPACT Initiatives, ACTED and the United Nations Institute for Training and Research - Operational Satellite Applications Programme (UNITAR-UNOSAT). For more information, please visit our website. You can contact us directly at: geneva@reach-initiative.org and follow us on Twitter @REACH_info.

SUMMARY

Background & Rationale

For the last decade, and particularly since 2014, Nigeria's Northwest has been the scene of spiralling insecurity, instability, and subsequent displacement, happening against a backdrop of chronic, deep poverty and the effects and looming threat of climate change and environmental degredation.

This hypothesised tripple nexus of conflict, climate, and poverty is likely to drive an increase and intensification of humanitarian and development needs among the Northwest's population. In light of this, while the region is not included in the Humanitarian Programme Cycle (HPC), a budding coalision of humanitarian actors are pivotting to the region, and a loosely organisated response is taking shape. Yet, despite indications of deteriorating humanitarian conditions, the data landscape necessary to build an evidence-based and relevant response has thus far remained underdevoped.

Therefore, REACH conducted this first Multi-Sector Needs Assessment (MSNA) in the conflict and displacement affected states of Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara, to provide more comprehensive and robust data on the humanitarian needs of displaced and non-displaced households in the region to support the response. Findings are based on a representative sample of 1,388 displaced and 9,702 non-displaced households in Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara States, who were interviewed between March and July of 2022.

Key Findings

Findings indicate that humanitarian needs are common and widespread among both displaced and non-displaced populations across the three assessed states. Nearly all households (96%, or 2.0 million) were found to have multi-sectoral needs, particularly in the domains of **Shelter and Non-food Items (NFIs) (82%), Education (78%), and Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene (WASH) (71%).**

Displaced households were more commonly found to have more complex needs profiles than non-displaced households, with 74% of displaced households having needs in at least 4 sectors, compared to 48% of non-displaced households. Displaced households were also more often classified with unmet needs in the domains of **Food Security and Nutrition** and **Protection.**

Findings suggest that needs across sectors, states, and population groups were commonly driven by limited financial means and a lack of available infrastructure.

In addition to poverty and underdevelopment, however, findings suggest that **conflict and insecurity often indirectly drive needs across sectors, particularly among displaced households**. Insecurity emerged as the main reported driver of displacement, pushing households away from their land, livelihoods, assets, and support networks. **More directly, among displaced households, persisting insecurity in areas of displacement was also a commonly reported barrier to accessing essential needs and services**, including education, markets, and water sources.

It is to note that **findings only relate to the population in areas that were accessible for face-to-face interviews or could be reached remotely for phone inverviews**. Considering that insecurity was the main displacement trigger, **it is likely that insecurity is driving more severe multi-sectoral needs in hard-to-reach and inaccessible areas**, where the remaining population might be more vulnerable.

CONTENTS

List of Acronyms

AAP:	Accountability to affected populations
BAY:	Borno, Adamawa, and Yobe states in the Northeast
CH:	Cadre Harmonisé
DTM:	Displacement Tracking Matrix
ERL:	Early Recovery & Livelihoods
FEWS NET:	Famine Early Warning Systems Network
HNO:	Humanitarian Needs Overview
HPC:	Humanitarian programme cycle
IDP:	Internally displaced person
INGO:	International non-governmental organisation
IOM:	International Organisation for Migration
JIAF:	Joint Inter-Sectoral Analysis Framework
LSG:	Living standard gap
LGA:	Local Government Area
MSF:	Médecins sans Frontières
MSNA:	Multi-Sector Needs Assessment
MSNI:	Multi-Sector Needs Index
NDVI:	Normalised difference vegetation index
NFI:	Non-food item
OCHA:	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
OPHDI:	Oxford Poverty & Humanitarian Development Initiative
SEMA:	State Emergency Management Agency
UNHCR:	United Nations High Commissioner of Refugees
UNICEF:	United Nations Children's Fund
WASH:	Water, Sanitation, & Hygiene
WB:	The World Bank
WFP:	World Food Programme

Geographical Classifications

Zone:	Nigeria is divided into 6 geopolitical zones, and each zone encompasses a series of States.
State:	Administrated by State governments, the second tier of government below the national government. In total, Nigeria has 36 States in addition to the Federal Capital Territory (Abuja). This MSNA covers 3 states in the (NWT) Northwest zone.
LGA:	Administered by local government councils. Nigeria counts 774 LGAs.
Ward:	Each LGA is subdivided in 10-20 wards, each administered by a councillor who reports to the LGA chairman.
Settlement:	An informal grouping of houses, neighbourhood, town, or agglomeration of towns not classified for administrative purposes.

INTRODUCTION

Over the course of the last decade, and especially since 2014, Nigeria's Northwest region has been the scene of **spiralling insecurity, instability, and displacement**. Farmer-herder clashes, banditry, and vigilatinism have impaired local livelihoods, driving more than 474,744 from their Areas of Origin (AoO).[1]

The conflict of the Northwest escapes easy categorisation, and a disparate consensus on its character, drivers, and foreward trajectory remains largely in flux. By late 2021, this consensus, as encapsulated by the 2022 Humanitarian Needs Overview (HNO),[2] converged on the idea that the needs in the Northwest are generally lower than in the Northeast, and "driven by a lack of development, banditry, inter-communal conflict, inadequate provisions of essential services, and other aspects of governance."[3] Drawing on this conception of the Northwest's conflict, the Humanitarian Coordination Team (HCT) concluded that the prime needs in the Northwest are developmental in nature,[4] and where humanitarian needs preside or pop up, "limited"[5] and "time-bound"[6] interventions are required, that do not divert essential capacity or resources from the Northeast.

At the time of drafting the 2022 HNO, the data landscape remained severely underdeveloped. Yet over the last year, more comprehensive and robust studies both into developmental need and humanitarian needs in the Northwest have been published,[7] and a picture is emerging of a region faced with a possible nexus between widespread, deepening poverty, a spiralling, complex, multifacted conflict, and ecological degeneration, driving developmental as well as humanitarian needs to unforeseen heights.

While the region is not included in the Humanitarian Programme Cycle (HPC), a budding coalition of humanitarian actors are pivotting to the region, and a loosely organisated response is taking shape. In light of indications of deteriorating humanitarian conditions, REACH conducted this first Multi-Sector Needs Assessment (MSNA) in the Northwest to provide more comprehensive and robust data and analysis on the humanitarian needs of the region to support an evidence-based response.

[1] Nigeria – Nort-central and Nort-west Zones baseline Assessment Round 9 (March 2022), Dataset, DTM.
[2] The Nigerian Humanitarian Needs Overview.
[3] Ibid. p.76.
[4] Ibid.
[5] Ibid.
[6] Ibid.
[7] World Bank. (2022). A Better Future for All Nigerians: Nigeria Poverty Assessment 2022; Nigeria Bureau of Statistics (2022). *Nigeria Multidimensional Poverty Index* Report.; International Crisis Group. (2018). Stopping Nigeria's Spiralling Farmer-Herder Violence. *Africa Report;* International Crisis Group. (2020). Violence in Nigeria's North West: Rolling back the mayhem; Barnett, J., Rufa'i, M. A., & Abdulaziz, A. (2022). North West ern Nigeria: A Jihadization of Banditry, or a "Banditization" of Jihad?. *CTC Sentinel*, *15*(1), 46-69; as well as the datasets of the 2022 SMART Surveys conducted by UNICEF.

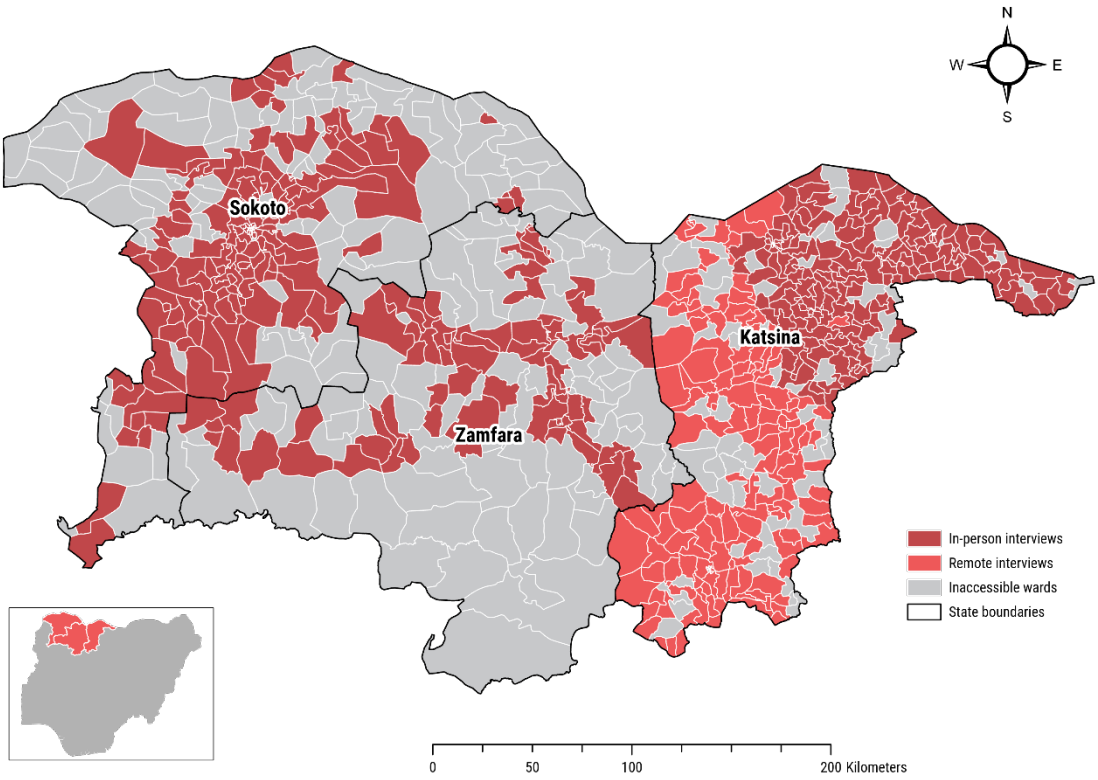
METHODOLOGY

This chapter contains a concise description of the methodology used for the Northwest MSNA – for technical details on the methodology, including but not limited to the sampling approach, analysis framework, enumerator training, and detailed limitations, please refer to the Annexes and the Methodology Overview.

Scope

The MSNA intends to provide a crisis-wide overview of the magnitude and severity of humanitarian needs in the Northwest's most affected[8,9] states of Sokoto, Zamfara, and Katsina,[10] through analysing key living standards gaps (LSGs), the main drivers behind these gaps, and how they differ per location and displacement status.

In accordance with partners' information needs, the MSNA covered the following humanitarian sectors: cash and early recovery & livelihoods (ERL), food security & nutrition, health, water, sanitation, & hygiene (WASH), shelter & non-food items (NFIs), protection, education, as well as cross-cutting factors such as demographics, movement dynamics, coping capacities, underlying vulnerabilities, and accountability to affected populations (AAP).



[8] UNHCR & Government of Nigeria (January 2021). Protection monitoring report Katsina, Sokoto and Zamfara.
[9] IOM DTM (December 2021). Nigeria north-central and north-west zones displacement report 8.
[10] Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara states are three states in the region thought to be the among the states most affected by insecurity and displacement. The states have close historic and socio-economic ties and have suffered similar extents of escalating violence and displacement in recent years

Primary data collection

The total sample consists of 11,090 households, including 9702 non-displaced households and 1388 displaced households, who were interviewd either remotely or face-to-face[11] by trained enumerators between March and July 2022. Findings are representative at the State level with a 92% confidence interval and a 10% margin of error for both population groups. For an overview of the confidence levels per each LGA, please see Annex 1. Findings related to another subset of the total sample are not generalisable with a known level of precision and should be considered indicative only.

State	Number of non-displaced households interviewed	Numer of displaced households interviewed	Total number of households interviewed
Katsina	4,554	741	5,292
Sokoto	3,155	283	3,438
Zamfara	1,993	364	2,357
Total	9,702	1,388	11,090

Analysis

Data was analysed in accordance with the MSNA analytical framework, which was created by REACH to facilitate the analysis of crisis-level data across sectors and population groups. The MSNA analytical framework draws some conceptual elements from the Joint Inter-Sectoral Analysis Framework (JIAF)[12] and is used in conjunction with the MSNA indicator bank. The following analytical concepts were used:

- **Living standard gaps (LSGs).** An LSG signifies an unmet need in a given sector. LSGs are composite indicators designed to measure the severity of need per sector. Each household receives an LSG severity score (1-4+) per sector. Households with an LSG severity score of 3 or higher are considered to have an unmet sectoral need.
- **The Multi-Sector Needs Index (MSNI).** The MSNI is a measure of a household's overall severity of humanitarian needs across sectors (expressed on a scale from 1 to 4+), based on the highest severity of sectoral LSG severity scores identified in each household.
- **Severity.** In the MSNA analytical framework, "severity" signifies the intensity of unmet needs, based on a scale that ranges from 1 (minimal/no need) to 4+ (extreme+ needs).[13]
- **Magnitude.** The "magnitude" corresponds to the overall number or percentage of households in need.

In addition, household vulnerabilities (in terms of socioeconomic vulnerabilities and susceptibility to shocks) and coping capacities (in terms of strategies used to mitigate livelihood gaps) were incorporated in the LSG composite indicators.

[11] While face-to-face interviews were preferred and prioritised, due to insecurity, some wards were inaccessible for face-to-face data collection. In the West of Katsina, 2,739 interviews could be conducted remotely with households in inaccessible settlements (see assessment coverage map).
[12] The JIAF is an analytical framework being developed at the global level aiming to enhance understanding of humanitarian needs of affected populations. The JIAF measures a progressive deterioration of a household's situation towards the worst possible humanitarian outcome.
[13] While the JIAF severity scale includes 5 classifications ranging from 1 (none/minimal) to 5 (catastrophic), for the purpose of the MSNA, only a scale of 1 (none/minimal) to 4+ (extreme+) was used. A score of 4+ indicates a potentially catastrophic situation. This difference is because the data needed for a score of 5 is primarily area-level data (e.g., mortality rates, morbidity, and malnutrition prevalence), which is difficult to factor into household-level analysis.

Limitations

The following limitations should be kept in mind when interpreting the results.

- **Access constraints:** Security concerns prevented enumerator teams from travelling to some selected settlements, in which case they had to rely on remote data collection or reserve clusters. As a result, it was not possibe to retrieve a representative sample at the LGA level for each LGA (as was intended in the research design phase). Remote data collection was not always an option, which means that findings are not **reflective of the situation in areas inaccessible due to insecurity**, where needs among the remaining population might be higher.
- **Limitations of household surveys**: Household-level quantitative surveys seek to provide quantifiable information that can be generalised to represent the populations of interest, but are not well-suited to:
    - … provide in-depth explanations of complex issues. Questions on "how" or "why" are best explored through qualitative research methods. Findings were, where possible, further contextualised through the secondary data review. In-depth semi-structured assessments will be relevant to substantiate, triangulate, and nuance quantitative MSNA findings.
    - … assess intra-household dynamics (including for instance intra-household power relations across gender, age, disability). Users are reminded to supplement and triangulate household-level findings with other data sources.
- **Potential under-reporting on sensitive subjects:** Both during face-to-face and remote data collection, sensitive questions, for instance questions related protection incidents, child labour, or power and gender dynamics, might lead to under-reporting. Findings should be approached with caution and triangulated with secondary sources where possible.
- **Measuring protection LSGs:** In the inter-sectoral needs analysis, protection-related needs have proven hard to measure at the household level due to the composition of the composite LSG indicators, the sensitivity of the subject (see previous point), and the fact that protection needs might be better captured at the area level, rather than the individual household level. As a result, the protection LSG might not fully reflect the protection risks households were exposed to at the time of data collection. Protection gaps might drive needs in other sectors, for instance due to insecure access to land or water sources. Wheverever possible, protection has therefore been mainstreamed throughout the analysis.
- **Measuring health LSGs:** Results suggest health needs were similarly challenging to measure. Since it is difficult to assess quality of healthcare and morbidity prevalence through a multisector household tool, questions were primarily focused the access dimension. As a result, the health LSG ought to be used with caution and triangulated with other data sources to gain a nuanced understanding of health needs.

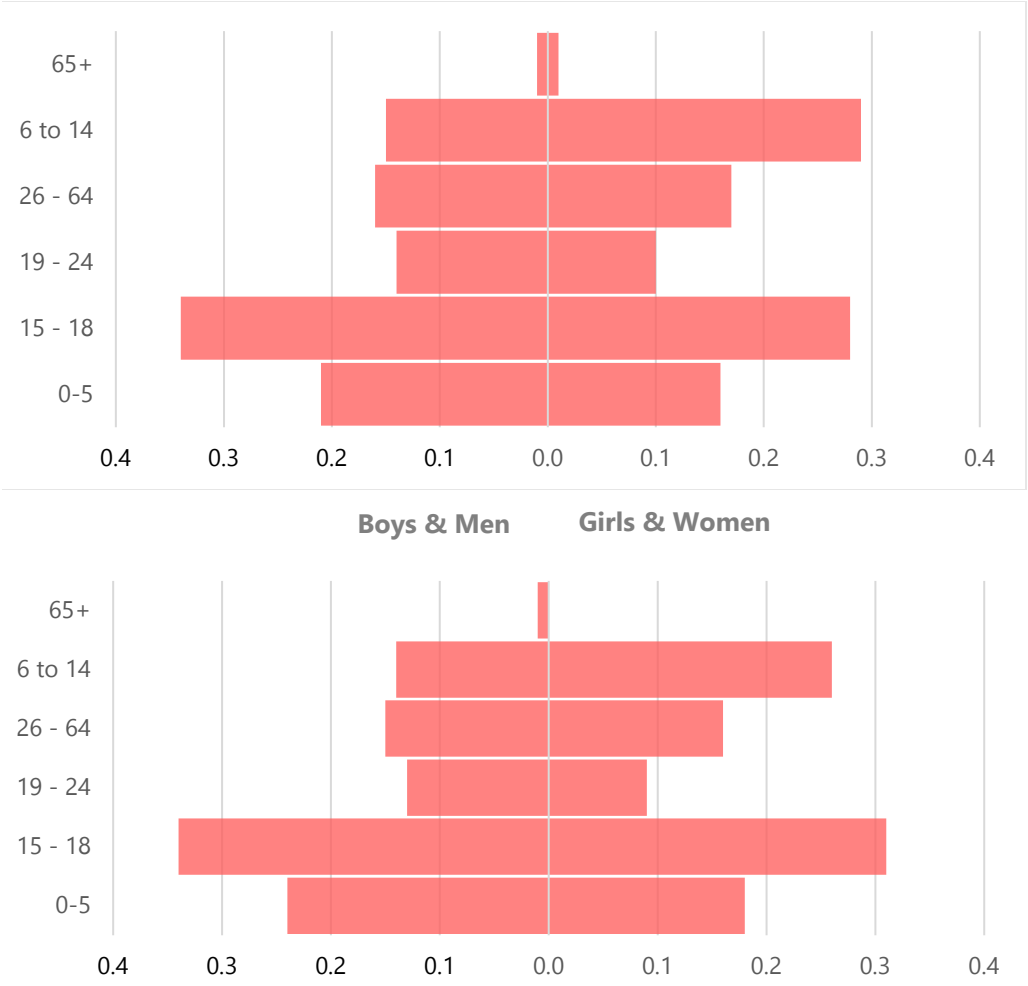
FINDINGS

1. Sample demographics and displacement dynamics

Household demographics

Overall, households had 5.8 members on average, with most households reporting their household head to be male (92%), with little variance between displaced and non-displaced households or between states. Most household heads (95%) had reportedly received some form of education, mostly at religious schools (67%). Only 43% of household heads had reportedly attended secondary school, and as little as 5.9% had reportedly received a university degree.

Figure 1: Population pyramids, % of non-displaced (above) and IDP (below) household members by age and gender in non-displaced households



Displacement dynamics

For the purpose of this analysis, households were considered to be displaced if they had been forced to leave their area of origin at least once since 2013. Among these households (n=1,388), the majority reported having been displaced multiple times (52%), with 23% reporting having been displaced twice and 18% reporting having been displaced between 3-5 times since 2013. **Findings hence suggest that multiple displacement is fairly common in this region**, and while seemingly relatively rare, some

households even reported having been displaced more than 6 times since 2013, which might indicate their capacity to cope with shocks has been severely eroded.

In line with reports of increasing violence and insecurity throughout the region, findings suggest most displacements were local, recent, and had been triggered by conflict events and/or feelings of insecurity. Almost all displaced households (97%) reported coming from either Katsina, Sokoto, or Zamfara state, and across states, the most commonly reported year of most recent displacement was 2022 (reported by 33% of displaced households), followed by 2021 (26%). The primary triggers for households' most most recent displacement were reportedly related to concerns armed banditry (61%), kidnapping and abductions (58%), and/or insurgency and insecurity (48%) in their previous location, congruent with conflict events that have been recoreded in recent years.[14] However, findings suggest that a lack of access to livelihoods and basic needs was also an important consideration that factored into displacement decision-making; in addition to the prospect of security, access to livelihoods and/or basic needs (reported by 40% and 36% of displaced households, respectively) featured among the most reported main reasons for choosing their current location.

