

2017

# Terrorism and Parents' Experience of Children's schooling in Nigeria: A Phenomenological Study.

James Ovu Urien  
*Walden University*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>

 Part of the [Educational Psychology Commons](#), [Public Administration Commons](#), and the [Quantitative Psychology Commons](#)

---

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact [ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu](mailto:ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu).

# Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

James Urien

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,  
and that any and all revisions required by  
the review committee have been made.

## Review Committee

Dr. Barbara DeVelasco, Committee Chairperson, Psychology Faculty  
Dr. Sharon Xuereb, Committee Member, Psychology Faculty  
Dr. Susan Marcus, University Reviewer, Psychology Faculty

Chief Academic Officer  
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University  
2017

Abstract

Terrorism and Parents' Experience of Children's Schooling in Nigeria: A

Phenomenological Study

by

James Urien

MA, Delta State University, 2010

BS, University of Benin, 2002

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Educational Psychology

Walden University

November 2017

## Abstract

In Nigeria, displaced non-Muslim parents living in refugee camps face difficult decisions regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters, who are potential targets of Boko Haram terrorist activities. The purpose of this interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) was to qualitatively explore a deeper understanding of the lived experience of displaced non-Muslim parents in Nigeria concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters. Prospect theory provided a theoretical foundation for the study. The theory holds that decision-making is based on the perceived value of gains and losses under risk conditions, rather than solely the perceived final outcome of the risk. The research questions explored how the experience of terrorism affected parents' school-related decision-making, perceptions of the schooling environment and value of education, and risk-taking attitudes. Data were collected through semistructured interviews held with 12 participants from 2 refugee camps. The data were then analyzed using the steps recommended in IPA. Identified themes included parents' experience of trauma, their concern about the vulnerability of their school-going children, and their support for their daughters' education. The findings produced a deeper understanding of the psychological implications of terrorist activities for the families, as well as their perception of the educational needs of teenage girls. Recommendations include providing governmental and nongovernmental support for affected parents and teenage girls. Contributions to positive social change include developing advocacy and resources in support of displaced parents and schools for improving the educational status of teenage girls in Nigeria.

Terrorism and Parents' Experience of Children's Schooling in Nigeria: A

Phenomenological Study

by

James Urien

MA, Delta University, Abraka, 2010

BS, University of Benin, 2002

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Educational Psychology

Walden University

November 2017

## Dedication

I dedicate this study to all those deprived of formal education and to those who champion the course of educating young people in our society.

## Acknowledgments

I sincerely thank God for the gift of life and the blessing of accomplishing this degree. Special thanks to my Bishop, Most Rev. Dr. John OkeOghene Afareha for his support, encouragement, and prayers. I appreciate all priests in Warri Diocese for their love, solidarity, and prayers. Being a Catholic Priest in their midst has been a wonderful experience. Thank you brothers, I love you. I appreciate the support from my family, friends, and colleagues for the role they have played in making my doctoral dream come true.

I owe more than just words of appreciation to my dynamic dissertation chair Dr. Barbara Palomino de Velasco (Dr. P.) for being very professional and personable. Her suggestions and follow up gave quality to the study and made me work extra hard and always provided me the needed motivation. Thank you Dr. P., I respect you so much. I also want to thank my committee member Dr. Sharon Xuereb for always being ready to help, discuss, and shape the study. She has been very instrumental in developing my skills in qualitative research. Dr. Xuereb you always kept me focused and motivated. Moreover, I want to thank Dr. Susan Marcus, the University Research Reviewer for her wonderful insights. I cannot forget to mention Dr. Barbara Benoliel who encouraged and provided useful suggestions when I was conceiving the study. Thanks Dr. Benoliel for your time and selflessness. Lastly, I also want to thank the editors from the Walden Writing Center, Radhika Johari, Steve Lehman, Jenny Martel, Dan Fleischacker for their support.

## Table of Contents

List of Tables .....	v
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Background.....	2
Problem Statement.....	5
Purpose of the Study.....	6
Research Questions.....	7
Theoretical Framework for the Study.....	7
Nature of the Study.....	9
Definitions.....	10
Assumptions.....	12
Scope and Delimitations .....	13
Limitations .....	13
Significance.....	14
Summary .....	16
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	18
Introduction.....	18
Research Strategy.....	19
Theoretical Foundation .....	20
Review of Literature .....	26
Experience of Terrorism .....	26



Impacts of Terrorism on Children’s Schooling .....	33
Parents’ Values and Attitudes.....	36
Parents’ Perceptions of Risk Related to the Schooling of Their Children.....	40
Impact of Boko Haram on Female Educational Development .....	42
Literature Review About Methodology .....	45
Summary and Conclusion .....	47
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	48
Research Design and Rationale .....	48
Role of the Researcher .....	51
Methodology.....	54
Participant Selection Logic .....	54
Instrumentation .....	56
Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection.....	59
Data Analysis Plan.....	61
Issues of Trustworthiness.....	63
Credibility .....	63
Transferability.....	64
Dependability .....	65
Confirmability.....	65
Ethical Procedures .....	66
Summary .....	68
Chapter 4: Results.....	70