Table 1: Percentage of IDP households by reported year of most recent displacement, per state and overall

	Katsina	Sokoto	Zamfara	Overall
2013	2%	2%	0%	1%
2014	1%	1%	1%	1%
2015	3%	4%	1%	2%
2016	1%	1%	1%	1%
2017	2%	2%	1%	2%
2018	6%	7%	13%	8%
2019	8%	10%	15%	10%
2020	8%	17%	29%	15%
2021	26%	29%	26%	26%
2022	44%	27%	14%	33%

In addition to common pull factors such as access to basic services and security, some households that had been displaced sometime since 2013 reported since having returned to their area of origin (39%), citing emotional attachments to their hometown and/or family reunification as main contributing factors. Nearly one-third (27%) of households who had returned reported having returned due to a lack of means to settle elsewhere. Considering insecurity-related reasons being among the main push factors, this finding might indicate that some more vulnerable households (with limited means or social connections to start up elsewhere) potentially faced a zero-sum dilemma between accessing basic needs and livelihoods on the one hand, and security on the other.

Displacement dynamics, movement intentions, decision-making processes, and related experiences are best explored through a combination of in-depth qualitative and quantitative research, which fell outside of the scope of this assessment. Hence, to complement the MSNA, REACH conducted a more in-depth assessment on displacement dynamics in Northwest Nigeria, partly drawing on MSNA data, findings for which will be pusblished in a forthcoming report.

[14] ACLED Dashboard (2022). Events in Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara between January 2020 and October 2022.

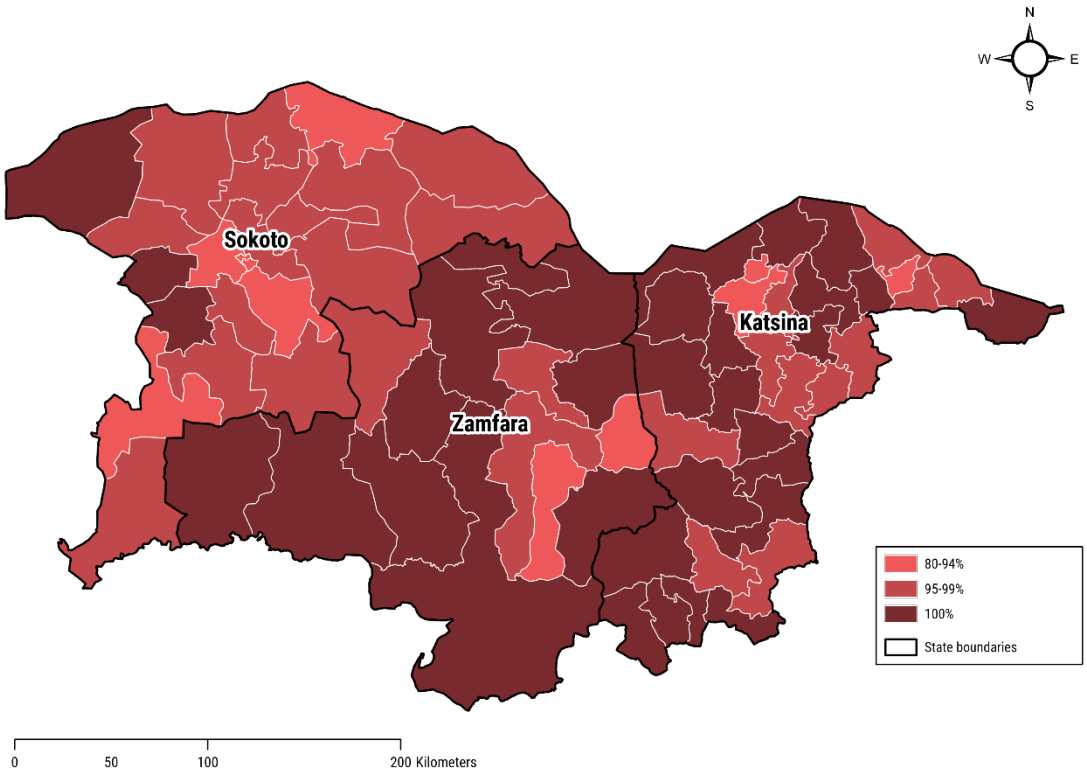
2. Overview of multi-sectoral needs

Magnitude of needs

Overall, findings suggest that the vast majority of households in Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara state have multi-sectoral humanitarian needs; 96% of households (2.0 million[15]) were found to have an MSNI severity score of 3 (severe) or higher, indicating a widespread deprivation in terms of access to basic needs and services.

Findings suggest that needs were common throughout the Northwest, with the proportion of households with multi-sectoral needs not differing considerably per state or population group.

Map 1: % of households with an MSNI severity score of 3+



Severity of needs

A more detailed picture emerges from an analysis of needs per severity; while the majority of displaced and non-displaced households were categorised with an MSNI severity score of 4 ("extreme"), displaced households were more commonly found to have more severe scores (4 or 4+) compared to non-displaced households, which is likely due to their displacement situation contributing to their vulnerability.

[15] Calculations based on population data from GRID3 Nigeria Gridded Population Estimates, Version 2.0

Table 2: % of households per severity of needs, by displacement status

	1 Minimal	2 Stress	3 Severe	4 Extreme	4+ Extreme+
Non-displaced	1%	3%	24%	68%	4%
Displaced	0%	0%	10%	80%	9%

Findings suggest pockets of particularly severe needs might exist in Zamfara state. Here, 12% of households were found to have MSNI scores of 4+, compared to 3% in Sokoto and 2% in Katsina. Within Zamfara, such high severity scores were primarily driven by extreme needs found among displaced households (26% of displaced households were categorised with an MSNI of 4+), compared to 11% of non-displaced households, which is still considerably higher than the Northwest average (4%). Findings suggest the extreme needs among these populations were primarily driven by high severity scores related to shelter an non-food items (NFIs), with close to one-third of displaced households reportedly living out in the open, leaving them particularly vulnerable to threats to their safety and wellbeing. The next chapter (2. Drivers) will unpack the contextual drivers of multi-sectoral needs with more granularity.

Types and complexity of needs

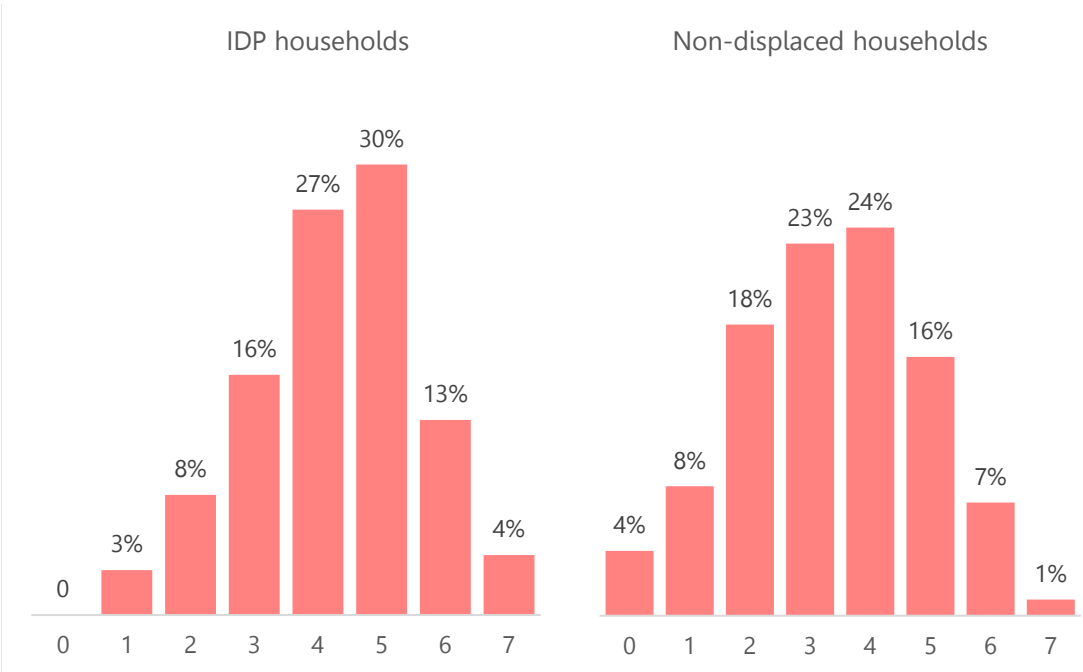
Among all households with multisectoral needs, the majority was found to have umnet needs (LSG severity scores of 3+) in the domains of shelter & NFIs (82%), education (78%), and WASH (71%). In addition, 72% of displaced households were found to have food security-related needs, compared to 39% of non-displaced households. Similarly, displaced households were more commonly categorised with an LSG in protection compared to non-displaced households.

It should be noted that needs in some sectors might be less well-captured by the results than needs in other sectors. As highlighted before, the most insecure, hard-to-reach areas could not be included in data collection activities for this MSNA; the fact that conflict and insecurity featured among the main push factors for displacement gives an indication of protection needs likely being higher in areas of displacement that could not be assessed. In addition, the household survey for this MSNA did not allow for a comprehensive Nutrition SMART Survey to capture nutrition data at the individual level, and in the analysis, food security data has been complementd by SMART Survey data published by UNICEF. Similarly, the health module focused on barriers to access healthcare; the quality of available healthcare is harder to assess through a household-level survey, and findings are complemented through indicative data from MSF.

Figure 2: % of displaced and non-displaced households with multisectoral needs per sector

While findings suggest that the overall proportions of households with multisectoral needs (MSNI of 3+) and the types of needs they face do not differ considerably between displaced and non-displaced groups, **further analysis suggest that IDP households' needs profiles (that is, the combinations of overlapping living standard gaps) might be more complex than non-displaced households' needs profiles**. Overall, 74% of IDP households with multisectoral needs were found to have unmet needs in at least 4 sectors, compared to 48% of non-displaced households (see figure 3).

Figure 3: % of IDP and non-displaced households by number of sectoral LSGs



Likewise, differences also emerge when comparing the types of needs that commonly co-occur within households between non-displaced and displaced households, with findings suggesting that **IDP households might more commonly experience a combination of needs containing food security and protection needs, compared to non-displaced households**. The top three most common needs profiles per population groups are visualised below. Among all non-displaced households with multi-sectoral needs, most were found to have overlapping WASH and Shelter & NFI needs, while among IDP households this profile was more diverse, including Cash & ERL, Food security, WASH, Education, and Shelter & NFI LSGs.

Figure 4a: Top 3 most common needs profiles found among non-displaced households

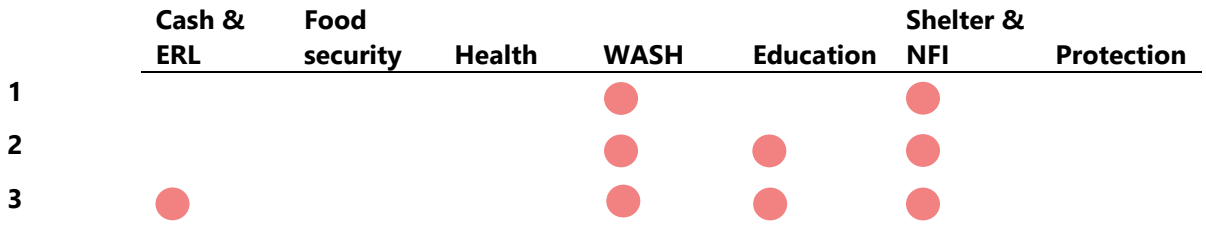
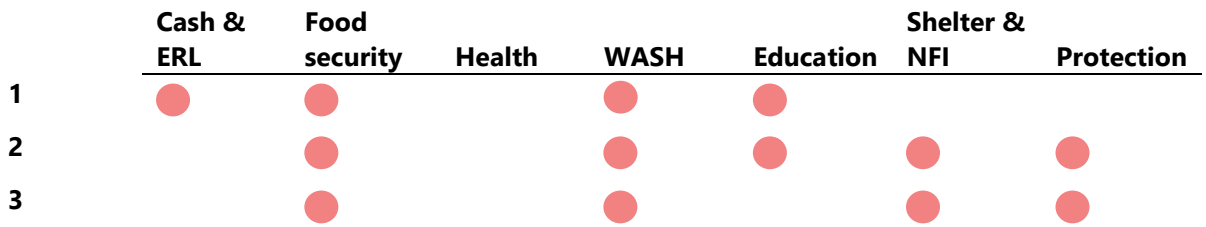


Figure 4b: Top 3 most common needs profiles found among displaced households



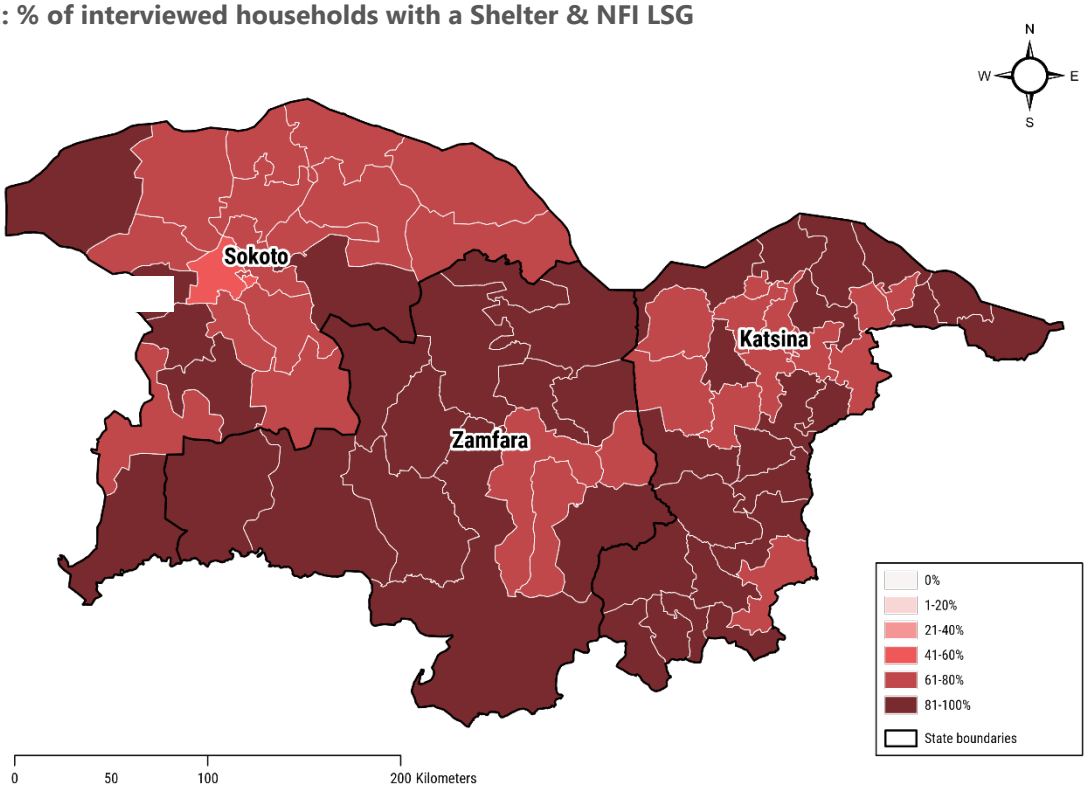
As highlighted, shelter needs and WASH needs apppear widespread regardless of population group or state, with food security & nutrition-related needs and protection needs found to perhaps be more common among IDP households, which could due to their compounding vulnerabilities resulting from their displacement. For instance, displacement could lead to less access to land for cultivation and productive assets in the area of displacement and a consequently drive a higher reliance on daily labour or other unsustainable livelihoods sources to access food and money to cover basic needs, which brings its own risks in terms of protection and food security.

Moreover, considering the relatively recent displacement of many households in the IDP sample, a more limited availability of social connections to fall back on to mitigate shocks and a lack of access to basic needs could further drive LSGs across various sectors. However, a general lack of qualitative evidence on the situation and experiences of displaced persons in the Northwest of Nigeria makes it difficult to substantiate and triangulate the findings from this MSNA; to better understand the underlying factors contributing to the variance in needs profiles, in-depth, qualitative assessment would be necessary.

3. Drivers of multi-sectoral needs

Shelter & Non-food items (NFIs)

Map 2: % of interviewed households with a Shelter & NFI LSG



Overall, 85% of households with multi-sectoral needs (MSNI of 3+) were found to have unmet needs related to Shelter & NFIs, **marking Shelter & NFIs as the most common driver of multi-sectoral needs in the assessed areas**. Geographically, the highest proportion of households with Shelter & NFI needs was found in Zamfara state (90% of households, versus 82% in Sokoto and 84% in Katsina), which is also where the highest severity of LSG scores was found (12% of households in Zamfara were classified with an LSG severity score of 4+, indicating potentially catastrophic needs). Findings suggest IDP households might be slightly more likely to face gaps in meeting their basic related needs compared to non-displaced households; 92% of IDP households were classified with an LSG in this sector, compared to 84% of non-displaced households. **However, overall, shelter needs appear widespread, with little variance between states or displaced and non-displaced populations.**

Findings suggest that shelter needs were mostly driven considerable damage and a general state of disrepair of shelters, with the exception of Zamfara state, where extreme LSG scores were also driven by a considerable proportion of (IDP) households living in makeshift shelter types or being homeless.

One in four (26%) of IDP households in Zamfara reported living outside in the open and another 8% reported living in makeshift shelters. This finding is triangulated by a recent flash report by the International Organisation for Migration's (IOM) Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM), which highlights that households who were recently displaced by violence within Zamfara were observed to live on the streets without access to shelter and basic NFIs.[16] While insecurity was likely a driver of their

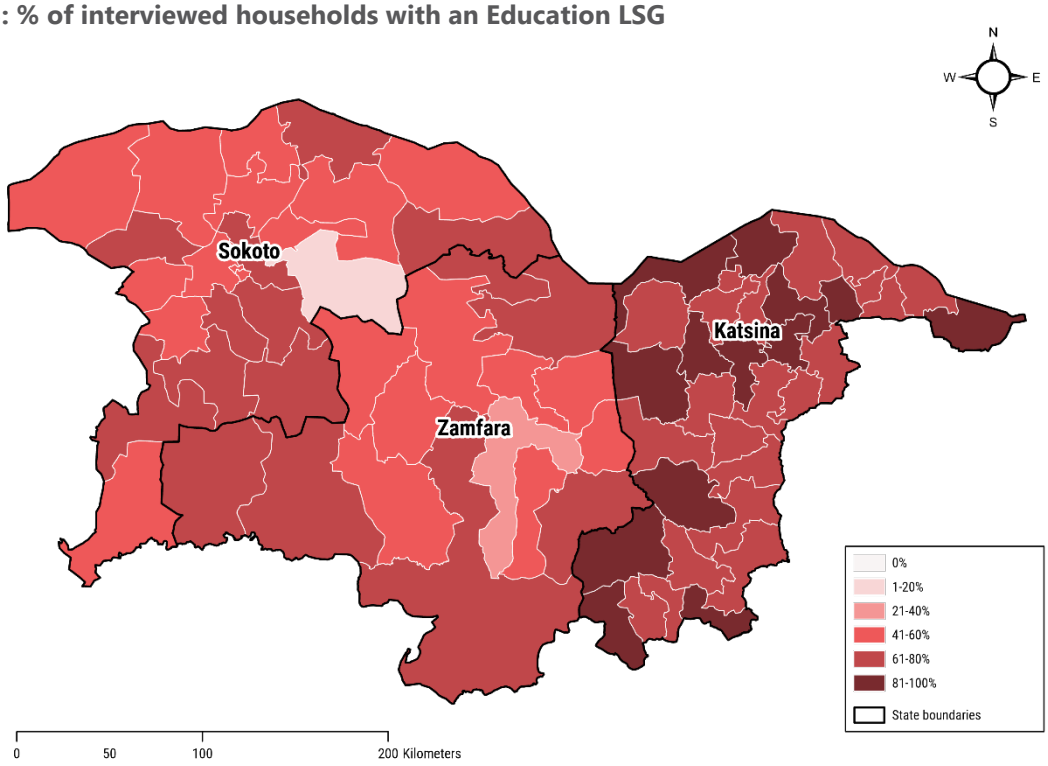
[16] IOM DTM (January 2022). Flash report #86 Population Displacement in North-West Nigeria: Zamfara State.

displacement in the first place, households staying in the streets are likely to be vulnerable to additional risks to their safety and wellbeing, especially considering the generalised insecurity in the region. Most (59%) of those IDP households who reportedly lived in the open in Zamfara were categorised with a protection LSG, compared to 42% of IDP households overall, indicating that the majority of these households have been exposed to safety and/or security incidents in the month prior to data collection, although data is not sufficient to establish whether these incidents caused their displacement and subsequent lack of shelter or rather were a consequence of households' lack of shelter. Regardless, findings suggest a common experience of deprivation; 50% of IDP households in Zamfara reported a need for shelter materials, and 22% cited shelter as their first priority need. In addition, "how to find shelter" emerged among the most reported types of information needed from humanitarian actors among households in Zamfara State, 40% of whom reported this as a main information need.

In contrast to Zamfara IDPs, most households overall reported living in traditional shelters made from mud or bricks (67% overall) or in masonry houses (23%), both considered relatively solid shelter types. **However, even though this suggests that most households had a roof over their head at the time of data collection, findings are indicative of widespread shelter rehabilitation needs. Households commonly reported enclosure issues and shelter defects**, for instance openings or cracks in their roof (31%) or their roof having partially collapsed (24%); cracks in some walls (31%), large cracks in most walls (11%), or some walls having fully collapsed (10%). Perhaps reflective of this, 37% of households reported experiencing leaks even during light rains, suggesting exacerbated vulnerability to public health risks, including Malaria and Meningitis, which are expected to thrive in the region particularly in humid spaces during the rainy season.[17]

Education

Map 3: % of interviewed households with an Education LSG



[17] Nigeria Metereological Agency (April 2022). Nigeria 2022 Climate Predictions.

The majority of households were found to have an Education LSG (78%), indicating that education needs are widespread in the region. Indeed, **half (51%) of all children of school-age (between 3 and 17) in the interviewed households (n=28,112) were reportedly not enrolled in any type of formal school in the 2021-2022 school year**. Among those children who were not enrolled in formal schools, 56% were also not attending any types of non-formal learning opportunities, such as religious schools, accelerated learning programmes, or vocational training.

At the state level, findings indicate that school enrolment was comparatively lower in Zamfara than in Katsina and Sokoto; 67% of children in households interviewed in Zamfara were reportedly not enrolled in formal schools (n=3,160), 74% of whom were reportedly also not receiving any other type of informal education at the time of data collection.

Primary and secondary data suggest that education needs in the three states are driven by various underlying factors, mostly rooting from chronic poverty, limited investment in infrastructure,[18] social norms, and growing insecurity.[19] While most households with school-aged boys and /or girls reported no barriers for boys (58% of households with school-aged boys) or girls (59%), around one-in-five households reported considering the school fees and other school-related costs a barrier, which was followed by long distances to school and child(ren) working (both barriers reported by roughly 10% of households with school-aged boys and girls). Perhaps in line with reports of escalating violence in the region, some households reported security concerns to be a barrier to accessing education, which was more than twice as commonly reported by IDP households compared to non-displaced households; 18% of IDP households with school-aged girls and 20% with boys reported this, compared to 7% of non-displaced households for both boys and girls, respectively.

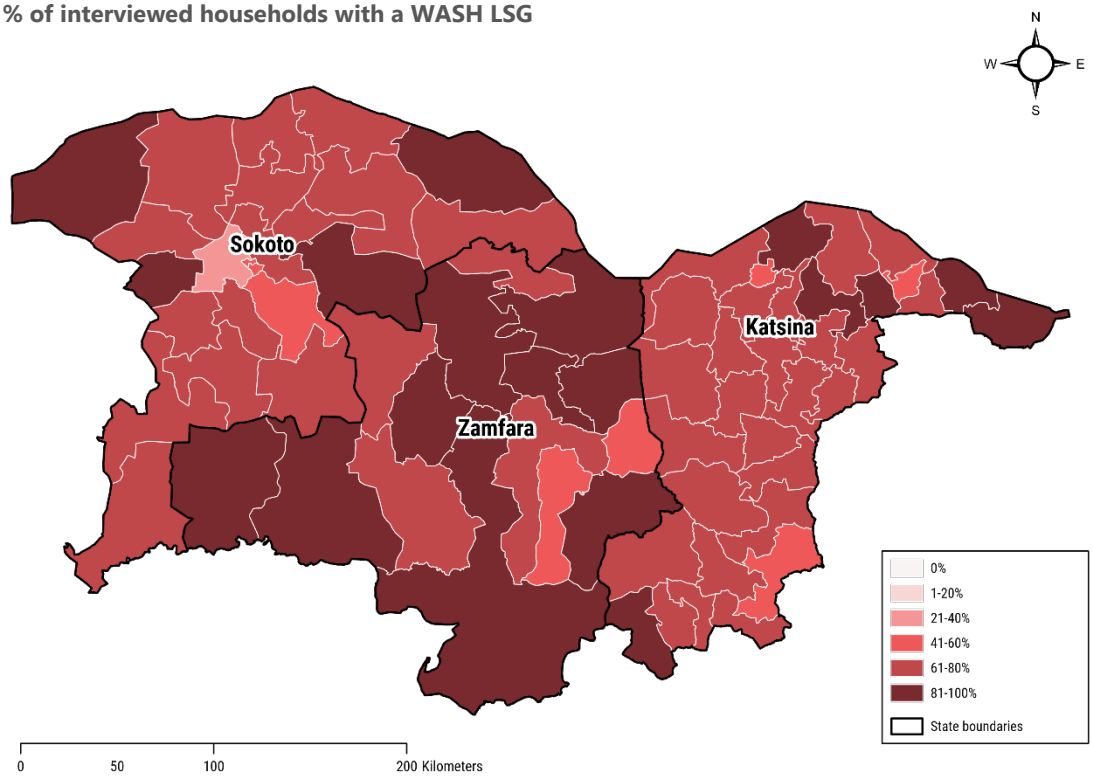
In addition to these barriers, **15% of households with school-aged children reported that their child(ren) had encountered protection incidents on the way to school in the 3 months prior to data collection**, furhter indicating the trade-off some households have to make between accessing basic services and trying to stay safe. Protection incidents were more commonly reported by displaced households with school-aged children (23%) than by non-displaced households (14%) and were most commonly reported by IDP households with school-aged children in Zamfara (33%) and Katsina (27%).

While protection incidents may make parents reluctant to let their children attend school, insecurity might also more generally impact the availability of education services to children in the region. Throughout the Northwest , many (boarding) schools were reportedly closed to reduce the risk of kidnappings and banditry, and displacement of teaching staff reportedly further reduces education opportunities in affected areas.[20]

[18] Adeleke, R., Alebede, O. (October 2022). Geographical determinants and hotspots of out-of-school children in Nigeria. *De Gruyter Open Access*.
[19] UNICEF (August 2022). In North-west Nigeria, cash grants take out-of-school children back to school.
[20] Adebajo, K. (November 2021). Education suffers silently but heavily as terror sweeps through North West Nigeria. *HumAngle*

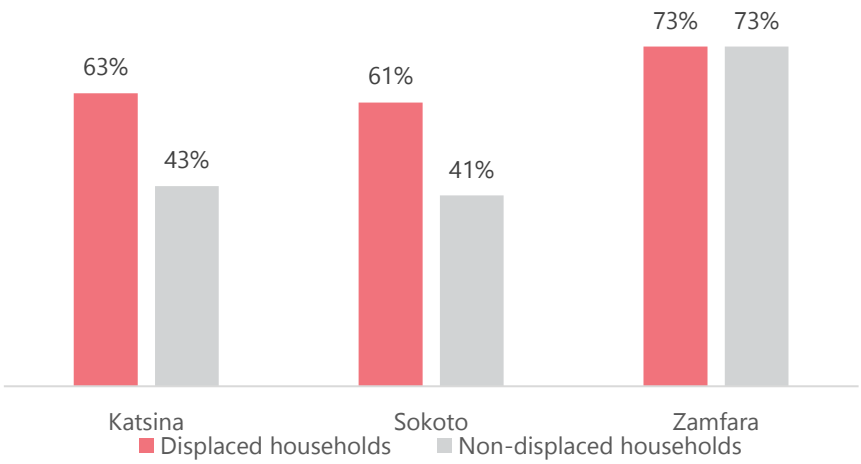
Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene (WASH)

Map 4: % of interviewed households with a WASH LSG



Findings suggest that the majority of households had WASH-related needs. Over 2 in every 3 households (71%) were found to have a WASH LSG, with limited differences between non-displaced (70%) and displaced households (81%). WASH was also the sector in which the highest proportion of households with severe gaps found; 50% of all interviewed households received an LSG severity score of 4, indicative of extreme needs. Extreme needs were more commonly found among households in Zamfara (73%) compared to Katsina and Sokoto states (both 44%). In both Katsina and Sokoto states, however, the differences in severity of needs between displaced and non-displaced households appeared more starkly (see Figure 4).

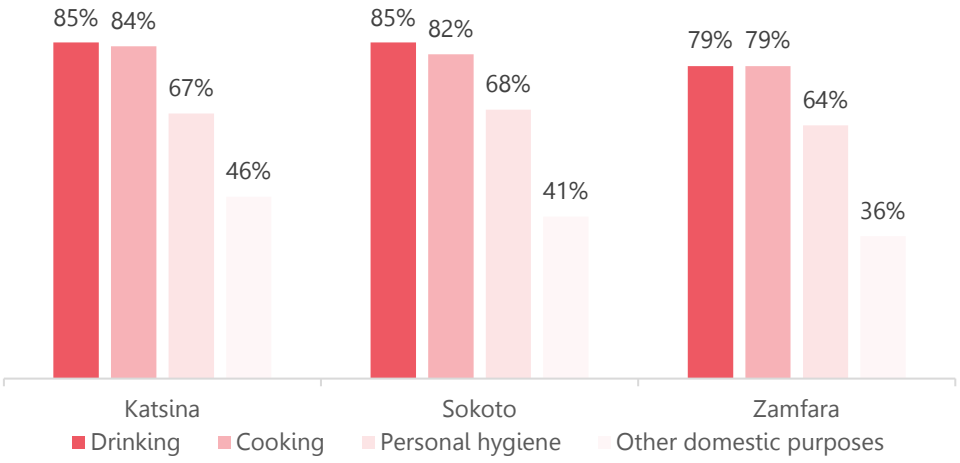
Figure 5: % of households with a WASH LSG severity score of 4, indicating extreme WASH needs, per displacement status



Findings suggest WASH gaps were mostly driven by households' reliance on unimproved sanitation facilities, and to a lesser extent by a reliance on unimproved water sources and limited access to sufficient quantities of water to meet needs. Insufficient access to clean water and sanitation facilities further compounds households' risks to contracting and spreading diseases and can also be a risk factor for malnutrition among children.

In terms of access to clean water for drinking and other domestic purposes, findings suggest that considerable pockets of the population did not have access to sufficient amounts of quality water. While the majority of households across states reported that their main source of drinking water was an improved source,[21] **one in four households (24%) reported relying on an unprotected well for their drinking water and 4% of households even relied on surface water or unprotected springs,** without notable differences between states or population groups, highlighting considerable risks for people's health and wellbeing.

Figure 6: % of households reporting having access to sufficient quantity of water for drinking, cooking, personal hygiene, and other domestic purposes



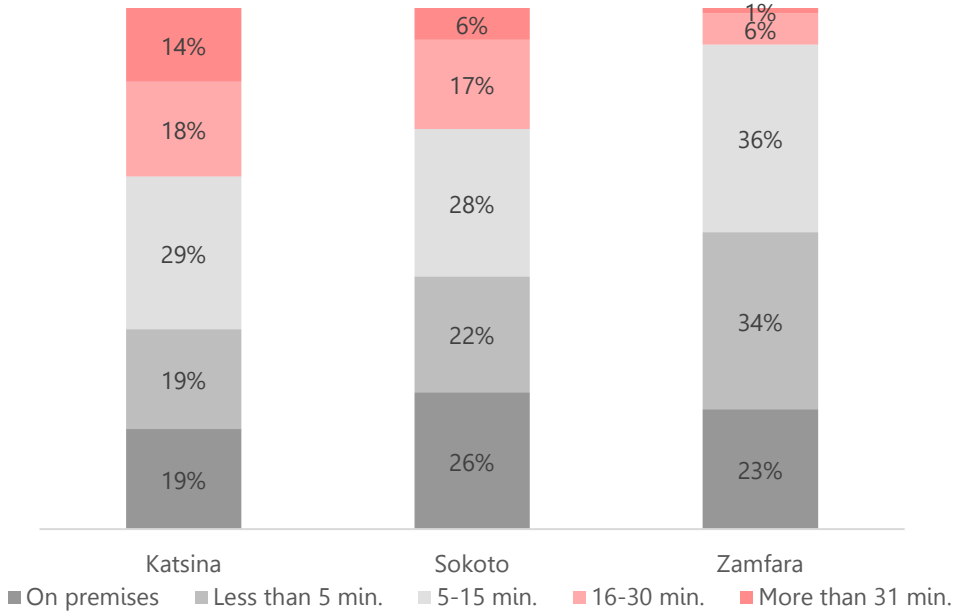
Similarly, the majority of households reported having sufficient water to meet their main water needs (drinking, cooking, hygiene, and other domestic purposes) but 16% of households reported not even having access to sufficient amounts of water for drinking. More broadly, considering all uses of water, roughly half (44%) of households reported facing challenges accessing water, which seemed to be mostly related to limited water infrastructure, including waterpoints being too far (22%) and there not being enough water points to service the community (20%).

Further reflecting significant water stress among pockets of the population, **households relatively commonly reported engaging in various coping strategies to deal with a lack of access to water, which could compromise their health or otherwise be harmful to their wellbeing.** The most reported strategies were relying on less preferred drinking water sources, including unimproved or untreated sources (27%), sending children to fetch water (22%), and fetching water from a source further than usual (22%). Some households (15%) reported resorting to surface water for drinking purposes to adapt to a lack of access to water, which bears a notable risk of disease contraction and transmission.

[21] In the analysis, these sources were considered to be public tap/standpipe, handpumps/boreholes, protected well, water seller, piped connection to house or neighbour's house, protected spring, rainwater collection, bottled water/water sachets, tanker trucks

Not being able to access sufficient amounts of drinking water was particularly commonly reported by displaced households in Katsina (39%, compared to 16% overall)**.** Perhaps reflective of this, displaced households in Katsina also most commonly reported facing challenges accessing water (65%, compared to 44%), mostly citing waterpoints being too far and a lack of waterpoints/overcrowding at waterpoints as the main challenges. IDP households in Katsina also relatively commonly reported water being too expensive (28%, compared to 9%). Further reflecting limited access to water in Katsina State, **one in three households (32%) in Katsina reported it taking more than 16 minutes to reach and return from their main water source, with 14% reporting it even taking longer than 31 minutes** (see Figure 6), exceding the Global SPHERE Standard emergency threshold of 30 minutes.[22] Such long traveling times indicate a lack of water infrastructure and/or insufficient yields at water points, reflecting the commonly reported challenges, and might lead households to reduce their water consumption or rely on unimproved sources to cope,[23] which was indeed reported by 24% and 42% of IDP households in Katsina with limited access to water, respectively. **In addition, households required to travel longer distances to reach their main water source might be more exposed to security incidents,** which might particularly affect **the safety of women and girls**, who are traditionally tasked with water collection in this region.[24] In light of this, 12% of displaced households in Katsina reported considering fetching water to be a dangerous activity, which was reported by only 3% of households overall.

Figure 7: Reported time required to access and return from main water source (including queueing), by % of households per state



As hinted at before, findings suggest that the common use of unimproved sanitation facilities is one of the main drivers of WASH needs in the three assessed states. Safe excreta disposal, as well as safe and private access to latrines, is an essential factor to prevent direct and indirect exposure to and transmission of diseases and minimise protection risks.[25] However, almost half of households reported relying on unimproved latrine types, including pit latrines without a slab or platform (37%), open holes (9%), or open defecation (2%), with limited differences between population groups and/or states. Furthermore, around one in five IDP households (22%) reported not having soap at the time of data

[22] SPHERE Humanitarian Standards (2018). https://spherestandards.org/wp-content/uploads/Sphere-Handbook-2018-EN.pdf
[23] SPHERE Humanitarian Standards (2018). https://spherestandards.org/wp-content/uploads/Sphere-Handbook-2018-EN.pdf
[24] https://mdpi-res.com/d_attachment/sustainability/sustainability-14-07499/article_deploy/sustainability-14-07499.pdf?version=1655724111#cite.B18-sustainability-1708652
[25] UNHCR (n.d.). Emergency Sanitation Standards (version 1.7).

collection (compared to 13% of non-displaced households), which was particularly commonly reported by IDP households in Sokoto (40%).

IDP households (37%) relatively commonly reporting sharing their main latrine with other households (compared to 11% of non-displaced households), which might be an indication of compromised safety, dignity, and hygiene.[26] Perhaps reflective of this, 20% of IDP households reported overcrowding at latrines as a main challenge when accessing latrines, compared to 9% of non-displaced households. Other reported challenges included sanitation facilities being unclean (18%), not sufficiently private (10%), or not gender-segragated (8%), with no notable differences between population groups.

Furthermore, only a small proportion of households reported their latrines were equiped with inside lights (13% of displaced and 17% of non-displaced households), outside lights (6% and 12%), and/or locks (33% and 35%), and IDP households in Katsina, in particular, relatively commonly reported their latrines being further than 50 meters away from their shelter (14%), all of which further compromise safety. For example, during a protection monitoring assessment conducted in January 2021,[27] some focus group participants (out-of-camp IDPs residing in host communties in Sokoto, Zamfara, and Katsina) reported feeling unsafe visiting latrines at night due to the lack of light, locks, and gender-segragated latrines.

Among households who reported facing challenges accessing latrines (n=4,401), the most reported strategies used to cope with issues were relying on less preferred (unimproved/unhygienic) latrines (61%), relying on communal latrines (12%), and going to latrines at night (12%). Moreover, 9% of households reported defecating in plastic bags or buckets instead to cope with access constraints and challenges.

Cash and Early Recovery and Livelihoods (ERL)

Nearly half (43%) of households were categorised with a Cash & ERL LSG, with little overall variance between population group or state. Findings suggest needs in this sector are primarily driven by a **lack of livelihoods and low incomes, and a subsequent common reliance on erosive coping strategies** employed by households to cope with insufficient income to meet their basic needs. The reported inability to make sufficient money to meet basic needs, in turn, indicates livelihoods-related gaps are likely more generally underlying needs in other sectors.

Overall, income from businesses (51%), daily or casual labour (41%), and salaried work (15%) were the most reported forms of primary income among households, with displaced households slightly less commonly reporting sustainable livelihoods compared to non-displaced households. These marginal differences appear to be carried through in terms of difficulties faced with making enough money to meet needs; while the majority of households across population groups and states reported having faced such challenges in the 30 days prior to data collection, this was more commonly reported by IDP households (79%) than non-displaced households (62%), and was particularly often reported among IDPs in Katsina (87%) and Sokoto (82%). Reflecting the difficulties faced with making sufficient money, IDP households more commonly reported lower monthly incomes compared to non-displaced households (see Table 3).

[26] SPHERE Humanitarian Standards (2018). https://spherestandards.org/wp-content/uploads/Sphere-Handbook-2018-EN.pdf
[27] UNHCR & Government of Nigeria (January 2021). Protection monitoring report Katsina, Sokoto and Zamfara.