Research Setting.....	71
Demographics .....	72
Data Collection .....	73
Data Analysis .....	75
Evidence of Trustworthiness.....	78
Credibility .....	78
Transferability.....	79
Dependability .....	79
Confirmability.....	80
Results.....	80
Theme 1: Parents Were Traumatized by the Experience of Terrorism .....	82
Theme 2: Parents Worried About the Vulnerability of School Children.....	92
Theme 3: Parents Expressed Support for Girl Child Education .....	99
Theme 4: Parents Were Unhappy About Teenage Daughters’ Loss of Education .....	104
Summary .....	109
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations.....	111
Interpretation of Findings .....	112
Parents Were Traumatized by the Experience of Terrorism.....	112
Parents Worried About Vulnerability of School Children.....	116
Parents Expressed Support for Girl Child Education .....	118
Parents Were Unhappy About Teenage Daughters’ Loss of Education.....	121

Theoretical Perspective.....	123
Limitations of the Study.....	126
Recommendations for Further Research.....	128
Implications for Social Change.....	129
Conclusion .....	131
References.....	134
Appendix A: Letter to Director of NEMA.....	172
Appendix B: Interview Protocol .....	173
Appendix C: Letter to IDP Camp Counselor.....	175
Appendix D: Confidentiality Agreement.....	176

## List of Tables

Table 1. Profiles of the Participants .....	73
Table 2. Summary of Participants' Responses Relating to Recurrent Themes .....	78
Table 3. Themes and Subthemes .....	82

## Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

### **Introduction**

In Northern Nigeria, Boko Haram terrorist activities have resulted in the deaths of numerous individuals, the destruction of communities and displacement of families, and the closure of schools and abductions of teenage girls as part of their fight against Western education (Sanni, 2015). Consequently, parents who have been displaced and have teenage daughters may experience fear and be reluctant to send their children to school (Ee, Kleber, & Mooren, 2012; Lambert, Holzer, & Hasbun, 2014; Maiangwu & Amao, 2015; Pat-Horenczyk et al., 2012). Displaced parents experience a variety of challenges that hinder their financial support of and personal commitment to the education of their children. This situation of displacement, therefore, necessitates the provision by government of financial and other support for the schooling of their children (O'Rourke, 2015; Saka & Cohen-Louck, 2014).

The experience of terrorism has psychological, socioeconomic, and physical impacts on the attitudes of parents and their decision-making (Abdullahi & Terhemba, 2014; Abdulrasheed, Onuselogu, & Obioma, 2015; Hammajam, Moh'dGaldi, & Idris, 2015). Consequently, displaced parents who have experienced the terror inflicted by Boko Haram may be compelled to make certain decisions regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters who are often the victims of these attacks. This study explored the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents and how they reached decisions about the schooling of their teenage daughters. I focused on non-Muslim parents because they are committed to educating their children and send them to school more often than most

Muslim parents do in Nigeria, and this choice makes them likely targets of the Boko Haram (Olabanji, 2015; Oladunjoye & Omemu, 2013). I hope the results of this study support the campaign for the education of teenage girls through its findings.

Studies have documented the impact of terrorism on displaced parents and how the experience affects the behavior of parents and children (Pat-Horenczyk et al., 2011; Pfefferbaum, Noffsinger, Wind, & Allen, 2014). These studies are discussed in detail in Chapter 2, where I explore the existing literature related to parents' experiences of terrorism and displacement, parents' valuation of education, and their perceptions of risk in the context of terrorism.

### **Background**

The impact of terrorism and displacement poses a significant challenge to children's schooling. In particular, the sense of fear, insecurity, and inadequate finance resulting from exposure to terrorism affects parents' attitudes toward their children's schooling (Doeland, 2012; Masten & Narayan, 2012). Displaced parents would, therefore, consider these factors before sending their children to school (Eder, 2014). Because education is not free of cost in Nigeria, these considerations regarding children's schooling are likely to apply to displaced parents, particularly given the awareness of the threat posed to their teenage daughters by Boko Haram (Ilechukwu, 2014; Joda & Abdurashed, 2015; Peters, 2014; Sanni, 2015).

The effects of traumatic experiences from terrorism and how it impacts decision-making and forming of perceptions have been well documented (Joda & Abdurashed, 2015; O'Rourke, 2015; Saka & Cohen-Louck, 2014). Research revealed that irrespective

of parenting style or educational attainment (Adamski, Fraser, & Peiro, 2013; Gyanendra, 2011), parents in conflict situations such as terrorism or war are hindered from firm commitment and involvement in their children's schooling (Ciampi, 2012; Sanni, 2015; Siham, Shif, & Boag, 2012). Hammajam et al. (2015) and Rout (2011) noted that displacement, inadequate finance, emotional instability, and government policies are the major reasons for this failure. A pilot study conducted on the effects of terrorism on children's schooling in the Middle East, Israel, and Palestine, revealed cognitive distortions and emotional vulnerability and development of an excessive fear of schooling among these children, who required parental assistance to cope (Arie, 2011; Siham et al., 2012; Skuse, 2011). Other studies revealed that parents' dispositions after exposure to terrorism determines their children's willingness to go to school and shapes their behavior (Freh, 2015; Schueler, Capotosto, Bahena, McIntyre, & Gehlbach, 2014). Parents and children may develop school phobia and perceive the schooling environment as dangerous (Aliyu, Moorthy, & Idris, 2015; Oladunjoye & Omemu, 2013).

The presence of terrorism is a significant risk that impacts negatively on formal education, social living, development, and psychological well-being of children (Caponecchia, 2012; Terwase, Abdul-Talib, Zengeni, & Terwase, 2015). According to Ouli (2015) and Guariso and Verpooten (2014), there were significant gaps in schooling activities and educational attainment for children internally displaced compared to those who did not experience armed conflicts, even when they lived in the same region. Hence, scholars advocated a school-based re-orientation for children living in conflict-ridden environments, as this can serve as a remedy in the fight against

insurgency (Barakat, Connolly, Hardman, & Sundaram, 2013; Onyirioha, 2015; Ouili, 2015).