Map 5: % of interviewed households with a CASH & ERL LSG

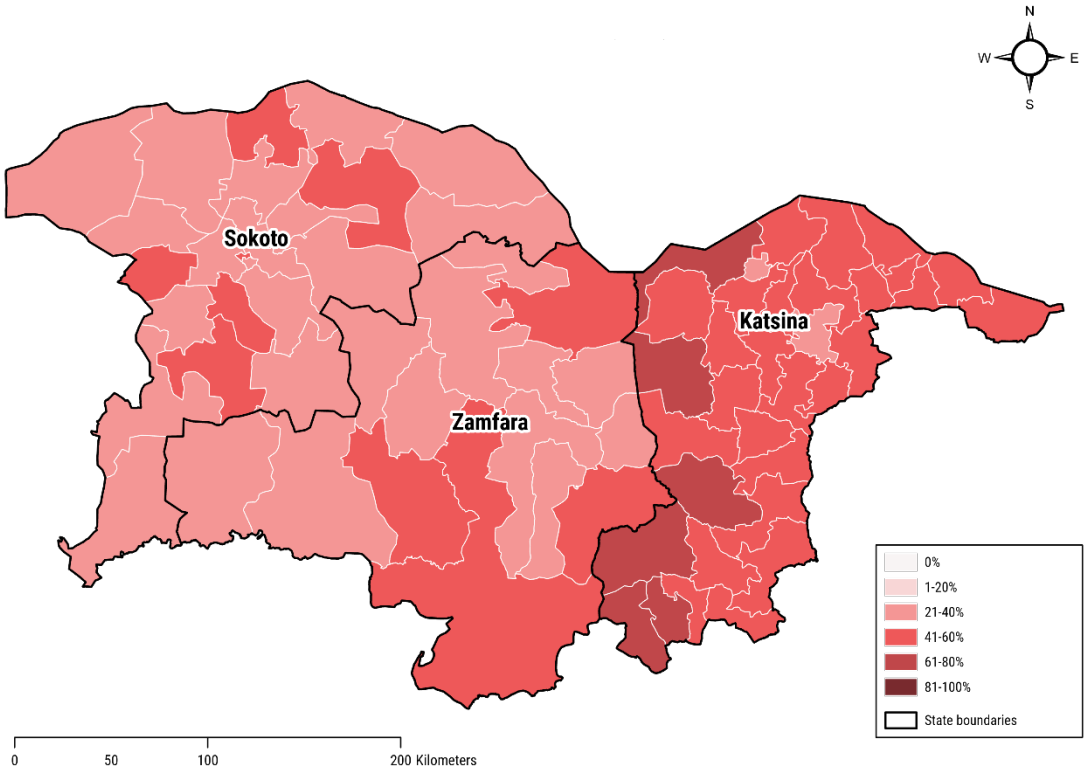


Table 3: % of displaced and non-displaced households per income bracket, total sum of household income over 30 days prior to data collection

	Less than 5,000 Naira	5,001 - 10,000 Naira	10,001 - 18,000 Naira	18,001 - 30,000 Naira	30,001 - 50,000 Naira	50,000 - 100,000 Naira	More than 100,000 Naira
Non-displaced	5%	11%	19%	27%	22%	12%	4%
Displaced	13%	18%	18%	27%	15%	6%	2%

Findings suggest that **a lack of viable livelihoods is a main barrier to accessing sufficient income**, as the vast majority of households who reported having faced challenges obtaining enough money (62% overall) contributed this to a lack of available livelihoods (84%), which was followed by wages being too low (26%). According to a recent analysis by the Famine Early Warning Systems Network (FEWS NET), **insecurity, limted harvested land, high fuel prices, and disrupted market supply have driven a decrease in incomes for non-agricultural labour**, including daily and casual labour, local businesses, and salaried work, throughout the conflict-affected regions in the Northwest, with low payment power among better-off households further reducing labour demand.[28]

Households who reportedly had insufficient income to meet needs commonly reported engaging in **erosive coping strategies to mitigate income gaps**; selling productive assets (36%), borrowing money (34%), and spending savings (31%) were the most reported strategies households had used in the 30

[28] FEWS NET (February 2022). Poor macroeconomic conditions and conflict are expected to drive food insecurity across the North.

days prior to data collection to cope with a lack of money. Differences between IDP and non-displaced households in the most reported strategies might suggest that displaced households had perhaps less access to productive assets or savings that could be liquidated to begin with, leaving them more reliant on more severe strategies to cope. IDP households in Sokoto that reported having faced challenges meeting their needs (82%) particularly commonly reported begging for money or food (33%, compared to 3% overall) and sending household members to eat elsewhere (11%, compared to 4% overall), while they considerably less frequently reported relying on savings (10%, compared to 31% overall) or productive asset liquidation (15%, compared to 34% overall).

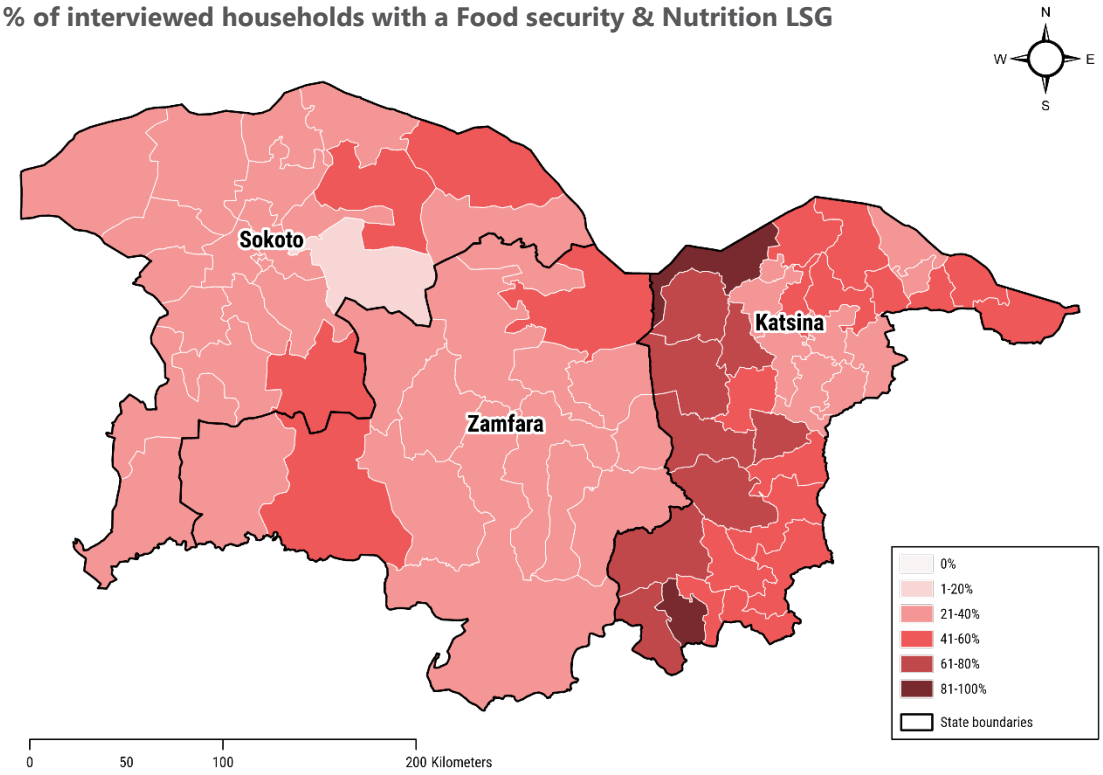
Figure 8: Most reported strategies employed by households to cope with limited access to money and/or basic needs in the 30 days prior to data collection

Non-displaced households	Displaced households
1 Sell productive assets (including transportation) (37%)	1 Borrow money (38%)
2 Borrow money (33%)	2 Sell productive assets (including transportation) (29%)
3 Spend savings (32%)	3 Purchase food on credit or borrow food (26%)
4 Sell non-productive household assets (21%)	4 Sell non-productive household assets (23%)
5 Purchase food on credit or borrow food (20%)	5 Spend savings (19%)

Further reflecting these strategies, the majority of IDP and non-displaced households (both 59%) reported having debts at the time of data collection, which was particularly commonly reported by IDP and non-displaced households in Zamfara (79% and 86%, respectively). **Households most commonly reported having taken on debts to cover food expenditures** (54% of IDP and 45% of non-displaced households), healthcare (41% and 33%), or education (22% and 20%), reflecting how their precarious incomes are not always sufficient to cover basic needs and services.

Food security & Nutrition

Map 6: % of interviewed households with a Food security & Nutrition LSG



Overall, findings from the MSNA analysis suggest that 41% of households experienced food security-related gaps. **The proportion of households with a food security LSG was found to be considerably higher among IDP households (71%) compared to non-displaced households (39%), and in Katsina (52%) compared to Sokoto and Zamfara (both 32%),** in line with findings from the most recent Cadre Harmonisé (CH) analysis (March-May 2022), which identified areas in Sokoto and Katsina state in Crisis (Phase 3) levels of food insecurity and projected the northern LGAs of Zamfara to deteriorate from Phase 2 (Under pressure) to Phase 3 in the upcoming lean season (July-August 2022).[29] According to the CH, IDPs were particularly vulnerable to food insecurity, with roughly 10% of IDPs in Sokoto and Zamfara being classified in Phase 4 (Emergency) between March and May 2022.

Related to findings described above, according to FEWS NET, growing insecurity and unfavourable macroeconomic dynamics have driven atypically high staple prices and limited market functionality, while wages have generally deceased throughout much of the Northwest.[30] Market-dependent households without access to (sufficient) land for cultivation or livestock activities are therefore less able to rely on subsistance harvests or livestock products and are likely hit hardest by food security shocks.

Roughly half of non-displaced households (53%) reported their own production having been their primary source of food in the month prior to data collection, which was followed by market purchases (43%). This did not differ considerably from IDP households, however, market purchases (46%) emerged as their most reported primary source while own production was reported by a slightly lower proportion (41%). A notable difference between states and population groups is the considerably

[29] CH (March 2022). Cadre Harmonize for identification of risk areas and vulnerable populations in 21 states and federal capital territory of Nigeria.

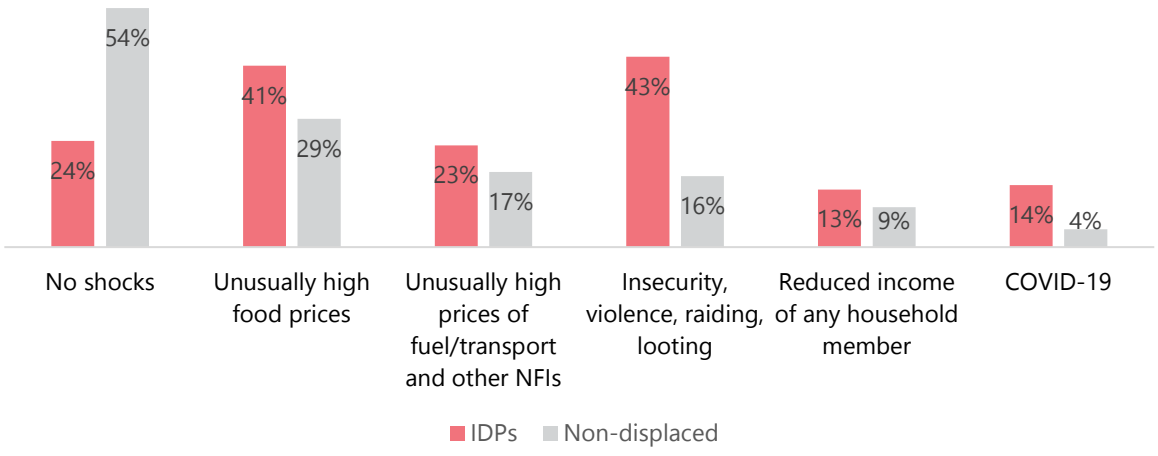
[30] FEWS NET (February 2022). Poor macroeconomic conditions and conflict are expected to drive food insecurity across the North

high proportion of IDPs in Sokoto who reported markets as their primary source (63%) compared to own production (16%), which in turn might relate to the comparatively high proportion of IDPs in Sokoto who were found to have a Cash & ERL LSG (see previous section). Further in line with this, the vast majority of IDPs in Sokoto (67%) reported not having access to land for cultivation, which is considerably higher than the overall proportion of IDP (42%) and non-displaced households (25%).

While displaced households might have been more reliant on markets than non-displaced households, displaced households also sligthly more commonly reported having faced barriers accessing markets. One-third (32%) of displaced households reported having faced barriers to consistently access markets in the 30 days prior to data collection, compared to 25% of non-displaced households, most of whom reported markets being too far and/or transportation being too expensive as the main challenges. Barriers were particularly commonly reported by IDP households in Katsina (48%), where barriers appeared to divert from the overall most reported barriers; instead of distance and traveling costs, according to IDP households in Katsina, the main access barriers concerned insecurity. Roughly one in four IDP households in Katsina reported insecurity traveling to the marketplace (25%) and/or insecurity at the marketplace (23%) as the main barriers (compared to only 6% and 5% overall, respectively), echoing previous findings on reported security concerns limiting access to education and water sources among IDPs in Katsina.

In addition, further reflecting the higher market depency and the generally lower incomes among IDP households laid out in the previous section, as well as the food security shocks described by FEWS NET, **IDP households also more commonly reported having faced difficulties or shocks in the 6 months prior to data collection (76%) than non-displaced households (46%)**, with the types of shock experienced also differing considerably (see Figure 8). Among those households who had reportedly experienced shocks, the vast majority of IDP households (93%) and non-displaced households (82%) **reported those shocks had affected their ability to access food and had caused hunger in the household** (85% of IDP and 68% of non-displaced households, respectively).

Figure 9: Most reported types of shocks experienced in the 6 months prior to data collection, by % of IDP and non-displaced households

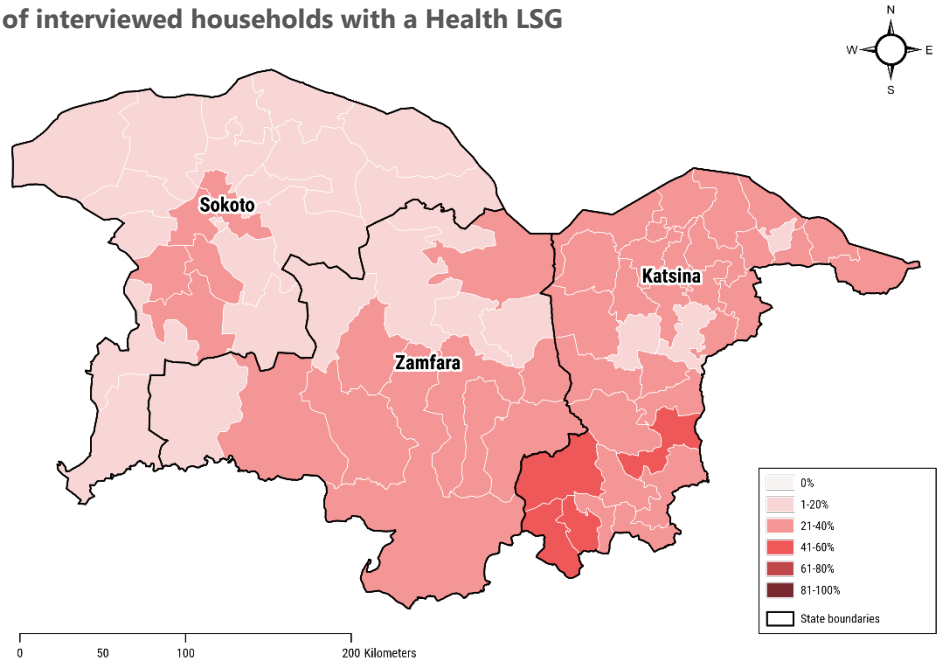


Moreover, **the proportion of IDP households reporting not having had enough food in their household at any time in the 30 days prior to data collection was nearly twice as high as the proportion of non-displaced households reporting this (67% vs 38%).** Among households reporting not having had sufficient food, IDPs also twice as commonly reported this had happened "often" (i.e., at least 10 times in the 30 days prior to data collection) than non-displaced households (21% vs 10%).

In the latest SMART Survey data (July - August, 2022)[31] covering Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara, Severe Acute Malnutrition (SAM) rates are well above emergency thresholds and regressing over time. In Katsina, SAM prevalence stands at 3.1%[32], (up from 0.9% in 2021[33]); in Sokoto, at 3.3%[34] (similar to 3.3% in 2021[35]); and in Zamfara, at 1.7%[36] (up from 1.4% in 2021[37]). Across the three states, 57 out of 71 LGAs[38] (80%) have SAM rates above the emergency threshold of 2%. Similarly distressing findings can be found under Global Acute Malnutrition (GAM), with prevalence in Katsina at 13.5%[39] (up from 6.5% in 2021[40]); in Sokoto at 14.2%[41] (similar to 14.2% in 2021[42]); and in Zamfara at 9.5%[43] (up from 9.0% in 2021[44]). In all LGAs of Zamfara and half of the LGAs of Katsina, GAM rates are above the emergency threshold of 10%[45]. Lastly, the under-five (U5) mortality rate in Katsina stands at 0.81 deaths per 10,000 U5 children per day[46]; in Sokoto, it stands at 1.21[47]; and in Zamfara at 1.73[48]. Many LGAs have rates above the 1.00 emergency rate, and pockets of Zamfara – namely Zurmi, Kaura Namoda, Birnin Magaji, Shinkafi, and Bakura LGA – have rates above 2.00[49].

Health

Map 7: % of interviewed households with a Health LSG



[31] UNICEF. 2022 Smart Survey in Katsina, Sokoto and Zamfara. Technical Presentation.
[32] UNICEF. 2022 Smart Survey in Katsina, Sokoto and Zamfara. Presentation. p.5.
[33] Ibidem.
[34] Ibidem.
[35] Ibidem.
[36] Ibidem.
[37] Ibidem.
[38] Ibidem.
[39] Ibid. p.6.
[40] Ibidem.
[41] Ibidem.
[42] Ibidem.
[43] Ibidem.
[44] Ibidem.
[45] Ibid. p.9.
[46] Ibidem.
[47] Ibidem.
[48] Ibidem.
[49] Ibidem.

Analysis suggests that the MSNA tool was insuficiently nuanced to allow for a granular overview of health-related needs, with indications that some indicators were misinterpreted and under-reported by some survey respondents. As a result, the Health LSG ought to be used with caution and triangulated with other data sources. Still, findings from individual indicators hint at the high public health risks borne by limited access to improved WASH, inadequate shelters, and lack of access to food and money, as well as a common experience of healthcare needs among households, particularly in Zamfara.

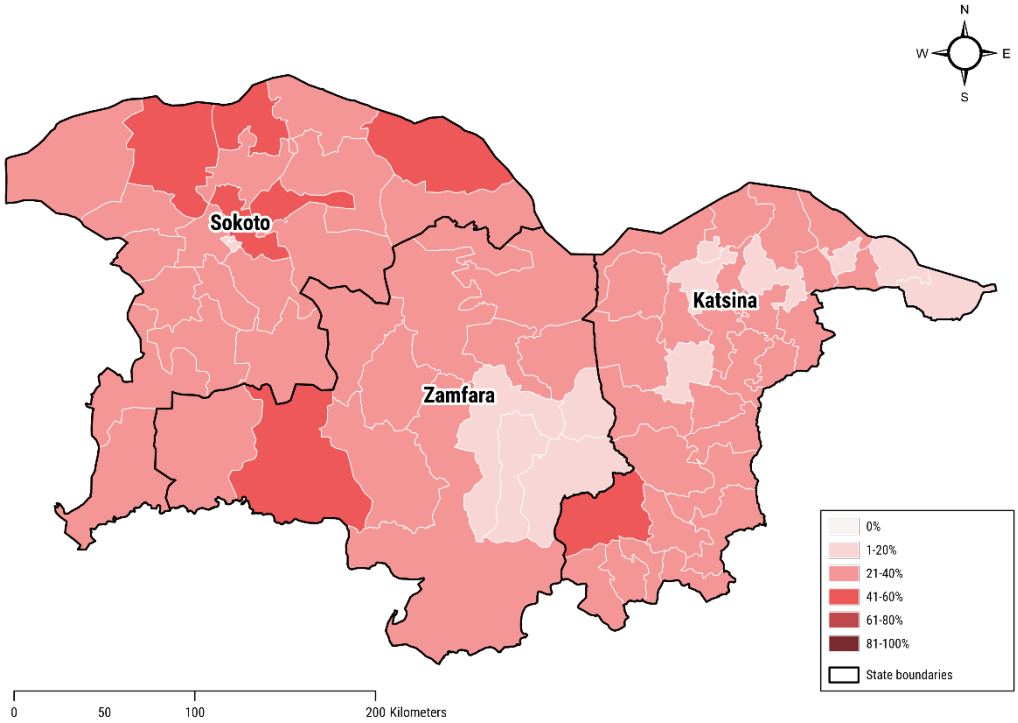
Access to primary healthcare is reportedly limited throughout the Northwest, with Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara being among the country's poorest performing states when it comes to primary healthcare provision, according to a recent report by a consortium of health providers and governing agencies in Nigeria.[50] Key indicators in this report point towards low vaccination coverage (46% and 36% of eligible children had received BCG vaccines in Katsina and Sokoto, decreasing to 17% in Zamfara) and a low proportion of women with livebirths having received antenatal care or having been assisted by a skilled health worker during delivery, while at least 1 in every 9 facilities were found to not be equiped to offer basic primary healthcare or required repairs.[51] Perhaps reflective of this, **30% of IDP households interviewed for the MSNA reported not being able to access healthcare facilities in their current location**, something that was particularly commonly reported by IDP households in Zamfara (41%). Moreover, 46% of households in Zamfara reported "how to access medical care" as a type of information they needed from humanitarian providers (followed by 32% of households in Katsina and 17% in Sokoto) and **1 in 3 households overall reported healthcare and/or medicine among their top 3 priority needs (34%).**

Against this backdrop, recent press releases by Médicins Sans Frontières (MSF), one of the few healthcare providers operating in the region, suggest a potentially high prevalence of malnutrition[52] and preventable diseases,[53] reportedly associated with a lack of access to food, safe drinking water, adequate shelter, and a low vaccination coverage.[54] Further assessments are necessary to determine the full scope and severity of morbidity as well as the extent of service infrastructure and accessibility.

[50] ONE Campaign, N4H, Nigeria Health Watch, PPDC, CMS, WB/IFC, FCDO, BHCPF. (2022) The State of the primary healthcare service delivery in Nigeria (2019-2021).
[51] Ibid.
[52] MSF (September 2022). UN's 2023 humanitarian response plan for Nigeria must address extraordinarily high numbers of children with malnutrition in North West region.
[53] MSF (June 2021). Zamfara state gripped by humanitarian crisis as violence escalates.
[54] Ibid.

Protection

Map 8: % of interviewed households with a Protection LSG



Insecurity is spiralling in the Northwest, likely contributing to an erosion of livelihoods and access to basic needs (see Analysis Deep-dive, Conflict). However, while conflict evidently impacts humanitarian needs in the region, protection needs themselves have proven hard to measure through the MSNA. This is likely due to the fact that protection needs might be better analysed at the area level rather than a household level; households might not be directly impacted by security incidents, yet their exposure to protection risks might still indicate needs in the protection domain.[55] Moreover, previous assessments in other contexts have highlighted that protection indicators might be more prone to under-reporting due to the sensitive nature of some of the questions.

Yet despite the methodological limitations, one in four households (25%) across the three states was categorised with a protection LSG, rising to nearly one in two displaced households (42%). Reflecting the relatively common reports of security concerns preventing access to basic needs and services (including education, markets, and improved WASH) among IDP households in Katsina (see previous sections), IDP households in Katsina were comparatively more commonly found to have protection needs (52%).

Protection LSGs were mainly driven by households reporting having been affected by safety and/or security events in the month prior to data collection. This was considerably more often reported by IDP households (34%) than non-displaced households (9%), and was most often reported by **IDP households in Katsina** (46%). Moreover, IDP households in Katsina also more often reported perceiving that household members had suffered and/or showed signs of distress in the 3 months prior

[55] Acknowledging this limitation, REACH will be working closely with protection experts to refine the tools and evaluate if and how best to assess protection needs at the household level for future MSNAs,

to data collection (47%) than displaced households in Sokoto (25%) and Zamfara (29%), as well as non-displaced households (20%).

Among households who reported any members having been affected by safety and/or security incidents in the 30 days prior to data collection, **the most reported types of incidents were physical violence, armed attacks, killings, and sexual violence** (including rape, attempted rape, and harassment), reflecting the considerably violent impact of the region's insecurity on local populations also reported by partners.[56]

Despite the reported security incidents, findings suggest that access to courts and formal judiciary systems was limited, with only 23% of non-displaced households and 19% of displaced households reporting being able to access such services. Instead, households more commonly reported being able to access police (50%) or community leaders (70%) for conflict mitigation or resolution purposes if needed, with little differences between population groups and states.

Considering insecurity being the main reported reason for recent displacement among displaced households, protection needs are likely higher in areas that were not accessible for data collection.[57]

4. Vulnerable groups

Further analysis suggest that some demographic groups are particularly vulnerable and more commonly face more severe gaps. Findings for this analysis are based on relatively small subsets that are not representative of the population with a known level of precision and should be perceived as indicative only. With vulnerability being an inherently complex and context-sensitive dynamic that cannot be fully captured by household surveys, additional in-depth assessments are required to further contextualise, nuance, and triangulate quantitative findings.

Table 4: % of households per vulnerability of the head of household per MSNI and LSG severity score

	MSNI	Cash & ERL	Food Security	Health	WASH	Shelter & NFI	Protection	Education
No vulnerability								
Displaced (n=794)	98%	49%	61%	18%	77%	84%	39%	69%
Non-displaced (n=7431)	95%	31%	35%	19%	68%	76%	23%	64%
Single head of household								
Displaced (n=33)	100%	73%	100%	43%	99%	92%	50%	50%
Non-displaced (n=143)	100%	40%	69%	28%	87%	83%	43%	43%
Head of household with a disability, based on Washington Group[58]								
Displaced (n=235)	99%	58%	88%	33%	86%	93%	71%	71%
Non-displaced (n=1002)	97%	40%	50%	31%	74%	83%	28%	28%
Head of household with a debt exceeding monthly income 3x								
Displaced (n=266)	100%	57%	85%	36%	87%	88%	54%	78%
Non-displaced (n=1203)	99%	45%	63%	36%	74%	86%	30%	30%

[56] UNHCR & Government of Nigeria (January 2021). Protection monitoring report Katsina, Sokoto and Zamfara.
[57] Ibid.
[58] Washington Group on Disability Statistics. Question sets: WG Short Set on Functioning.

Overall, while IDP households were more commonly categorised with LSGs in Food Security and Protection than non-displaced households, findings from the vulnerability analysis seem to suggest that certain types of vulnerabilities of the head of household minimise this difference, driving high severity scores among non-displaced households in these particular sectors as well. Among non-displaced households reporting having a single head of household (n=143), 69% were found to have a food security LSG, compared to 39% of non-displaced households overall. Similarly, 43% of these households had protection needs, compared to 25% overall. Further analysis suggests these findings were particularly driven by high severity scores among non-displaced households with single female household heads (n=91), among whom 73% and 55% were found to have food security and protection LSGs, respectively.

In addition, overlapping vulnarabilities can further compound needs among households. For instance, female-headed displaced households interviewed for this MSNA were facing considerably higher severity scores in some sectors compared to households that were not female-headed, although subsets for this sample were too small to make meaningful conclusions. Further research into the gender dimension of vulnerability and resilience in the Northwest of Nigeria could be considered to improve the evidence base and support inclusive programming.

5. Assistance and Accountability to Affected Populations (AAP)

Receipt of assistance

In contrast to the northeast, the Northwest is not included in the Humanitarian Programe Cycle (HPC), partly due to the situation's root causes being primarily seen as development issues[59], and humanitarian focus on the region has thus been limited.[60] While UNICEF and a forum of INGOs present in the region informally coordinate the response to growing humanitarian needs, most capacity and resources are directed towards the humanitarian response in the northeast.

As a likely result, **despite the complex and severe humanitarian conditions indicated by the findings in the previous sections, findings suggest affected populations have generally not received assistance to support them in meeting their needs and dealing with shocks**. Nearly all households (89%) reported not remembering ever having received assistance, with only 6% reporting having received assistance in the 6 months prior to data collection, with little variance between states or between non-displaced and displaced communities. Likely reflecting the limited presence of aid providers in the region, the lack of aid providers (28%) and the lack of information on how to receive aid and/or where distributions took place (16%) were the most reported barriers to accessing humanitarian assistance in the 6 months prior to data collection. Moreover, the majority of households (84%) reported never having been consulted about the types of assistance they would like to receive.

Among households reporting having received some type of assistance (10%, n=1,384), the most reported types of assistance received were food (46%) and physical cash (41%), followed by general NFIs (20%), which households mostly reported having received from the government (51%). While the majority of households that had received aid reported having been satisfied, around 1 in 4 households reported not having been satisfied (26%). These households most commonly explained their dissatisfaction by mentioning that the assistance had not been of sufficient quantity to meet their needs (64%); some households also reported that the assistance had not been timely (27%, particularly reported among IDP households (74%)).

[59] OCHA (January 2022). Nigeria Humanitarian Needs Overview
[60] Ibid.

Preferences and priority needs

Households' preferred types of assistance appear to be largely aligned with their needs profiles described in the previous sections; food (83%), physical cash (70%), shelter materials (38%), and NFIs (33%) were the most reported types of assistance households would like to receive in the future. In addition, 17% of households reported wanting to receive services (e.g., education, healthcare, etc.).

Reflecting the region's insecurity, findings suggest that protection concerns could factor into aid preferences in the region. Households who reported wanting to receive material assistance (n=9,719) relatively commonly contributed this preference to the perceived insecurity when accessing markets (10%) or concerns about carrying cash (5%), both of which were more commonly reported by displaced households (19% and 11%, respectively). On the other hand, households wanting to receive cash assistance (n=7,793) reported preferring cash due to the freedom of choice associated with this type of aid (76%), the ability to save money (43%), and the easy of carrying it around (39%). The differences in assistance preferences and concerns might root from local variances in the security context and the personal situations of affected households, **highlighting the need for a contextualised approach to humanitarian assistance in the region, designed in close consultation with local communities.**

Households' main priority needs further align with their preferences in terms of types of assistance and their needs profiles. **Food, cash, and shelter were commonly reported priority needs across states**, **reported by both displaced and non-displaced households**. All three options were the most reported first and second priority needs and featured among the top 4 most reported third priority needs (together with healthcare).

Table 5: Top 10 most reported first priority needs, by % of households per state, population group, and overall

	Katsina	Sokoto	Zamfara	IDP	Non-IDP	Overall
Food	32%	42%	38%	32%	37%	36%
Cash	30%	29%	27%	18%	31%	29%
Shelter	15%	13%	12%	27%	12%	14%
Water	8%	6%	7%	8%	7%	7%
Healthcare	4%	6%	8%	7%	5%	6%
Livelihoods support	6%	1%	0%	4%	3%	3%
Help with childcare/Education	2%	1%	3%	2%	2%	2%
No needs	0%	0%	2%	0%	1%	1%
Clothes	1%	0%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Sanitation/hygiene NFIs	0%	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%

Communication and information needs

In addition to assistance needs, households also commonly reported wanting to receive information from assistance providers. Households' most reported information needs seem to further reflect the lack of access to food, WASH, and shelter suggested by the findings in previous sections.

Indeed, the most commonly reported information needs can be broadly categorised into information needs related to accessing basic needs and services, general news about the (security) situation, and how to cope with insecurity and violence. Overall, 56% of households reported wanting to receive information on how to get food, which was followed by how to access assistance (46%), and how to get water (37%). Other commonly reported needs in this category included how to

access medical attention (30%), shelter materials (26%), and education (23%). News on what is happening in the community (including the security information) (26%) or at home (22%) were also commonly reported information gaps, perhaps indicative of a more general lack of information in the region. Lastly, 12% and 17% of households, respectively, reported wanting to receive information specifically on how to get help after an attack or harassment and how to prevent attacks or harrassment, which was particularly commonly reported in Zamfara (20% and 30%, respectively).

Households most commonly reported wanting to receive information about humanitarian aid from their community leader (73%), in places of worship (36%), or through aid workers working with international organisations (30%). In-person communication, phone calls, and loudspeakers were the most reported preferred means of receiving information about assistance. **Findings suggest that information and services of any type are generally disseminated to and within local communities in the local language, aligned with the preferences and abilities of households in the region.** Only 11% of households reported that at least one household member was able to read, speak, and write in English.

Figure 10: Top five most reported types of information households reported wanting to receive from assistance providers, by % of households per state

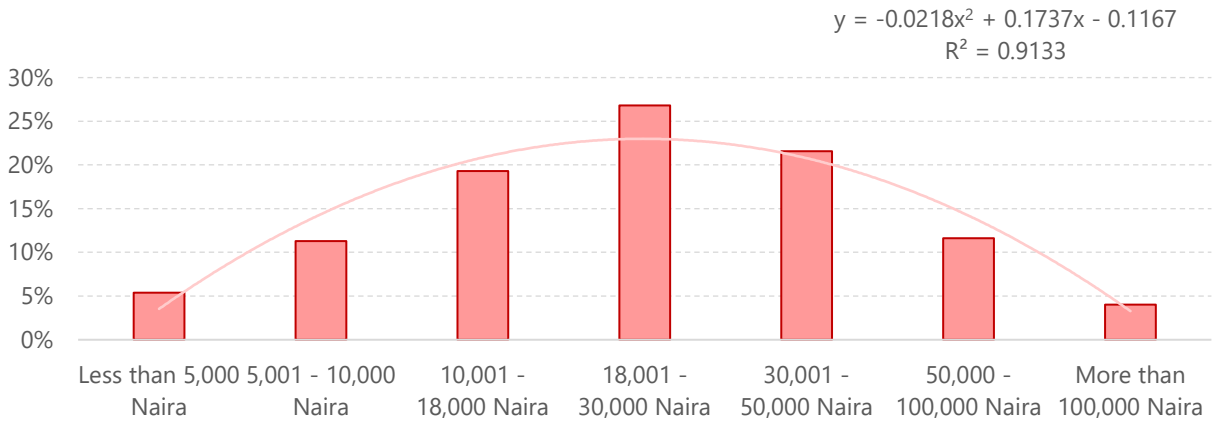
	Katsina	Sokoto	Zamfara
1	How to get food (63%)	News on what is happening here (including security situation) (46%)	How to get food (76%)
2	How to register for assistance (61%)	How to get food (37%)	How to get water (52%)
3	How to get water (46%)	How to register for assistance (31%)	How to get shelter/shelter materials (40%)
4	How to get shelter/shelter materials (32%) & How to access healthcare (32%)	News on what is happening at home (including security situation) (19%) & How to get water (19%)	How to register for assistance (39%)
5	How to access education (30%) & how to find work (30%)	How to access healthcare (13%)	How to access education (33%)

ANALYSIS DEEPDIVE: The Hypothesised Poverty-Climate-Conflict Nexus

Northwest Nigeria is plagued by chronic poverty. In the *Nigeria Poverty Assessment 2022* published by the World Bank,[61] a grim picture of poverty in Nigeria is painted, and while analysing macroeconomic data from the last few years, the authors conclude that inclusive economic growth remains elusive, with population growth having outstripped real economic growth since the recession of 2016.[62] This adverse divergence seems accentuated to the country's northern regions, as the spatial distribution of inequality remains to the region's disfavour.[63] Indeed, in 2019, the Nigerian National Bureau of Statistics, via the Nigerian Living Standards Survey (NLSS), estimated that roughly 56% of persons in Katsina State, 74% of persons in Zamfara State, and 88% of persons in Sokoto State were living below the monetary poverty line[64] – percentages that are considerably higher than the estimated national average of 40%.[65]

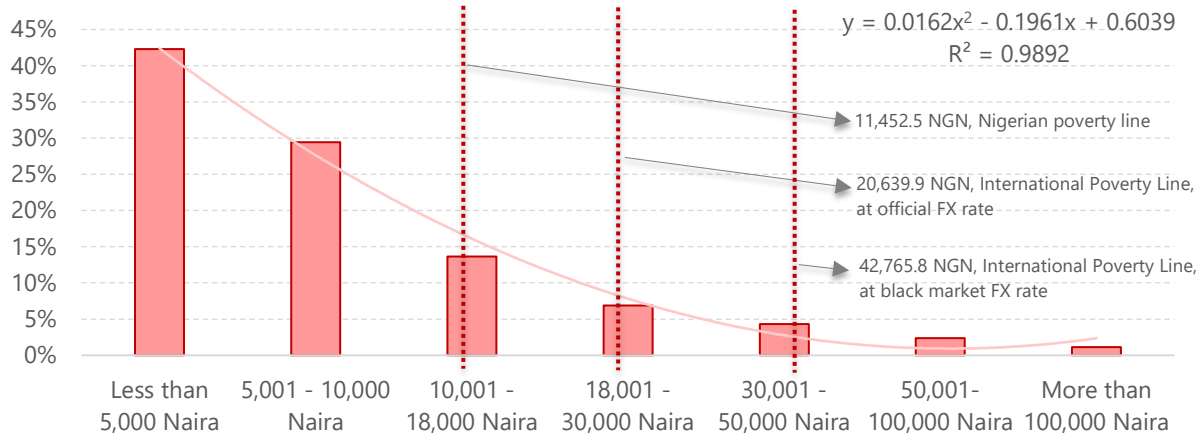
At the time, the Nigerian poverty line was set at 137,430 Naira.[66] At an exchange rate of 0.0028[67], this translates to 385 USD per person per year; or alternatively, 1.05 USD per person per day.[68] When juxtaposed against the international poverty line of 1.90 USD set by the World Bank,[69] the already high poverty rates of Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara State appear to reach more distressing heights still.

Figure 11: Distribution of monthly household income - % of households per income bracket



[61] World Bank. (2022). A Better Future for All Nigerians: Nigeria Poverty Assessment 2022.
[62] Ibid. p. 2.
[63] National Bureau of Statistics. (2019). Poverty and inequality in Nigeria. p.7.
[64] Ibid. pp. 12-16.
[65] Ibid. p. 14.
[66] Ibid, p. 5.
[67] See Nigerian Naira to US Dollar Spot Exchange Rates for 2019
[68] The Dollar figures would be lower still when utilising the black market rate.
[69] World Bank. (2015). World Bank Forecasts Global Poverty to Fall Below 10% for First Time; Major Hurdles Remain in Goal to End Poverty by 2030. *World Bank Press Release*.

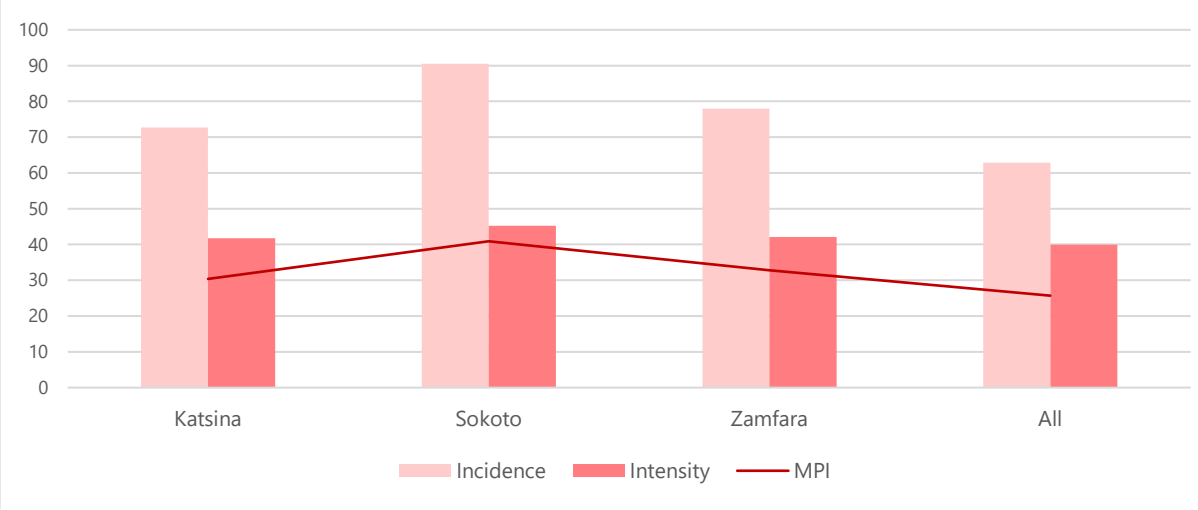
Figure 12: Distribution of monthly income - % of persons per income bracket



Following the work of the Oxford Poverty & Humanitarian Development Initiative (OPHDI) and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), monetary poverty – as stipulated in the above paragraph – can be complemented by the multi-dimensional poverty index (MPI). The MPI approaches poverty through the measurement of the prevalence and intensity of poverty across dimensions of Health (incl. Nutrition, Food Security, and Time to healthcare), Education (School attendance, Years of schooling, and School lag), and Living Standards (Water, Water reliability, Sanitation, Housing material). In 2022, the National Bureau of Statistics published the 2022 Nigeria Multidimensional Poverty Index report.[70] In this report, the MPI for Katsina was estimated at 0.304[71] (raked 23th of all 37 states[72]), for Sokoto at 0.409[73] (37th/37 states), and for Zamfara at 0.328[74] (29th/37 states), where 0 reflects "no poverty" and 1 denoting "universal poverty and deprivation".[75] MPIs for the Northwest thus appear significantly higher than the national average of 0.257.[76] Assuming a poverty cut-off point of 26%[77], as set by the authors of the report, 72.7%[78] of people living in Katsina, 90.5%[79] living in Sokoto, and 78.0%[80] living in Zamfara were estimated to be multi-dimensionally poor. Those who are multi-dimensionally poor in Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara suffer from 41.7%[81], 45.2%[82], and 42.1%[83] of all possible deprivations, respectively.

[70] Nigeria Bureau of Statistics (2022). Nigeria Multidimensional Poverty Index.
[71] Ibid. Annex D6.
[72] 37 States are aggregated from the 36 states and the Federal Territory of Abuja.
[73] Nigeria Bureau of Statistics (2022). Nigeria Multidimensional Poverty Index.
[74] Ibid. Annex D6.
[75] Ibid.
[76] Ibid. p. 22.
[77] Ibid. p. 13.
[78] Ibid. Annex D6.
[79] Ibid.
[80] Ibid.
[81] Ibid.
[82] Ibid.
[83] Ibid.

Figure 13: Multi-Dimensional Poverty Index, Incidence, and Intensity



Poverty & humanitarian needs

Against the backdrop of the high levels of monetary and multi-dimensional poverty, the MSNA data can be disaggregated to better understand the relationship between monetary poverty and humanitarian needs. Drawing on self-reported household income levels (a proxy for welfare/utility) and sectoral LSGs, the data shows that for the sectors of Cash & ERL, Food security & Nutrition, Health, WASH, and Shelter & NFI, the percentage of households in lower income brackets with severe or extreme needs is generally higher than the percentage of households in higher income brackets.