In 2014, 276 teenage girls were abducted by Boko Haram from Chibok (Chiluwa & Ifukor, 2015; Maiangwa & Agbiboa, 2014; Osinuga, 2013; Zenn & Pearson, 2014) and apart from 103 girls who were rescued by the Nigerian army in 2016, the remaining girls are yet to return home. Following this incident, displaced parents may show higher anxiety for their teenage daughters than for sons. Researchers have suggested that parents exposed to terrorism experience insecurity, deprivation, fear, and emotional instability that induces reluctance in them to send their children to school (Afolayan et al., 2013; Awodola & Ayuba, 2015; Imasuen, 2015; Ogwo, 2013; Ojochenemi, Asuelime, & Onapajo, 2015). Such parents are more protective of their teenage girls than of boys because the girls show higher rates of anxiety syndrome after such exposure to terrorism (Doeland, 2012; Helmut & Twikirize, 2013; Masten & Narayan, 2012; Pereda, 2013; Peters, 2014; Saraiya, Garakani, & Billick, 2013; Yahav, 2011; Zenn & Pearson, 2014). With Boko Haram often abducting teenage girls whom they can use for sex slavery, suicide bombings, or as protective shields (Maiangwu & Amao, 2015; Sanni, 2015), non-Muslim displaced parents who are the focus of this study may express similar fears. The experiences of these parents regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters have not been explored in the literature; and more research is needed to better understand how schooling decisions are made in such risky and consequential conditions.

This study was designed to gain deep insights into how such experiences among this group of parents affect their decisions regarding the schooling of their teenage girls.



Prospect theory, which is introduced in this chapter and discussed more fully in Chapter 2, provided the theoretical foundation of the study.

### **Problem Statement**

Following the emergence of the Boko Haram insurgency in Northern Nigeria, a large number of people have been displaced from their abodes and educational activities have been undermined by bombings, killings, and abductions of school children (Adekeye, 2015; Afolayan et al., 2013; Awodola & Ayuba, 2015; Maiangwa & Agbiboa, 2014; Osinuga, 2013). Allehone (2010) and Orchard (2010) described internally displaced persons (IDPs) as individuals whose experiences of armed conflict, violence, internal strife, natural disaster, or human right violations have forced them out of their natural homes, and they are yet to cross an international border. In the context of this study, it refers to those who left their homes involuntarily due to Boko Haram attacks and are still within Nigeria.

Based on a thorough review of the literature, the research findings revealed that displacement poses a grave threat to the well-being and educational advancement of children. O'Rourke (2015) has argued that individuals who have lost their employment, houses, or personal belongings as a result of a conflict may feel disempowered to financially support the educational development of their children. Although there is evidence that parents differ in their feelings and attitudes toward sending their children to school (Gyanenda, 2011; Terwase et al., 2015), the lived experience of displaced non-Muslim parents in Nigeria have not yet been studied.

Both the scholarly literature and the media have come to understand how parents have been traumatized and remain in a state of shock as a result of the abduction of over 276 teenage girls from a school in Chibok in 2014, as well as the abductions of several other teenage girls and women (Joda & Olowoselu, 2015; Osinuga, 2013; Zenn & Pearson, 2014). Since teenage girls are often targeted by Boko Haram in their fight against Western education in Nigeria (Sanni, 2015), the lives of these teenage girls are more at risk. Thus, displaced parents may express more fears about their daughters' schooling. Studies in Israel, Iraq, Afghanistan, and Lebanon indicated that parents exposed to war violence developed post-traumatic stress and continuous fear regarding their safety and that of their children, which made them reluctant to send their children to school (Ee et al., 2012; Lambert et al., 2014; Maiangwu & Amao 2015; Oluyemisi, 2015; Pat-Horenczyk et al., 2012). Hence, it was important to examine how non-Muslim displaced parents' experiences of terrorism featured in their decision to send their teenage daughters to school in Nigeria. Research has indicated these experiences are linked to psychological distress, and psychological theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) has suggested that such experiences impact important decisions. However, more research is needed to understand the experience and meaning of educational decisions in displaced non-Muslim parents in Nigeria.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) was to qualitatively explore a deeper understanding of the lived experience of displaced non-Muslim parents in Nigeria concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters. I plan to

use this knowledge to create and widen awareness about their lives and the impact of their circumstances, particularly in the educational sector.

### **Research Questions**

The following research question and subquestions were the focus of the study:

RQ: How do displaced non-Muslim parents who are camp residents describe the effect of the experience of terrorism on decisions to send their teenage daughters to school?

The subquestions were:

SQ1: What is the experience of displaced non-Muslim parents regarding the safety of the school for learning now that they reside in a refugee camp?

SQ2: What would facilitate non-Muslim displaced parents' decisions residing in camps to send their teenage daughters to school?

SQ3: How do non-Muslim displaced parents residing in camps feel about their teenage daughters not attending school?

### **Theoretical Framework for the Study**

The theoretical framework for my study was prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Although this theory originated from the field of economics, it is a valid tool in predicting behaviors and understanding the decision-making process of humans in behavioral sciences (Hens & Vicek, 2011; Trott, 2013). The basic tenet of the theory is that people make decisions based on their understanding of the values of their gains and losses under risk conditions rather than the final outcome of the risk such as with war, conflict, or terrorism (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Displaced non-Muslim parents under

threat of terrorism made decisions based on their understanding of their gains and losses. The possible gains for non-Muslim parents in their decisions concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters were access to education, advanced academic prospects for their daughters, and governmental interventions. The possible losses were feelings of insecurity and vulnerability of daughters, an inability to support the education of their daughters, and continued illiteracy of their daughters.