Table 5: % of households with LSGs by income bracket

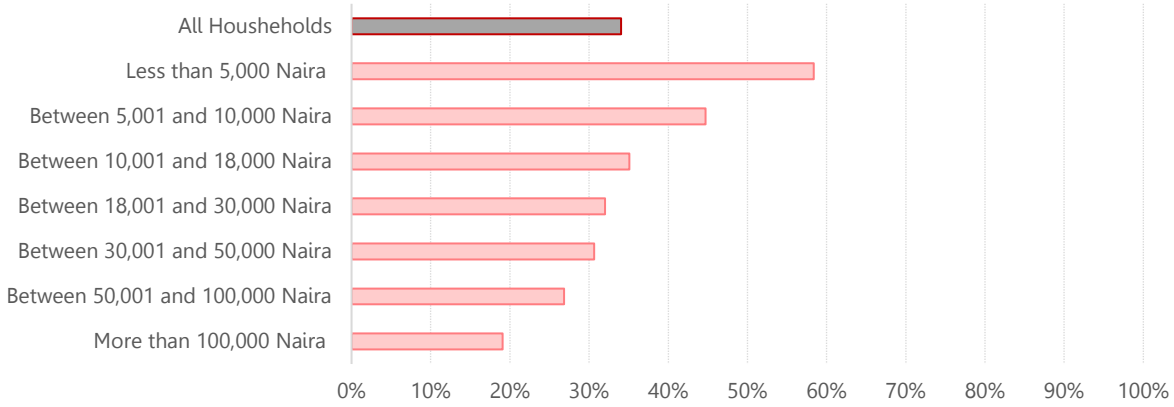
Income Bracket (NGN)	LSG in Cash & ERL	LSG in Food Security & Nutrition	LSG in Health	LSG in WASH	LSG in Shelter & NFIs	LSG in Protection	LSG in Education
Less than 5,000	58%	57%	30%	83%	87%	31%	63%
5,001 – 10,000	45%	48%	28%	77%	85%	25%	65%
10,001 – 18,000	35%	41%	23%	78%	87%	28%	62%
18,001 – 30,000	32%	41%	21%	74%	81%	26%	66%
30,001 – 50,000	31%	39%	21%	67%	74%	24%	67%
50,001 – 100,000	27%	32%	21%	55%	64%	22%	68%
More than 100,000	19%	28%	14%	51%	54%	28%	60%

Early Recovery & Livelihoods (ERL)

The proportion of interviewed households with an ERL LSG appears higher in low-income brackets, and lower in high income brackets. Specifically, the proportion of households with an ERL LSG in the lowest income bracket of 5,000 Naira per household per month, was found to be **1.71 times as high as the mean proportion of households, and 3.06 times as high as the proportion of households with an**

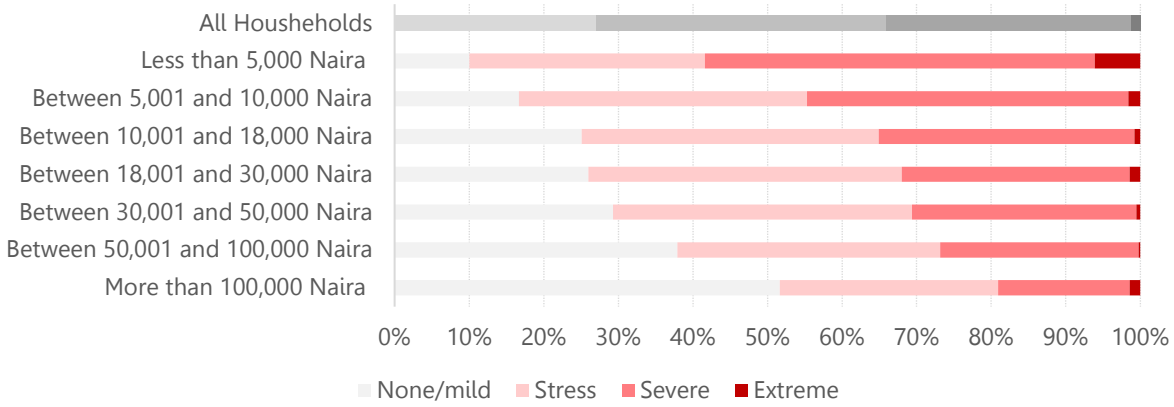
ERL LSG in the highest income bracket of over 100,000 Naira per household per month. This differential between the lowest and highest income bracket **is especially pronounced in Zamfara where the proportion of household`s in the latter is 7.54 times as high as the former**.

Figure 14: % of households with a Cash and ERL LSG, by income bracket



When looking beyond LSGs, and more closely at the full spectrum of severity of humanitarian needs, the trend appears to continue across none/mild, stress, and severe levels of ERL needs. The proportion of households with **no or a mild need in ERL amongst the lowest income bracket is 5.15 times as low as the proportion of households in the highest income bracket**. Inversely, the proportion of households with **a stressed or severe humanitarian need in ERL in the lowest income bracket is 1.08 and 2.96 times as high** as the proportion of households in the highest income bracket, respectively.

Figure 15: Severity spectrum by income bracket, for the ERL sector

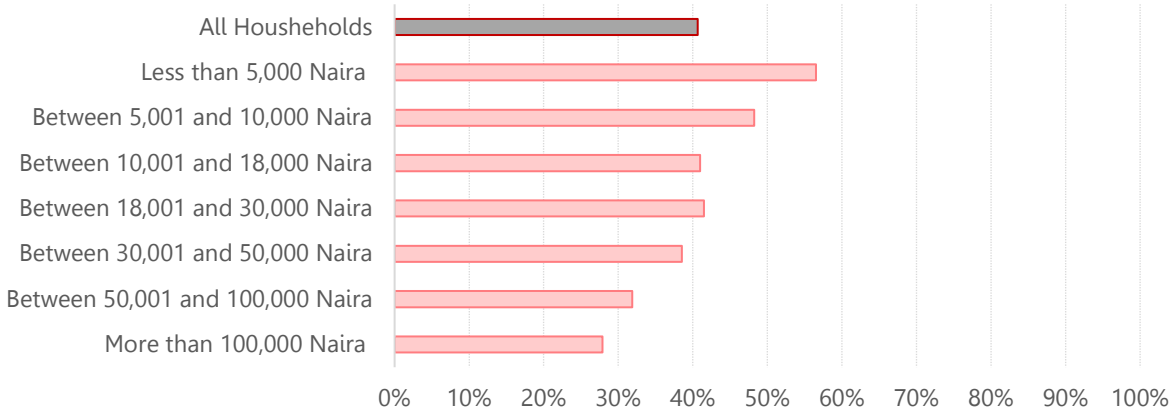


Food Security & Nutrition

There appears a mild trend where the proportion of households with a Food Security & Nutrition LSG is higher in low-income brackets, and lower in high-income brackets. Specifically, the proportion of households with a Food Security & Nutrition LSG in the lowest income bracket of 5,000 Naira per household per month, is **1.39 times as high as the mean proportion of households, and 2.03 times as high as the proportion of households with a Food Security & Nutrition LSG in the highest income bracket** of over 100,000 Naira per household per month. The trend disappears when looking

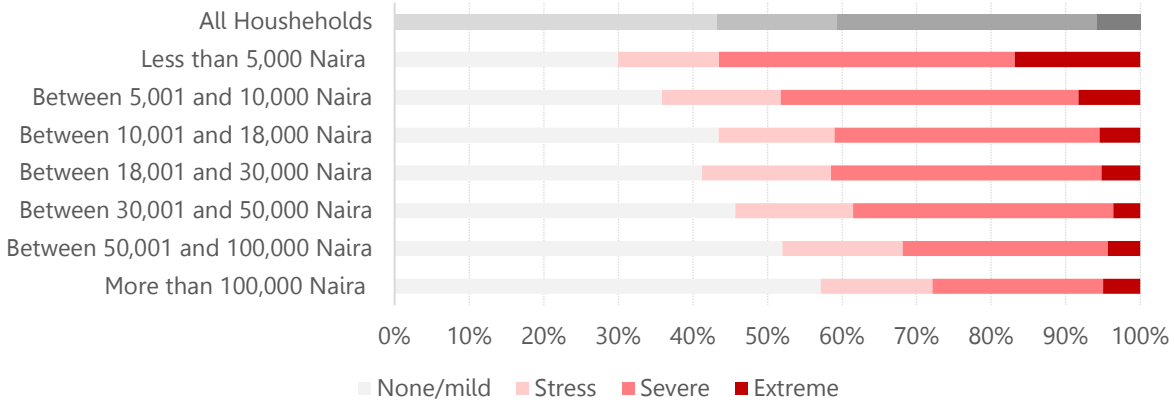
exclusively at IDP populations, where similar proportions of households across income brackets have a Food Security & Nutrition LSG, with the average significantly higher at 72%.

Figure 16: % of households with a Food security & Nutrition LSGs by income bracket



When looking beyond LSGs, and more closely at the full spectrum of severity of humanitarian needs, the mild trend appears to continue. The proportion of households with **no or a mild and stressed LSG score in Food Security & Nutrition amongst the lowest income bracket is 1.91 and 1.11 times as low as the proportion of households in the highest income bracket, respectively**. Inversely, the proportion of households with **severe or extreme Food Security & Nutrition LSGs in the lowest income bracket is 1.73 times and 3.37 times as high as the proportion of households in the highest income bracket, respectively.**

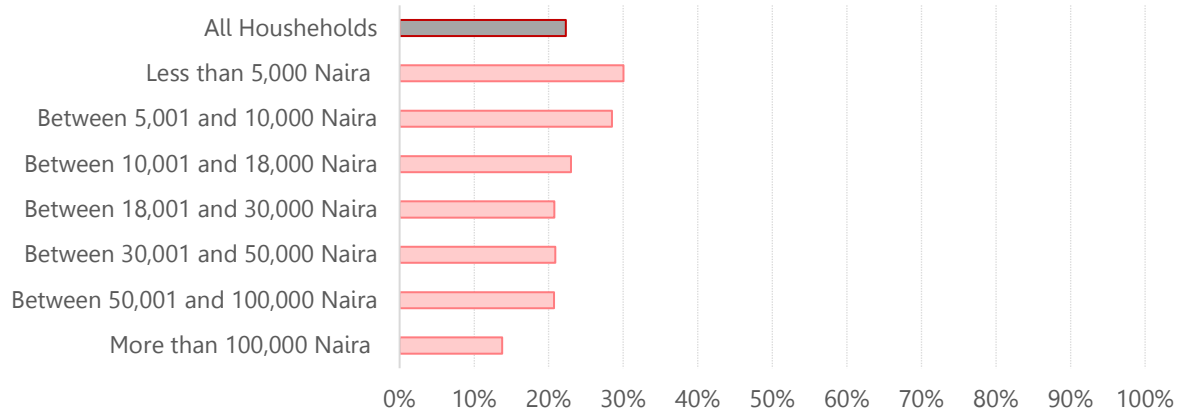
Figure 17: Severity spectrum by income bracket, for the Food Security & Nutrition sector



Health

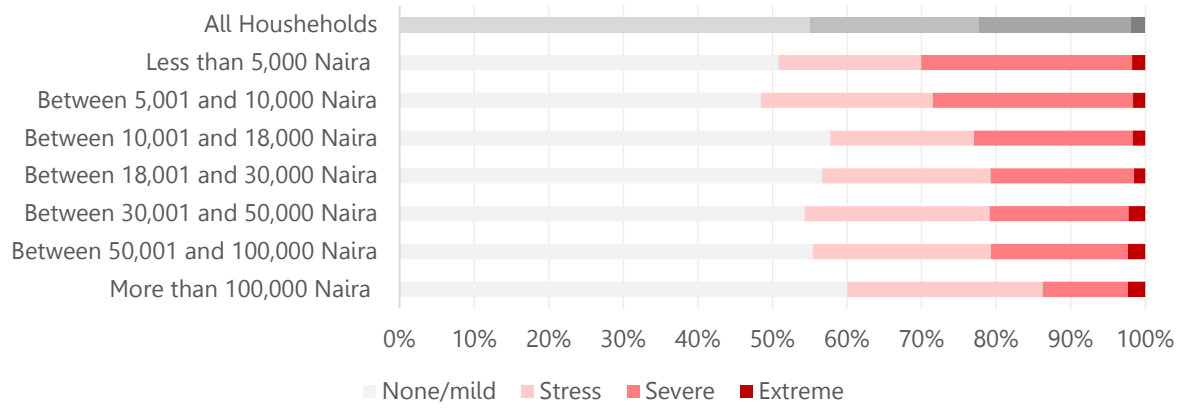
There appears a mild trend where the proportion of households with a Health LSG is higher in low-income brackets, and lower in high-income brackets. Specifically, the proportion of households with a Health LSG in the lowest income bracket of 5,000 Naira per household per month, is **1.35 times as high as the mean proportion of households, and 2.18 times as high as the proportion of households with a Health LSG in the highest income bracket** of over 100,000 Naira per household per month.

Figure 18: % of households with a Health LSGs by income bracket



When looking beyond LSGs, and more closely at the full spectrum of severity of humanitarian needs, the mild trend appears to continue, especially amongst households classified with severe Health LSGs. The proportion of households with **no or a mild, stressed, and extreme needs in Health amongst the lowest income bracket are 1.18, 1.37, and 1.32 times as low as the proportion of households in the highest income bracket, respectively**. Inversely, the proportion of households with **a severe need in Health in the lowest income bracket is 2.48 times as high** as the proportion of households in the highest income bracket.

Figure 19: Severity spectrum by income bracket, for the Health sector



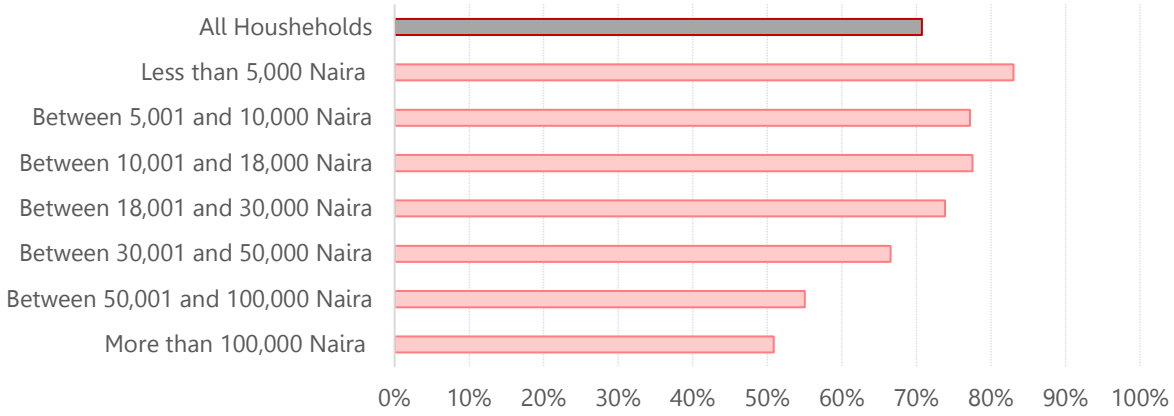
WASH

There appears a mild trend where the proportion of households with a WASH LSG is higher in low-income brackets, and lower in high-income brackets. Specifically, the proportion of households with a WASH LSG in the lowest income bracket of 5,000 Naira per household per month, is **1.17 times as high as the mean proportion of households, and 1.63 times as high as the proportion of households with a WASH LSG in the highest income bracket** of over 100,000 Naira per household per month.

While the proportion of households with a WASH LSG in the higher income brackets is largely the same amongst non-displaced and IDP households; in the lower income brackets, the proportion of IDP households with a WASH LSG (73%) was considerably higher than the proportion of non-displaced households (50%). **This may suggest that while higher income may be an enabler for many non-**

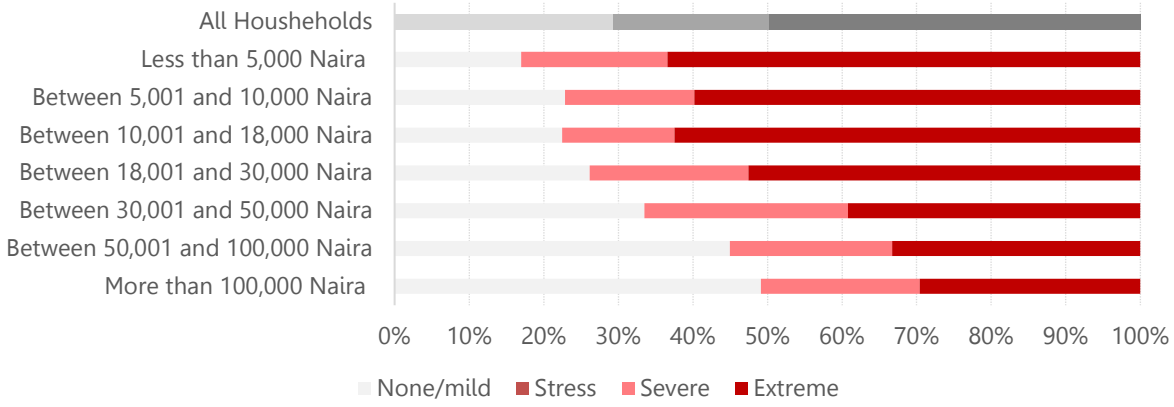
displaced households to lower their WASH needs, the vulnerabilities associated with being displaced could continue to inhibit IDP households from doing so to the same extent.

Figure 20: % of households with a WASH LSGs by income bracket



When looking beyond LSGs, and more closely at the full spectrum of severity of humanitarian needs, the mild trend appears to continue especially amongst households classified with no/mild, and extreme WASH LSGs. The proportion of interviewed households with **no/mild and severe WASH LSGs amongst the lowest income bracket are 2.89 and 1.09 times as low as the proportion of households in the highest income bracket, respectively**. Inversely, the proportion of households with **an extreme LSG score in WASH in the lowest income bracket is 2.14 times as high** as the proportion of households in the highest income bracket.

Figure 21: Severity spectrum by income bracket, for the WASH sector

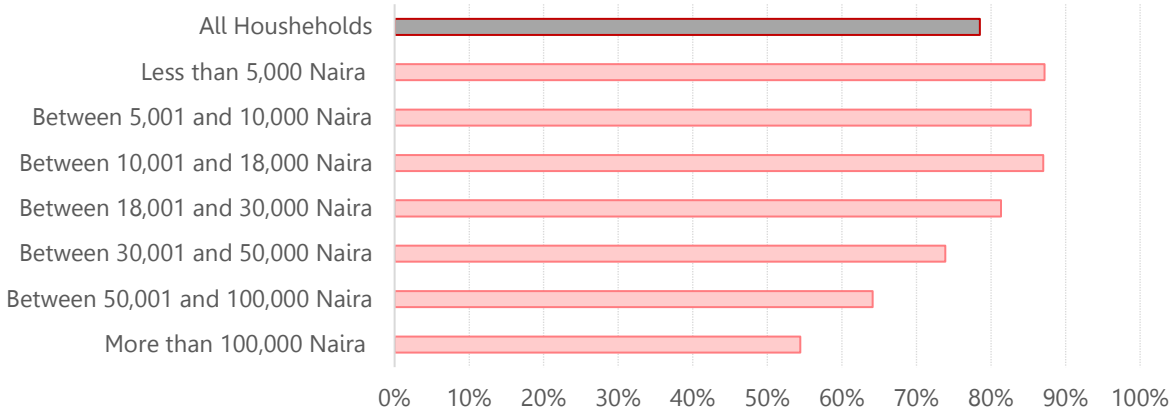


Shelter & NFI

There appears a mild trend where the proportion of households with a Shelter & NFI LSG is higher in low-income brackets, and lower in high-income brackets. Specifically, the proportion of households with a Shelter & NFI LSG in the lowest income bracket of 5,000 Naira per household per month, is **1.11 times as high as the mean proportion of households, and 1.60 times as high as the proportion of households with a Shelter & NFI LSG in the highest income bracket** of over 100,000 Naira per household per month.

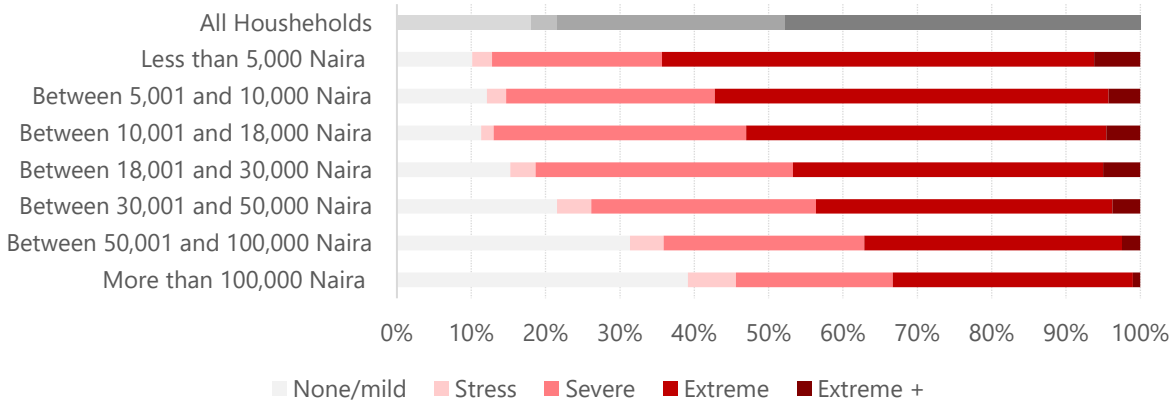
Similar to the Food Security & Nutrition and WASH sectors, while the proportion of households with a Shelter & NFI LSG in the higher income brackets is largely the same amongst non-IDP and IDP populations, in the lower income brackets, the proportion of interviewed IDP households with a Shelter & SNFI LSG is considerably higher (79%) than the proportion of non-displaced households with an LSG (54%). **This may suggest that while higher income could be an enabling factor for non-displaced households to lower their Shelter & NFI needs, the vulnerabilities associated with being displaced might inhibit IDP households from doing so to the same extent**.

Figure 22: % of households with an Shelter & NFI LSGs by income bracket



When looking beyond LSGs, and more closely at the full spectrum of severity of humanitarian needs, the mild trend appears stronger in the no and mild, and stress severity classifications. The proportion of households classified with **no/mild and stress Health LSGs amongst the lowest income bracket are 3.86 and 2.41 times as low as the proportion of households in the highest income bracket, respectively**. Inversely, the proportions of households with **a severe or extreme Shelter & NFI LSG score in the lowest income bracket are 1.08 and 1.80 times as high** as the proportion of households in the highest income bracket, respectively. Lastly, in the Shelter & NFI sector, some households were classified with "extreme+" scores (LSG of 4+), and the proportion of households **with "extreme+" scores in the lowest income bracket is 1.49 times higher than the mean proportion of households, and 6.11 times higher than the proportion of households in the highest income bracket** with a similar LSG severity score.

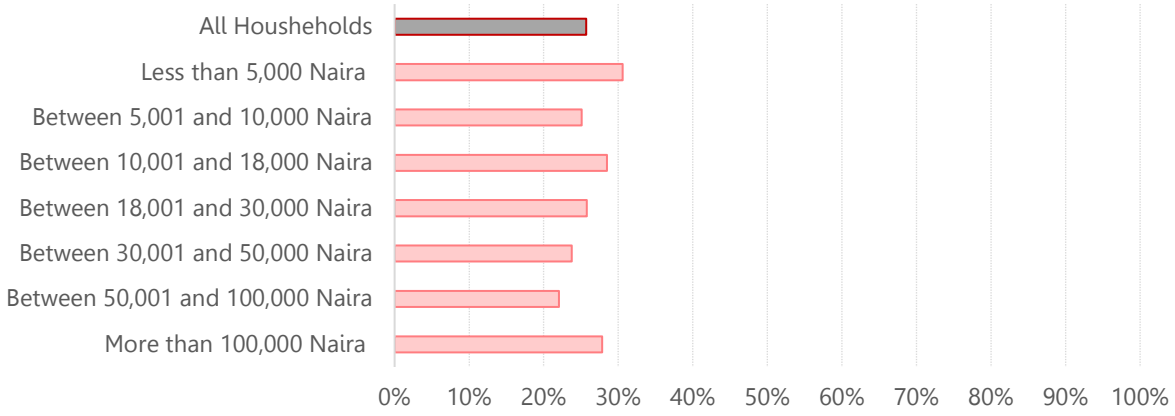
Figure 23: Severity spectrum by income bracket, for the Shelter & NFI sector



Protection

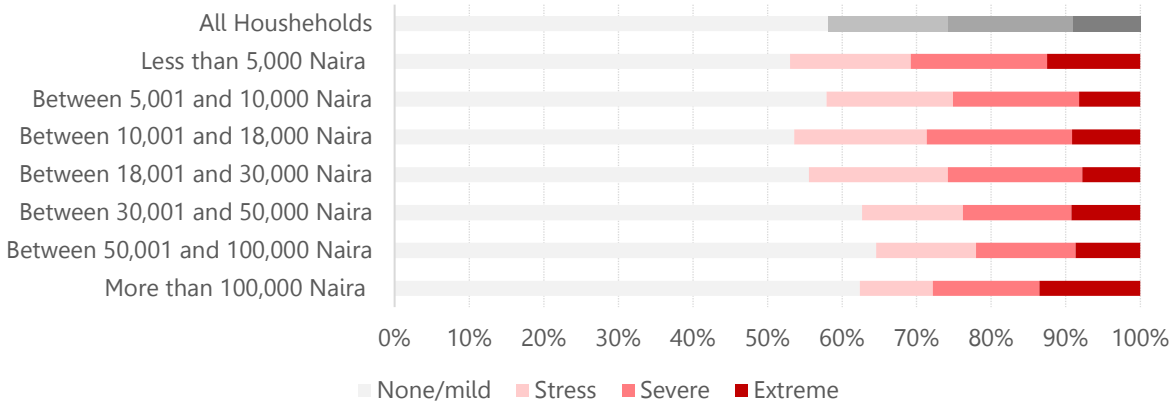
A household's monthly income does not appear to have a clear relationship with protection LSGs. As can be seen in figure 24, each income bracket approximately has a similar proportion of households with a protection LSG.

Figure 24: % of households with a Protection LSG by income bracket



In a similar vein, and as can be seen in Figure 25, no dissimilar proportion of households appear to have (a) no/mild, stressed, severe, or extreme need in protection.

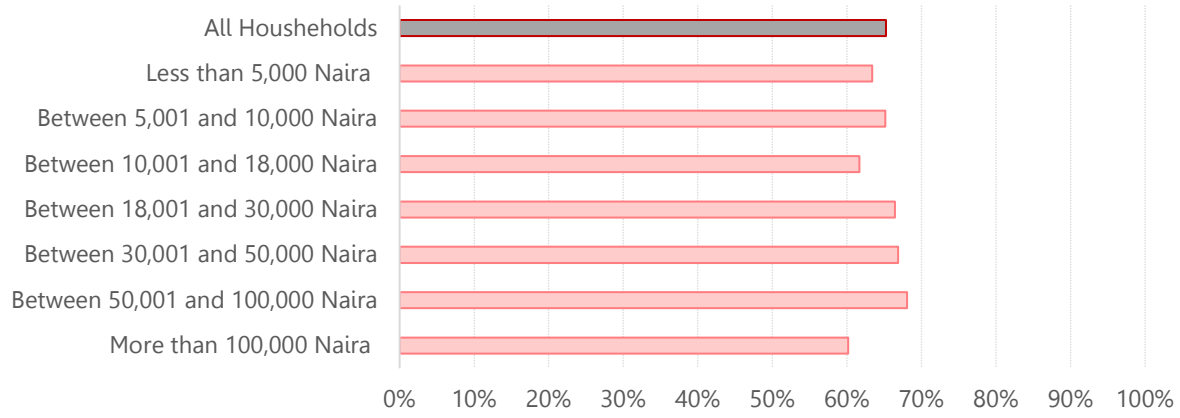
Figure 25: Severity spectrum by income bracket, for the Protection sector



Education

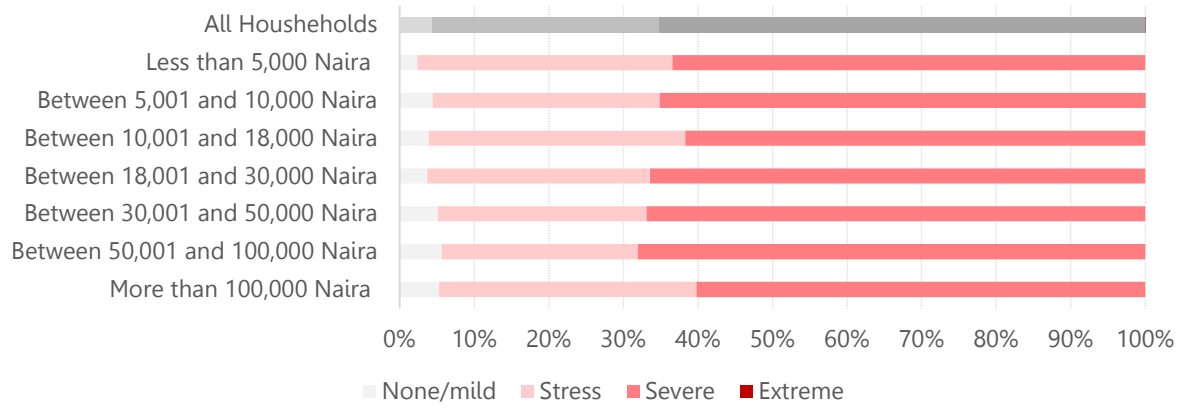
As was the case for protection needs, a household's monthly income does not appear to have a clear relationship with education LSGs. As can be seen in figure 26, each income bracket approximately has a similar proportion of household`s with an education LSG.

Figure 26: % of households with an Education LSG, by income bracket



Likewise, and as can be seen in Figure 27, no dissimilar proportion of households appear to have (a) no/mild, stressed, severe, or extreme Education LSG severity score.

Figure 27: Severity spectrum by income bracket, for the Education sector



Chi-square Tests

For all LSGs, the results of the chi-square test of independence are significant ($p < 0.05$). This means that a given LSG and the estimated overall income of a household are not independent from but related to each other in one way or another.

	Cash & ERL	Food Security & Nutrition	Health	WASH	Shelter & NFI	Protection	Education
P value	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001

The outcomes of this test, in turn, appear to support the suggestion, indicated by the data, that households in lower income brackets are more likely to face humanitarian needs across most sectors, with the exception of protection and education, where the relation between income and LSG, albeit significant, appears less clear-cut.

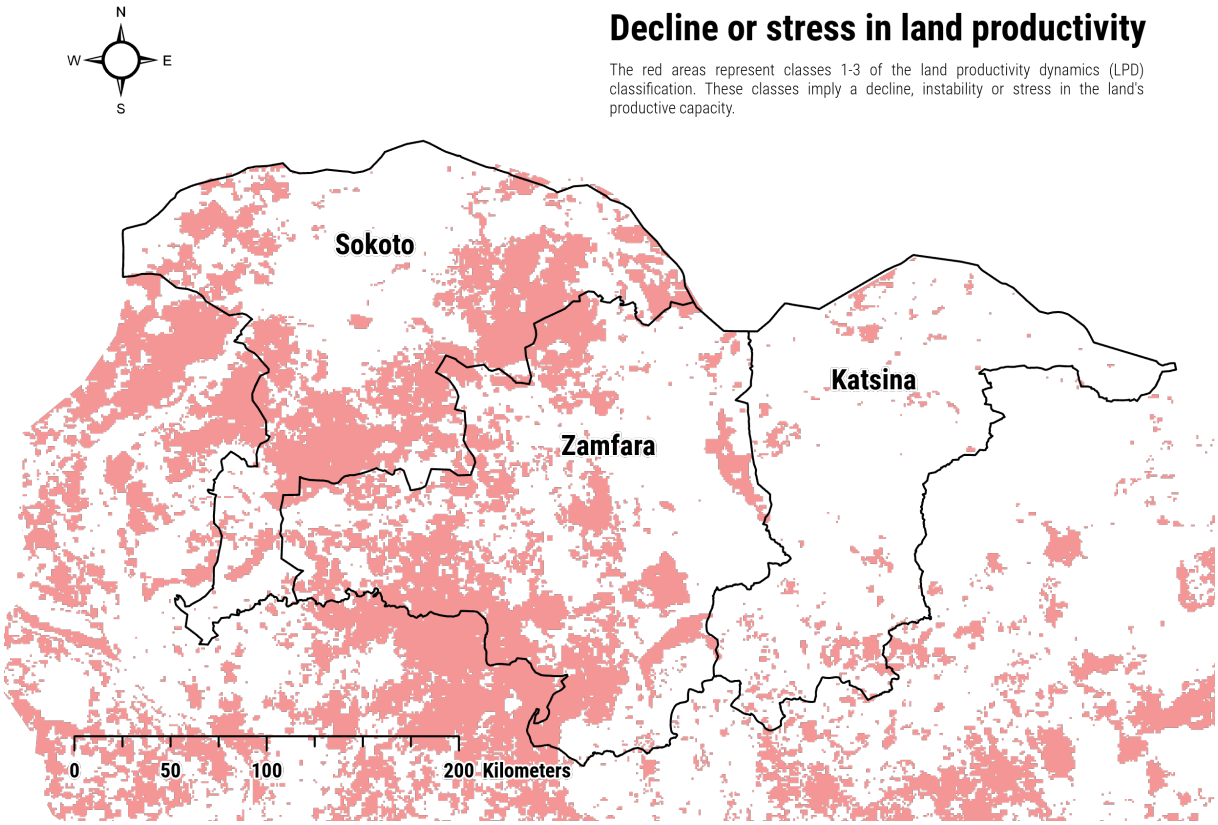
This analysis highlights the relevance of additional assessments targeted at the complex interplay between poverty and humanitarian needs in this context; indeed, further assessment is needed to

understand more granularly how various dimensions of poverty, including income, and for instance, consumption levels, impact the humanitarian needs of households in Northwest Nigeria.

Climate Change and environmental degradation

The 2019 study "Climate change in Nigeria: Impact and responses"[84] synthesises the literature on the effects of climate change on Nigeria, including Northwest Nigeria. The growing consensus appears to be that Nigeria's climate has been changing with increases in temperature, more variable rainfall, desertification and drought, land degradation, a loss of biodiversity, and more frequent extreme weather effects. Looking ahead, projections classified the North of Nigeria as especially vulnerable to climate change and, following a decline in overall precipitation and rise in temperatures, droughts are forecasted to become a constant and freshwater resources a possible scarcity.[85] As can be seen from Map 9, large swaths of the Northwest are classified to be in decline, instable or stressed.

Map 9: Decline or stress in land productivity[86]



The synthesis includes a sectoral analysis, laying out channels by which the above-mentioned trends related to climate change may negatively impact conflict, livelihoods, health, WASH, and food security. Arguably the most mature strand of research explores the relationship between climate change and the proliferation of conflict in the middle belt and North of Nigeria. While the establishment of explicit causal links remain elusive, a firm theoretic foundation exists for the supposition that climate change, via heightened competition over shrinking resources, fosters conflict. Drawing on remotely sensed data, the

[84] Haider, H. (October 2019). Climate change in Nigeria: Impacts and responses. K4D Helpdesk Report 675. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies

[85] Ibid.

[86] World Atlas of Desertification. Land Productivity Dynamics. Datasets.

authors of the Nigeria Poverty Assessment 2022,[87] put the theory to the test, and when overlapping data on fatal conflict events amongst Fulani communities with normalised difference vegetation index (NDVI) data, and conducting the analysis on a seasonal basis, there appears a clear correlation indicating that fatal conflict spikes during the lean season, when water for forage to feed animals and for rain-fed crops is scarcer.[88]

As was the case with conflict, a growing body of research cautiously suggests that climate change and its effects are negatively impacting humanitarian needs both indirectly via adverse effects on farming and animal husbandry – the livelihood of 77% (54% farmers, 23% animal husbandry) – as well as by directly inducing food shortages, reducing access to freshwater sources and fostering the proliferation of water-borne diseases such as cholera, and via higher temperatures, increasing cases of meningitis. The key difference between the effects of conflict on humanitarian needs and the effects of climate change on humanitarian needs, is that the latter also seems to exacerbate humanitarian needs via its negative impact on conflict, while the inverse does not hold true.

Conflict

The conflict of the Northwest defies easy categorisation. Farmer-herder clashes from the North-Central play their part[89]. What most Nigerians refer to as "Banditry" appears to be burgeoning in Zamfara State and spreading beyond[90]; accounts of vigilantism are on the rise,[91] and the possible Jihadist linkages and overflow from the Northeast receives much attention.[92] All the while, an influx and proliferation of weapons from across the porous border with Niger seems to be fueling the violence[93] and while grievances persist,[94] the violence carries overtones of criminality.[95]

Irrespective of the genesis, nature, or character of the conflict, it exacts a devastating toll on the populations of Northwest Nigeria. As of early 2022, an estimated 30,000 bandits[96] – more numerous than the Jihadis of the Northeast – were spread over more than 100 gangs. Given the indiscriminate nature of attacks and the apparent absence of a cohesive, strategic rationale for the violence, many Nigerians are left in the dark as to why they are being killed, attacked, kidnapped, or subjected to sexual violence.[97] While comprehensive and robust qualitative studies on the violence in the Northwest remain few and far between, large troves of accounts[98] are available, which largely align with ACLED dataset

[87] World Bank. (March 2022). A Better Future for All Nigerians: Nigeria Poverty Assessment 2022.
[88] Ibid. p. 5.
[89] Mohammed, A., & Baba, Y. T. (2018). Herdsmen-farmers' conflicts and rising security threats in Nigeria. *Studies in Politics and Society (Thematic Edition)*, *7*(1), 1-20.
[90] Lawal, B. N. (2021). The Nature and Consequences of Armed Banditry in Nigeria:(A Case Study of Sokoto, Kebbi, Zamfara and Katsina States. *BAKOLORI JOURNAL OF GENERAL STUDIES*, *12*(2), 3726-3732.
[91] International Crisis Group. (April 2022). Managing vigilantism in Nigeria: A Near-term Necessity
[92] Barnett, J., Rufa'i, M. A., & Abdulaziz, A. (2022). North West ern Nigeria: A Jihadization of Banditry, or a "Banditization" of Jihad?. *CTC Sentinel*, *15*(1), 46-69.
[93] Rufai, M. A. (2021, September). I am a bandit: A decade of research in Zamfara state bandit's den. In *A Paper presented at the 15th University Seminar Series, Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto, Sokoto State*.
[94] Ejiofor, P. F. (2022). 'We don't have anything': understanding the interaction between pastoralism and terrorism in Nigeria. *Conflict, Security & Development*, *22*(4), 345-385.
[95] Africa Center for Strategic Studies. (December 2021). Criminal Gangs Destabilising Nigeria`s North West.
[96] Barnett, J., Rufa'i, M. A., & Abdulaziz, A. (2022). North West ern Nigeria: A Jihadization of Banditry, or a "Banditization" of Jihad?. *CTC Sentinel*, *15*(1), 46-69.
[97] James Barnett. New Lines Magazine. (December 2021). The Bandit Warloards of Nigeria
[98] See Ejiofor, P. F. (2022). The Mobility of Terror: Motorcycle Bandits, Violence and Anarchy in Nigeria. *The RUSI Journal*, *166*(6-7), 84-95; Uche, J. C., & Iwuamadi, C. K. (2018). Nigeria: Rural Banditry and Community Resilience in the Nimbo Community. *Conflict Studies Quarterly*, (24); Ladan, S. I., & Matawalli, B. U. (2020). Impacts of banditry on food security in Katsina State, Nigeria. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Science*, *8*(12), 439-447; Solomon, W., & Afolabi, E. (2020). Escalating violence in northern Nigeria; Anka, A. S. (2017). Emerging issues in Zamfara armed banditry and cattle rustling: Collapse of the peace deal

showing an unabating rise in the number of incidents, attacks, and kidnappings in recent years (see figures 28-32).