The decision-making process comprises two stages, editing and evaluation. At the editing phase, individuals consider outcomes and the possible contrast such as gains and losses or pains and pleasures. At the evaluation stage, individuals choose what has the higher advantage for them by examining their feelings about the situation and the potential outcomes (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). This means displaced non-Muslim parents at first identified what their gains and losses might be before making advantageous decisions.

Prospect theory argues that actors' behaviors are dependent on what is considered important in their present situation against which they make choices (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Since actors do not personally construct the gains or losses in risk conditions, they experience emotions such as fear, anger, regret, pride, peace, and so forth, which cause them to make choices (Mercer, 2005). Actors can frame or reframe choices depending on their values. This means decision-making is inevitable. Thus, prospect theory explains the experience of displaced parents concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters by the risks factor, their value of education, their feelings, and their decision-making ability.

### **Nature of the Study**

The nature of the study was qualitative. The design of the study was IPA (Smith, 2015). IPA is concerned with exploring personal experiences in its terms and making sense of them. IPA as a research method is underpinned by phenomenology (the study of experience) and hermeneutics (interpretation) and is idiographic (particular). IPA was suitable for this study because it explores, describes, interprets, and situates experience in its terms (Smith, 2015). Detailed accounts were elicited from participants who were willing and able to discuss their experiences of the phenomena under investigation (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014; Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009). I explored the lived experience of displaced non-Muslim parents with regards to sending their teenage daughters to school in Nigeria.

Participants were drawn from camps of IDPs in local communities in the southern region of the country who had stayed in the camp for more than a year. These camps are considered safe as they are located in the southern region of the country where there is relative peace and are secured by security operatives. After obtaining permission from the camp directors, the directors introduced me to the parents and I gave detailed information about the studies and asked for volunteers. I personally identified the non-Muslim displaced parents who had teenage daughters and who agreed to partake in the study through my discussions with them individually. Once identified, the parents were informed of their freedom to volunteer or withdraw from the research study. I also assured them of confidentiality and anonymity.

I conducted semistructured face-to-face interviews using open-ended questions, and it was audio recorded. The participants consisted of 12 displaced non-Muslims parents who had teenage daughters in the camp. I could not get equal numbers in regard to the genders of the participants. The theoretical underpinning of IPA requires a small sample size of five or six participants, as saturation occurs at this size (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014; Smith, 2015; Smith et al., 2009). Adding more than six participants does not necessarily give more meaningful results (Creswell, 1998). A researcher might interview eight participants and then realize that there is no new information and no need to interview more (Creswell, 1998). The idea is to sacrifice breadth for depth as the participants represent a perspective of the phenomenon studied rather than the population (Smith, 2015). After the data was transcribed from the recorded interviews, themes were coded and categorized through the help of Nvivo software and personal reflection. To ensure the credibility of data collection and analysis, member-checking and peer examination was conducted. Data collection and analysis are discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

### **Definitions**

*Boko Haram*: The literal meaning of the term “Boko Haram” is “Western education or civilization is sinful or forbidden.” It is the name of a deadly terrorist group in Nigeria that has been unleashing terror and fear through threats, abductions, suicide bombings, assassinations, and the destruction of lives and property since 2009 (Aliyu et al., 2015).

*Decision making:* Decision making refers to the thought process underlying the selection of a logical choice from among a set of available options and reflects the preference of the decision-maker (Wang & Johnson, 2012).

*Displaced non-Muslim parents:* Displaced non-Muslim parents are displaced parents who are Christians, pagans, or who follow any religion other than Islam.

*Displacement:* Displacement refers to the condition wherein individuals are forced to leave their natural homes as a result of armed conflict, violence, internal strife, natural disaster, or human rights violations but are yet to cross an international border. In the context of this study, it refers to the condition of those who left their homes involuntarily because of Boko Haram attacks and are still residing within Nigeria (Allehone, 2010; Orchard, 2010).

*Experience:* Experience in this study relates to the nature of events that an individual has personally encountered, participated in, or lived through (Klein, Robertson, Delton, & Lax, 2012).

*Prospect theory:* This theory explains decision-making based on the values of gains and losses rather than the value of the final asset under risk conditions (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979).

*Schooling of children:* Schooling of children refers to the act of allowing children to have access to formal education or learning under the guidance of teachers in an enabling and safe environment (Adamski et al., 2013). In Nigeria, primary school is attended by children aged 5–10 years old, while those attending secondary school are in

the age range 11–18 years. The teenage girls discussed in this study belong to the latter age bracket (Jayeola-Omoyeni & Omoyeni, 2014).

*Teenage girls or daughters:* Teenage girls or daughters are above 13 years of age and below the age of 18 for the human species (UNICEF, 2015).

*Terrorism:* Terrorism refers to an illegal act committed by a small, organized violent group that seeks to control states or compel a targeted group to yield to the group's demands by threatening or inflicting harm upon them and causing them to behave in ways desired by the terrorists (Adekeye, 2015).

### **Assumptions**

In this study, I assumed that non-Muslim displaced parents would be in the camps at the time of the research since the government is yet to fully curb the threat of Boko Haram attacks in Northern Nigeria. I assumed that non-Muslim displaced parents encountered Boko Haram attacks and would give honest answers during the interviews about their lived experience and feelings regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters. I also assumed that the interview questions would dispose the participants to share their experiences and reflect on their decision-making regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters. Another assumption was that the sample size of 12 persons (non-Muslim displaced parents) would provide adequate and sufficient data for the study. This assumption is in line with the theoretical underpinning of IPA in which saturation occurs with a small sample size of at least six participants (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014; Smith, 2015).



### **Scope and Delimitations**

Access to non-Muslim displaced parents with teenage daughters was difficult to establish without the assistance of the camp director or co-coordinator. The willingness of displaced non-Muslim parents to share their experiences required other negotiations. The methodology adopted in this study set the sample of 12 displaced non-Muslim parents with teenage daughters who were interviewed about their lived experience. Participants answered openly and honestly to the interview questions regarding their lived experience.

The study was limited to displaced non-Muslim parents with teenage daughters resident in camp. Other parents (Muslim parents, stay-behind parents, parents of boys, or parents of non-teenage girls) were not within the scope of this study, which limited the scope to displaced non-Muslim parents residing in camp. Limitation in data collection and procedures related to the locations of safe camps in the southern region of the country that were visited and the number of participants who volunteered to participate.

In theory selection, I considered using Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory as it might reflect the needs of displaced parents. However, the theory was not applied as displaced parents residing in camps may be more concerned about their physiological needs than the educational needs of their teenage daughters, which was the focus of the study.

### **Limitations**

Phenomenological inquiry employed in this study did not provide the quantitative statistical analyses of psychological and physiological trauma associated with

displacement. The findings from this study were limited to interpretation rather than quantitative analysis. IPA does not provide statistical analyses but allows for the description of the lived experience of participants.

My position as a researcher collecting data for the study would have been jeopardized if the participants wrongly perceived that the government was supporting the research and using me as a front. Moreover, if the participants had perceived that the study would have a negative impact on them, they may not have participated. I convinced them that this is personal and not official research and that their association with the study would not entail any adverse consequences for them as pseudonyms were to be used and their identities concealed. During the interviews, I established friendly rapport with participants to encourage them to provide honest responses. I also assured them of confidentiality as their names and locations were not reported in the study.

Other limitations related to time and location. The displaced parents would not always be in the IDP camps as the government may relocate them to their original abode if relative peace and security were assured. This study was a time-bound one that was carried out before the displaced parents were relocated. I was not able to visit all of the camps given the time allocated for this research as well as due to security problems associated with camps in Northern Nigeria. Two IDP camps that had been identified as being safe were the research sites.

### **Significance**

This study is unique and original because it focused on enhancing understanding of the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents regarding the impacts of Boko

Haram's attacks on their decisions to send their teenage daughters to school. This is an issue that has not been addressed by previous studies. Several researchers have reviewed the concept of terrorism and its impacts on parents, children, institutions, and nations (Adekeye, 2015; Afolayan et al., 2013; Awodola & Ayuba, 2015; Maiangwa & Agbiboa, 2014; Osinuga, 2013). However, most of these studies have relied heavily on survey and experimental methods. This study adopted a phenomenological approach that has not previously been applied and could access the lived experience of displaced non-Muslim parents in Nigeria as they reached decisions about the schooling of their teenage daughters. Thus, it addressed a limitation of previous approaches, namely their inability to provide deep insights into how the lived experience of displaced non-Muslim parents in Nigeria influenced their decisions regarding their children's schooling. Moreover, it transcended previous approaches through its use of an interpretative phenomenological approach that enabled "making sense" of reflective lived experience (Smith et al., 2009) of displaced non-Muslim parents regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters.

The rich data generated through this study enhanced understanding of the meanings attributed by displaced non-Muslim parents to their experiences and how these meanings influenced their decisions on whether to send their teenage daughters to Nigerian schools, thereby determining future studies. This study also generated awareness of the problem that could prompt governmental and nongovernmental entities to design interventions to effectively intercede. Such interventions could entail reviewing the security situation within terrorism-affected communities, providing schools with assurances of security, providing displaced teenage girls with scholarships, relocating

schools to safe environments, changing curricula, offering alternative learning programs, creating more friendly environments for learning, and offering re-orientation and reintegration programs for internally displaced parents. The findings of this study informed counseling guidance provided to internally displaced parents regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters. Such interventions would facilitate the schooling experience of teenage girls exposed to terrorism, providing the groundwork for future studies and advancing the campaign of Malala Yousafzai for empowering and educating girl children. The study also aided in the pursuit of positive social change in communities by enhancing understanding of the issue and advocating for the provision of support to parents and schools to enable teenage girls to attend school. These efforts would improve the educational levels and life prospects of teenage girls as well as others in their communities.