Figure 28: Number of incidents (attack, kidnapping and forced abduction, sexual violence) in the Northwest (2010-2022)

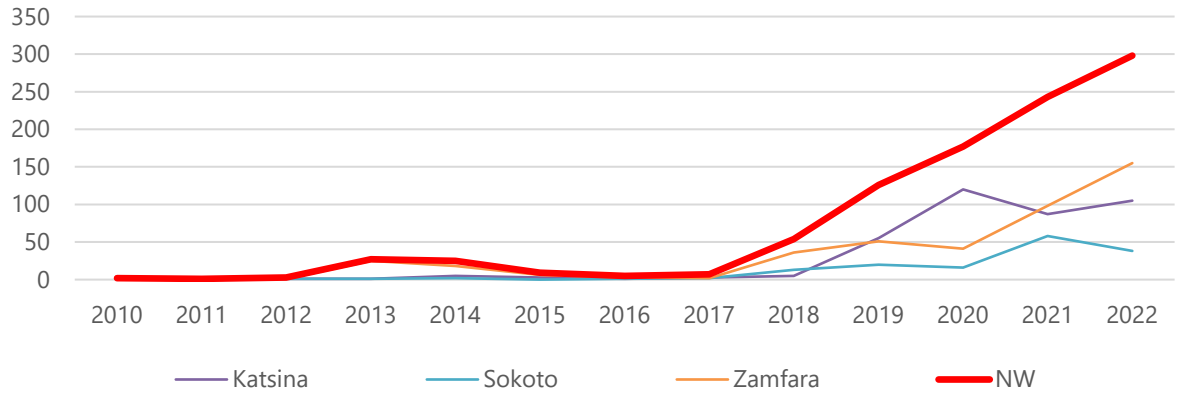


Figure 29: Number of attacks in the Northwest (2010-2022)

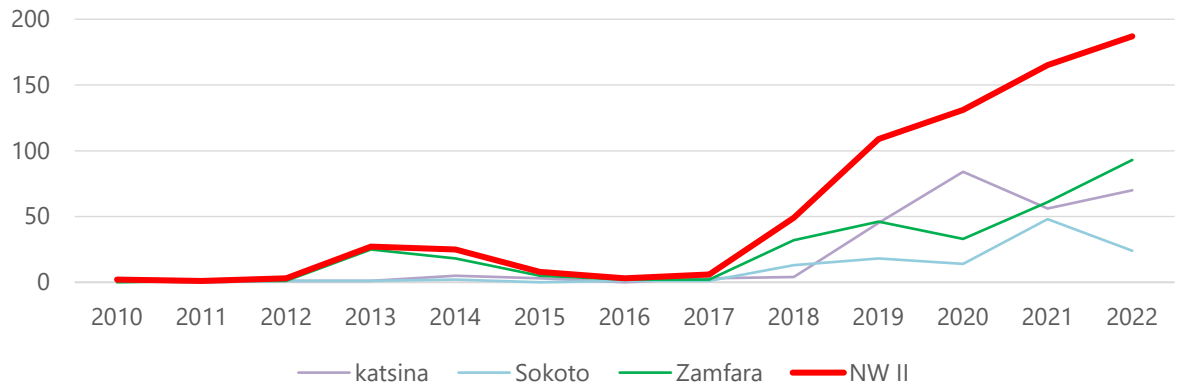
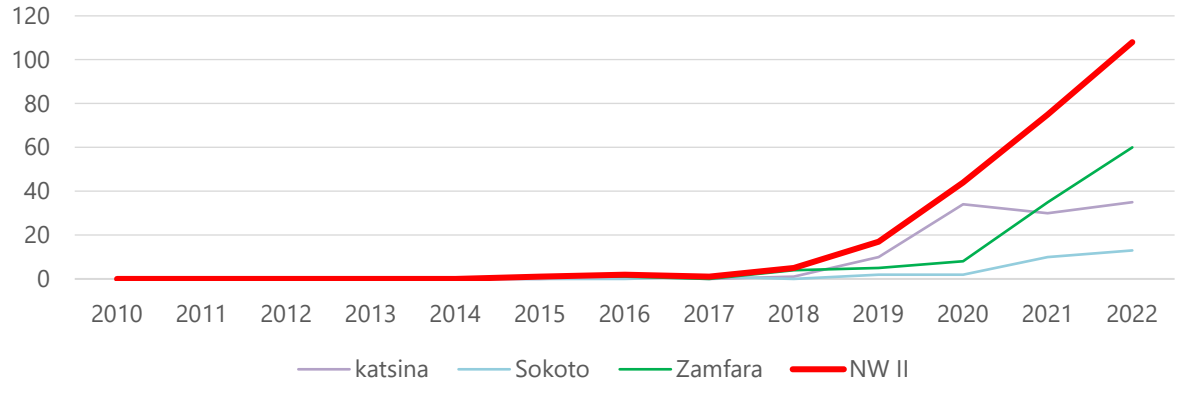


Figure 30: Number of kidnapping and forced abduction incidents in the Northwest (2010-2022)



It is worthwhile to compare the number of reported incidents in Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara to the number of reported incidents in the Borno, Adamawa, and Yobe (BAY) states in the Northeast. As can

and resurgence of fresh violence. *International journal of innovative research and development*, *6*(12); and Okoli, A. C., & Ugwu, A. C. (2019). Of marauders and brigands: Scoping the threat of rural banditry in Nigeria's North West. *Revista Brasileira de Estudos Africanos*, *4*(8).

be seen from Figure 31 while the Northeast dominated in reported incidents for most of the 2010s, by 2018, the reported incidents had reached comparable levels in the Northwest. And from 2020 onwards, while reported incidents in the Northeast levelled off, they continued to rise in the Northwest, reaching twice as many reported incidents than the Northeast by 2022. As can be seen from Figure 32 this also holds true when the data is adjusted to the population sizes of the respective regions.

Figure 31: Number of incidents (attack, kidnapping and forced abductions, sexual violence) in the Northeast and the Northwest (2020-2022)

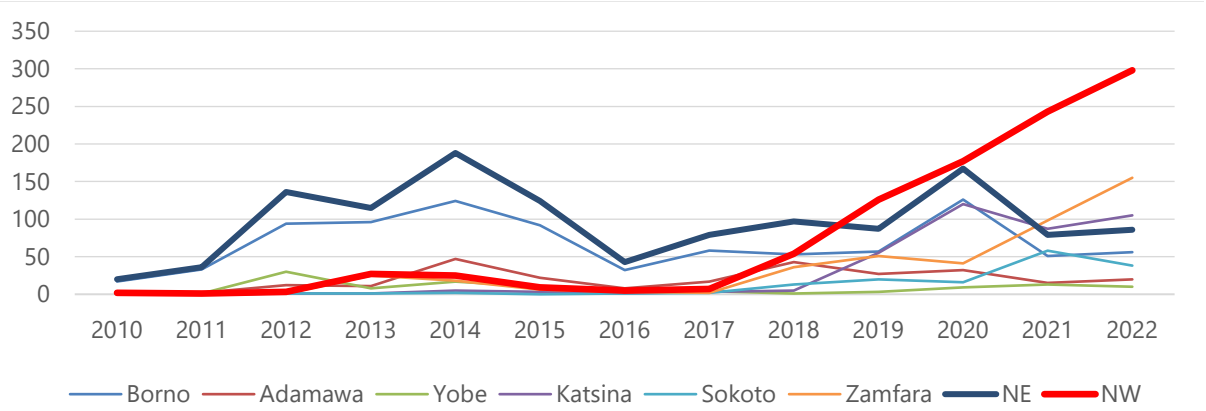
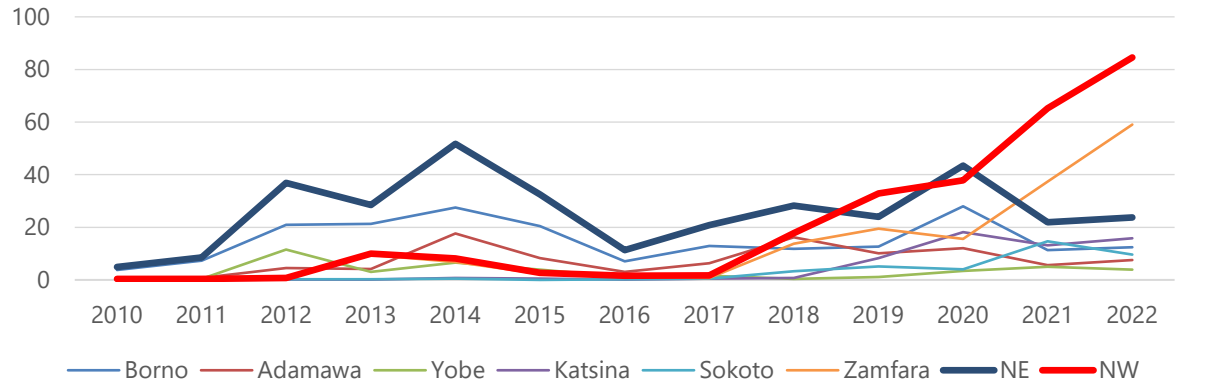


Figure 32: Number of incidents (per 1 million people) in the Northeast and the Northwest (2010-2022)



In the 2020 seminal report "Violence in Nigeria's Northwest: Rolling Back the Mayhem"[99], the International Crisis Group (ICG) estimated actual fatalities many times higher, citing that the vast majority of clashes occur in rural areas, where incidents are less likely to be reported.[100] Indeed, in 2019, Zamfara state's Governor Bello Muhammad Matawalle, set up a committee for ending banditry, and the committee reported that in Zamfara alone, 6,319 people were killed as a result of banditry between June 2011 and May 2019[101] – 4.9 times as much as the reported fatalities in the ACLED dataset.

While the humanitarian impact of banditry in the Northwest remains an understudied phenomenon, the steady drumbeat of informal information coming from the field puts the issue into focus, speaking to a decade of conflict proliferation and concomitantly negative impact on humanitarian needs. In 2019, the Zamfara state government noted that "over 2,000 kilometers of roads, thousands of classrooms and 716

[99] International Crisis Group. (May 2020). Violence in Nigeria's North West: Rolling back the mayhem.
[100] Ibid. p3.
[101] Ibid. Footnote 17.

health centers"[102] were not in use anymore, "due to insecurity".[103] Also, in Zamfara, in 2019 it was estimated that over 13,000 hectares of farmland has been destroyed or rendered inaccessible.[104] At the same time, in Sokoto, the State Emergency Management Agency (SEMA) reported that 21,316 hectares of farmland across five LGAs remained uncultivated, as 80,000 farmers felt intimidated and stayed away.[105] On the livestock front, between 2011 and 2019, about 141,360 cattle and 215,241 sheep were reportedly rustled in Zamfara.[106] Likewise, Zamfara state authorities reported that more than 10,000 houses, shops and silos had been destroyed, and with road travel hazardous, local traders were reportedly hesitant to transport produce to market.[107] Indeed, in a qualitative study conducted by Ladan and Matawalli in Katsina State in 2020,[108] participants commonly affirmed that "banditry has brought negative impacts on food security" in the state. Participants noted, among other factors: (i) killing of farmers, and the subsequent loss of breadwinners in households, (ii) kidnappings, and the need for ransom payments, (iii) instances of farmers being forcefully chased off their land, and the related chilling effect that ensues, (iv) seizing of farmland, especially near forests and hideouts, (v) theft of cattle, (vi) burning and raiding of grain silos, and (vii) the blocking of local trade routes.

Against the backdrop of the above information, banditry in Northwest Nigeria appears to negatively impact humanitarian needs both indirectly via the assault on livelihoods, as well as by directly cutting populations off critical infrastructure, through the destruction of shelters, via the impediment of access to education and markets, and by frustrating people's ability to adequately feed themselves.

Analysis deep-dive: concluding remarks

Drawing on the budding body of research on the Northwest of Nigeria, leveraging the MSNA dataset to run a series of simple linear regressions of income levels on humanitarian needs, tying in ACLED's datasets on conflict incidents, as well as remotely sensed environmental data, it appears that Northwest Nigeria may be confronted with a nexus between poverty, conflict, and climate, collectively driving humanitarian needs in Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara State.

[102] Ibid. footnote 90.
[103] Ibid.
[104] Ibid. Footnote 92.
[105] Ibid. Footnote 93.
[106] Ibid. Footnote 94.
[107] Ibid. Footnote 96.
[108] Ladan, S. I., & Matawalli, B. U. (2020). Impacts of Banditry on Food Security in Katsina State, Nigeria. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Science*, *8*(12), 439-447.

CONCLUSION

Against the backdrop of the **nexus between deep poverty, spiralling insecurity, and environmental degradation, and with an eye on the resultant rising displacement,** there is a need for a holistic, up-to-date overview of the main humanitarian needs faced by internally displaced and non-displaced communities in Nigeria's Northwestern Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara states. Unlike the northeast, these states are not covered by the Humanitarian Programme Cycle (HPC), yet a budding coalition of humanitarian actors are pivotting to the region, and a response is slowly taking shape. In light of indications of deteriorating humanitarian conditions, REACH conducted this first Multi-Sector Needs Assessment (MSNA) to provide an overview of the scope and severity of multi-sectoral humanitarian needs in the Northwest, in support of an evidence-based response.

The MSNA's findings indicate that humanitarian needs are common and widespread among both displaced and non-displaced populations across the three assessed states. Nearly all households (96%) were found to have multi-sectoral needs, particularly in the domains of **Shelter and Non-food Items (NFIs) (82%), Education (78%), and Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene (WASH) (71%),** and to a lesser extent, in Cash and Early Recovery and Livelihoods (ERL) (43%), Food Security and Nutrition (41%), Protection (25%), and Health (22%).

Needs appeared to be overwhelmingly driven by limited financial capacity and a general lack of infrastructure, in addition to increased pressure on shared resources and livelihoods opportunities under the strain of internal displacement. Indeed, additional analysis suggests households in lower income brackets were more likely to be catgorised with (more severe) LSGs, particularly in the sectors of Cash & ERL, Food security, and Health. **In addition, while protection LSGs were comparatively less common than needs in other domains, analysis suggests that conflict and insecurity often indirectly drive needs across sectors**. For instance, insecurity emerged as the main reason behind people's decision to leave their area of origin, and thus their land, livelihoods, assets, support networks, among others, behind, in turn increasing pressure on scarce resources in areas of displacement. More directly, persisting insecurity concerns were reported by some households, particularly displaced households, as barriers to accessing essential needs and services, including education, marketplaces, and water sources, which was further triangulated by the available secondary literature.

While needs appeared common among displaced and non-displaced communities alike, **findings suggest that needs were likely more severe and complex among displaced populations**. Displaced households were more commonly categorised with extreme levels of needs (LSG severity scores of 4/4+) and were found to generally have a higher number of concurring needs across sectors. **In addition, displaced households were more commonly found to have needs related to food security and protection**, which might be related to differences between displaced and non-displaced households in terms of access to land, livelihoods, productive assets, and available coping strategies.

It is to note that findings only relate to the population in areas that were accessible for face-to-face interviews or could be reached remotely for phone inverviews. Considering that insecurity was the main push factor for displaced households**, it is likely that insecurity is driving more severe multi-sectoral needs in hard-to-reach and inaccessible areas**, while the remaining population might be more vulnerable. Further research, for instance through interviewing recently displaced people about the situation in their previous locations, might shed light on the needs in those areas. Moreover, more in-depth, qualitative data will be helpful to triangulate and better understand people's experiences, movement decisions, and social coping capacities, among other factors, which are highly relevant for context-sensitive programming yet cannot fully be captured through structured data collection alone.

ANNEXES

Annex 1: Available technical documentation

For more information on the methodology and analysis conducted for this MSNA, please revert to the:

- Terms of Reference (ToR)
- Questionnaire and Detailed Analysis Plan (DAP)
- Methodology Note, providing a more detailed overview of the methodology, including
    - Specific objectives and research questions
    - Sampling strategy
    - Household sectoral needs classification and severity scale
    - Overall severity of needs severity classification
- MSNA Dataset
- LSG Framework
- MSNA Analysis Tables

Forthcoming thematic deepdive reports and analyses will be made available at the REACH Resource Centre.

Annex 2: Enumerator training agenda

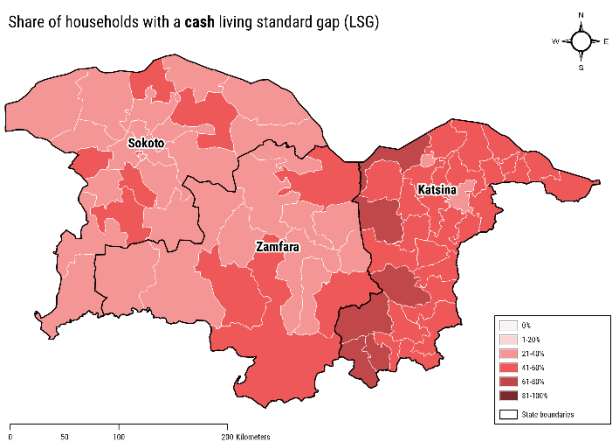
Training of enumerators took place over 3 days in February. Enumerators were trained on the code of conduct, do no harm principles, data collection best practice, and the specific use of the Kobo tools per each covered sector, among other topics.

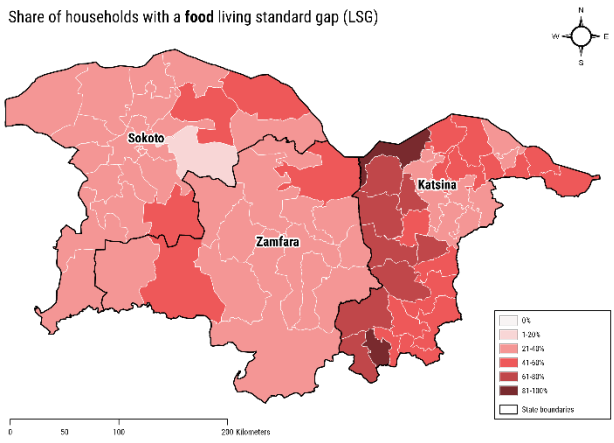
21 February - Day 1		
S/N	Activity	Time
1	Arrival of participants	8:30am
2	Introduction & REACH MSNA Overview	10:00am -10:40am
3	Tea break	10:40am -11:15am
4	Code of Conduct	11:15am -11:45am
5	Anti- Fraud/ Corruption & Grievance policy	11:45am -12:15pm
6	Do No Harm Principles	12:15pm - 01:00pm
7	Lunch	1:00pm - 2:00pm
8	Data protection and privacy	02:00pm - 02:30pm
9	Social skills	02:30pm - 03:00pm
10	COVID -19	03:00pm - 03:40pm
11	Brief Break	03:40pm - 04:00pm
12	Feedback/general Q&A	04:00pm - 03:30pm

22 February - Day 2		
S/N	Activity	Time
1	Introduction to kobo collect	8:45am – 09:30am
2	In-person data collection	09:30am -10:10am
3	Tea break	10:10am -10:30am
4	Remote Data collection	10:00am -11:00pm
5	Field data cleaning	11:00am -12:00pm
6	Safety & Security	12:00pm – 1:00pm
7	Lunch	01:00pm - 02:00pm
8	Maps.me	02:00pm - 03:00pm
9	Practical session on Map.me	03:30pm - 04:00pm
10	Brief Break	03:40pm - 04:00pm
11	Feedback/general Q&A	04:00pm - 04:30pm

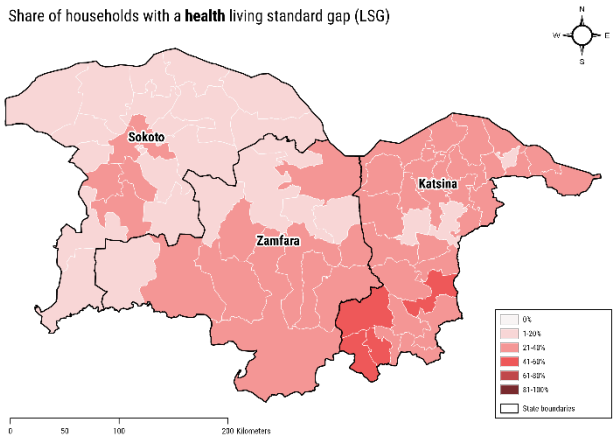
23 February - Day 3		
1	Arrival of participants	8:30am
2	Tool review (Metadata & Demography)	9:00am-10:30am
3	Tea break	10:30am-11:00am
4	Movements Dynamics, Early recovery & Livelihood	11:00am-12:00pm
5	Food security, nutrition & health	12:00pm-01:00pm
6	Lunch	01:00pm-02:00pm
7	Health	02:00pm-03:30pm
8	Feedback/general Q & A	03:30pm-04:00pm

Annex 3: Sectoral LSG Visualisation

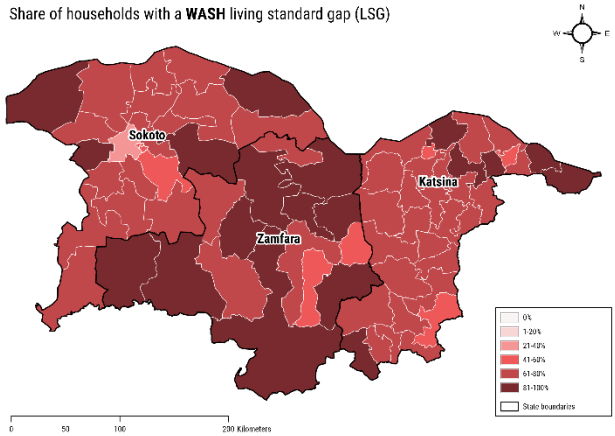




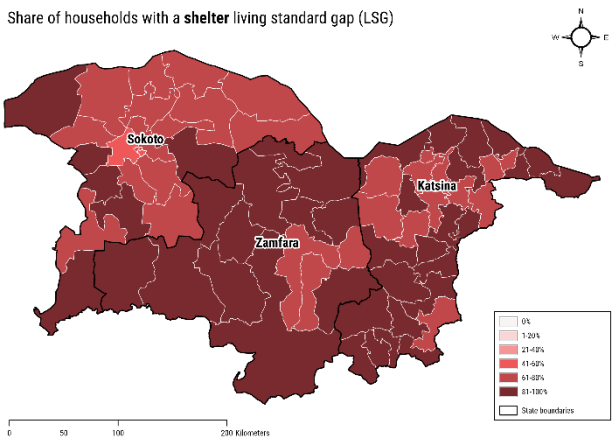
Share of households with a **health** living standard gap (LSG)



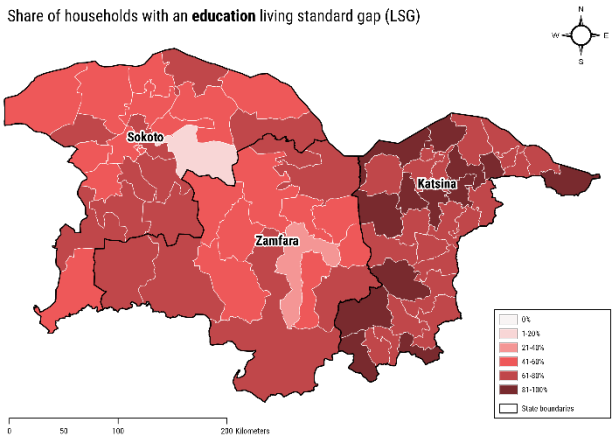
Share of households with a **WASH** living standard gap (LSG)



Share of households with a **shelter** living standard gap (LSG)



Share of households with an **education** living standard gap (LSG)



Share of households with a **protection** living standard gap (LSG)