### **Summary**

Terrorism inflicted by Boko Haram has left many dead or displaced and scattered across various IDP camps and communities. Many of these displaced families are thus stranded, and their children are out of school. Previous studies have documented the impacts of exposure to terrorism on displaced parents and children, showing how it affects their physical and mental health (Afolayan et al., 2013; Awodola & Ayuba, 2015; Imasuen, 2015; Maiangwa & Agbiboa, 2014). Moreover, they have revealed that the negative attitudes of parents toward the schooling of their children can be attributed to fear and insecurity (Maiangwu & Amao, 2015; Masten & Narayan, 2012; Peters, 2014; Sanni, 2015). However, the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents resident in

camp as they impact on the schooling of their teenage daughters have not been examined. In this study, I developed a deeper understanding of how experiences of Boko Haram's attacks on school children impacted decision-making among displaced non-Muslim parents regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters. Chapter 2 presents a review of the relevant literature on experiences of terrorism, parents' valuation of education and perceptions of risk in the context of terrorism, and effects of terrorism on children's schooling. Chapter 3 follows with a description of the study design: participants, procedures, assessments used, and how information gathered was analyzed. Chapter 4 presents the data collection, data analysis, and findings. Chapter 5 contains the interpretations of the findings, conclusion, and recommendations.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

### **Introduction**

Terrorism creates an atmosphere of tension, terror, and trauma. The attacks of the Boko Haram terrorist group are wreaking havoc on schooling and other social activities in Northern Nigeria. Over 120,000 families are internally displaced within the country (Kolawole, 2014). Research indicates there are psychological impacts on parents exposed to terrorism, such as fear, mental illness, worries over possible future attacks, pessimism, and hyper-vigilance (Pat-Horenczyk et al., 2011; Pfefferbaum et al., 2014). The experience of terrorism leads to changes in the behavior and perceptions of parents (Anyadike & Nkechi, 2013; Caldararo, 2014; Ering, Omono, & Oketa, 2014; Slone & Mann, 2016), compelling them to make certain decisions about their world. It is documented that parents exposed to terrorism are more protective of their girls than of boys because girls show higher rates of anxiety syndrome after such exposure (Helmut & Janestic, 2013; Maiangwu & Amao, 2015; Sanni, 2015; Saraiya, Garakani, & Billick, 2013; Zenn & Pearson, 2014).

By implication, non-Muslim displaced parents (who are either Christians, pagans, or of any religion other than Islam) who have teenage daughters may experience fear about their daughter's schooling and safety. Studies have documented the psychological impact of exposure to terrorism on internally displaced parents that leads to changes in perceptions and behavior (Anyadike & Nkechi, 2013; Caldararo, 2014; Ering et al., 2014; Minteh & Perry 2013; Rubin & Wessely, 2013). However, little research has been conducted on the experiences of non-Muslim displaced parents regarding the schooling

of their teenage daughters. Sending their teenage daughters to school indicates the willingness of non-Muslim displaced parents to take this step in spite of the fear resulting from horrific experiences. In this study, I provided an in-depth understanding of the lived experience of non-Muslim displaced parents and how that affected decision-making concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters in Nigeria. This study also showed awareness of the problem that could encourage an intervention design to be undertaken by governmental and nongovernmental entities.

For this research review, I located relevant articles for further reference. The study shed light on the experience of terrorism and the effects of terrorism on children's schooling, parents' perception of the risk and value of education, and parents' attitude towards the schooling of their children, along with the education of teenage girls in Northern Nigeria.

### **Research Strategy**

For this study, I searched for literature from several sources. I accessed PsycINFO, psycARTICLES using the key search terms *terrorism, displacement, parents' attitude, parents experience, children's schooling, decision-making, and decisions from experience*. Other terms used to narrow the search included *Boko Haram, insurgency, prospect theory, risky choices, schooling of children, internally displaced persons, displaced parents, teenage female education, and children and education*. By reviewing the references to read articles, other literature was found that the search strategy did not initially capture. The Walden online library provided access to the needed articles via Researchgate and Social Science Electronic Publishing database. Delta State Library also

provided access to some information not found online. No literature was found directly about the experiences of non-Muslim displaced parents towards the schooling of their teenage daughters. Therefore, the reviewed content is limited to the effect of displacement due to terrorism on parents and children's schooling.

### **Theoretical Foundation**

The theoretical framework for this study is prospect theory. Prospect theory was developed by Kahneman and Tversky in the field of economics in 1979. It emerged from expected utility theory, which is a theory about choice and decision-making based on end results and under risk conditions. Prospect theory focuses on how people make decisions based on their understanding of the values of their gains and losses under risk conditions rather than the final outcome of the risk, such as war, conflict, terrorism or uncertainty (Mercer, 2005). Since its development, prospect theory has been used as a predictor of human behavior and decision-making process under risk conditions in psychological studies (Hens & Vicek, 2011; Trott, 2013).

The nexus of the theory reflects how people make decisions in actuality rather than mere theoretical postulation. It is decision-making based on personal experiences of gains and losses under risk conditions such as war, terrorism, conflict, or uncertainty (Hertwig, 2012; Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Philips & Pohl, 2014). Kahneman and Tversky (1979) argued that under risk conditions, people make decisions by the values of gains and losses, rather than the final outcome. In concrete terms, the actors' behaviors are dependent on the setting of a reference point (losses or gains) against which they evaluate outcomes, whether consciously or not. This affects the willingness of the actors



to accept risk in their decision-making. By implication, the choices individuals make based on gains and losses are a reflection of how much risk they are willing to take.

Trott (2013) opined that the definition of prospect theory relies on three basic observations of human nature: (a) actors make judgments based on a reference point; (b) actors have a higher inclination for losses than for gains; and (c) actors are risk-avoiding for gains and risk-acceptant for losses. Actors evaluate outcomes based on how they estimate the cost and benefits, and choices are made based on prospective gains and losses. When a policy is made to guarantee 90% employment, there is the natural tendency to accept it compared to the 10% unemployment. The framing of the 10% unemployment is considered the domain of loss. When individuals frame an outcome as a loss, they will assume more risk than when framed as gain. There is greater likelihood to take some risks in the domain of losses than if the individuals were in the domain of gains (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Non-Muslim displaced parents are in the domain of losses due to displacement from exposure to terrorism. Thus, prospect theory suggests that displaced non-Muslim parents will take more risk concerning the schooling of their children than parents who did not experience terrorism.

This process of decision-making is divided into two stages, editing and evaluating. In the editing stage, the actor identifies the gains and losses from the various outcome options with a neutral mindset. In the evaluating stage, the actor makes judgments based on a reference point (losses or gains) and weighs alternative outcomes against subjective biases of risk (Scholten & Read, 2014; Timmermans, 2010). This means displaced non-Muslim parents would at first identify what their gains and losses

are before making decisions of what they consider their vantage point. The possible gains for non-Muslim parents in their decisions concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters are academic prospects for their daughters, access to education, governmental interventions, and resettlement. The possible losses would be feelings of insecurity, the vulnerability of daughters to harm, an inability to support the education of their daughters financially, and continued illiteracy of their daughters.

Hertwig (2012) opined that people make risky choices because they are ignorant or have limited experience. However, in prospect theory, knowing there is a threat does not necessarily mean a person makes risky decisions. Decisions are made based on the actors' value of gains and losses (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Lasenby-Lessard, Morrongiello & Barrie, 2014). For example, when government administration is at a loss resulting from crisis or terrorism, there is a tendency to choose war instead of peace or embrace risky rescue missions and reforms. Such governments are more popular when they make this choice compared to governments in the domain of gains that negotiate for peace. The Nigerian government in the domain of losses confirmed this proposition by utilizing military might to fight the Niger Delta militants for vandalizing the crude oil pipeline and agitating for political emancipation (Ajibade & Segun, 2013). This shows that people are risk averse in the domain of gains and avoid risk unless there is adequate compensation for it.

There are five techniques to determine the actor's reference points of gains and losses based on status quo, aspiration, heuristics, analogies, and emotions (Caponecchia, 2012; Mercer, 2005). Of these, emotion is more suitable for explaining the domain of

losses for non-Muslim displaced parents because it can show the feelings and attitudes of these parents in their decision-making. Emotions are central to prospect theory in that they are an influential factor in decision-making (Young, Goodie, Hall, & Wu, 2012). The actor experiences various events in life that trigger feelings. These feelings affect decision-making. People care more about changes in their present condition than the final asset value (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). For example, displaced parents will care more about their daily survival and sustenance than any future policy-making.

Each person has subjective feelings of losses and gains that drive their choices. Emotions such as fear, greed, sadness, anger, panic, regret, pride, and trust play an important role in the choices made (Mercer, 2005; Yechiam & Hochman, 2013; Young et al., 2012). Feelings can cause people to frame and reframe their choices. Their preferences are not stable or hierarchical; they construct them based on their experiences and feelings (Monahan, 2012). When there is no threat, there is no willingness to take a risk. Emotions help in defining an individual's domain of gains or losses in this regard (Hens & Vlcek, 2011). Thus, displaced parents who experienced excessive fear may feel insecure and isolated (Imasuen, 2015).

For Kahneman and Tversky (1979) decision-making in situations of risk is a psychological evaluation of the potential gains and losses. In prospect theory, loss aversion means to assume more risk and avoid the frame of loss by seeking to identify the prospect of gain. Fear of loss or the hope of gain can influence the decision. No person wants to lose, and that makes humans risk-takers (Kothiyal, Spinu, & Wakker, 2011). Actors in the domain of loss may cooperate to avoid more losses, but prospect theory

expects them to assume a risky position to attain gains (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). In life, it is difficult to determine how actors evaluate risk. However, the greater the outcome desired in the domain of loss, the riskier the choices, but if the outcome is considered moderate, the lesser the risk that is accepted (Greenberg & Lowrie, 2012). Thus, it may be the case that non-Muslim displaced parents in the domain of loss make riskier choices concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters to improve the life prospects of their children.

Prospect theory has been applied in various conflict decisions under risk. Glöckner and Pachur (2012) and Campos-Vazquez and Guilty used the theory to predict the stability of individual differences in risky choices and found that people make individual choices under risk situations based on their perceptions, reference points, and emotional stability. Thus, emotion is influenced by risk and loss aversion, and influences decision-making. In their studies, Hancock and Weiss (2011) and Yechiam and Hochman (2013) argued that losses are given more attention than gains in decision-making under risk because losses increase task-attention and the tendency for reinforcement. This explains why individuals try to frame choices that are less risky. Agbiboa (2013), Braithwaite (2013), Ezell, Bennett, von Winterfeldt, Sokolowski, & Collins (2010), Merrick and Leclerc (2014), Nevo and Erev (2012), and Ur & Vanin (2015) used the theory to demonstrate how positive decision-making reduces negative choices due to robust experiences in conflict situations. Ballard, Yeo, Neal, and Farrell (2016) and Eiser et al. (2012) used the theory to understand how people's interpretation of risk and making choices is based on personal experiences, feelings, values, cultural beliefs, and societal

dynamics. The authors found that prioritizing in decision-making is crucial in the pursuit of multiple goals. Glöckner, Hilbig, Henninger, and Fiedler (2016) used the theory to distinguish between experience-based decisions and description-based decisions under risk conditions. The experience of risk comes with uncertainty-related anxiety, which is not found in the mere description of risk. Scholer, Zou, Fujita, Stroessner, and Higgins (2014) and Zou, Scholer, and Higgins (2014) used the theory for understanding self-regulatory mechanisms as risk-taking becomes a motivational necessity that might result in preventive or promotional motivation. (Preventive motivation is negative risk-taking decisions across six key decision domains of health/safety, ethics, recreation, gambling, investment, and social, while promotional motivation is positive risk-taking decisions in social and investment domains.) There is the likelihood of switching between risky and conservative choices. Walasek and Stewart (2015) used the theory to understand how loss aversion shapes experiences and behavioral patterns of individuals. Prudence tends to be a universal trait in people who have experienced loss.

In regards to conflict in Africa, theories on decision-making have relied on anarchy theory, rational choice theory, deterrence theory, relative deprivation theory, and frustration-aggression theory (Awodola & Ayuba, 2015; Monahan, 2012; Weissman, Busch, & Schouten, 2014). These various theories oversimplified the motive of conflict perpetrators, distorted the image of the individual as ahistorical, and relied on expected outcomes (Adegbulu, 2013; Agbiboa, 2013). Despite recognition of these theories in the discussions of conflict in Africa, prospect theory sets a realistic decision-making perspective of gains and losses from the personal experience of the actor rather than

expected outcomes, which several other theories have relied on (Agbiboa, 2013; Braithwaite, 2013; Ezell et al., 2010; Hancock & Weiss, 2011; Ur & Vanin, 2015). Prospect theory focuses on capturing the feelings or emotions of the actors and the motive behind their decision-making under risk conditions.

The advantage of choosing prospect theory is that it avoids generalization and tries to understand the psychophysical thinking of the individual. The individual's risk tendency varies across context with individuals being risk averse in the domain of gains and risk accepting in the domain of losses (Kothiyal et al., 2011; Scholten & Read, 2014). The argument of this study, which is based on the tenets of prospect theory, is that non-Muslim displaced parents are expected to make riskier choices about their teenage daughters' schooling.

### **Review of Literature**

The experience of terrorism has far-reaching consequences for parents and the decisions they make concerning the schooling of their children. The following literature review provides insight into the experience of non-Muslim displaced parents when they have to make decisions about the schooling of their teenage daughters in times of conflict.

#### **Experience of Terrorism**

Research has shown that terrorism results in the loss of lives, properties, and the displacement of survivors (Yablon, 2015). Across the globe, people are exposed to acts of terrorism almost on a daily basis either directly or indirectly through media (Doeland, 2012; Masten & Narayan, 2012). It is estimated that there are over 25-27 million IDP in

the world due to terrorism. Ninety percent of this population is from the African continent (Imasuen 2015; Kolawole, 2014). In Nigeria, Boko Haram is responsible for the displacement of over 2.2 million persons in various states such as Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Kaduna, Kano, Nassarawa, Plateau, Taraba, Yobe, and Zamfara (Adekeye, 2015). Allehone (2010) and Orchard (2010) described IDP as individuals forced out of their natural homes by armed conflict, economic hardship, violence, internal strife, natural disaster, or human right violation, and who have yet to cross an international border. In the context of this study, IDP refers to those who left their homes involuntarily due to Boko Haram attacks and are still within Nigeria.

The major cause of displacement in Africa is armed conflicts resulting from bad governance, ethnic dispute, unfair distribution of resources, poverty, corruption, and the struggle for power (Akume, 2015; Awodola & Ayuba, 2015; Awortu, 2015; Joda & Abdulrasheed, 2015; Onyirioha, 2015; Siriwardhana & Stewart, 2013; Slone & Mann, 2016). Researchers found that due to terrorism or conflict, displaced persons suffer distortion of family routine, frustration, depression, deprivation, prolonged physical and mental illness, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), such as shock, fear, stress, anger, resilience (Akume, 2015; Maiangwa & Agbiboa, 2014; Ogwo, 2013; Ouili, 2015; Romanov, Zussman, & Zussman, 2012). Consequently, there is a lingering feeling of vulnerability to harm that keeps displaced persons from normal living (Anyadike & Nkechi, 2013; Braithwaite, 2013; Canetti et al., 2015; Ron, 2014; Rubin & Wessely, 2013; Tuchner, Meiner, Parush, & Hartman-Maeir, 2010). However, there is the

affirmation of remarkable individual differences and reactions to the impact of terrorism (Daphna, Brian, Carmit, & Carly, 2013; De Castro et al., 2012).

Based on a survey of 45 parents and their children who were exposed to the 9/11 World Trade Center attacks in the New York metropolitan area, Lindstrom et al. (2011) have observed that terrorism has lingering impacts on parents. The authors found that five years after the 9/11 attacks, the acuteness of parents' sensitivity regarding their own safety and that of their children was higher among those who experienced greater exposure to the traumatic event than among parents with little exposure to the event. A similar study conducted by Eisenberg and Silver (2011) revealed greater attachment of parents to their children after their exposure to the 9/11 World Trade Center attacks. Greenberg and Babcock-Dunning (2012) further confirmed that after the 9/11 attacks, parents' adverse feelings regarding terrorism surpassed their feelings about other hazards. A national random telephone survey of 1,251 persons exposed to terrorism and five other environmental hazards revealed that 65% of adults worried more about terrorism than about the other environmental hazards.

According to Pat-Horenczyk et al. (2011) and Pfefferbaum et al. (2014), the challenges of exposure to terrorism had significant impact on the perceptions and behavior of parents. Their findings showed changes in the behavior of parents after exposure to terrorism. These parents were noted to be violent and expressed anger towards those around them. Agbibo (2014) and Imasuen (2015) in their studies also found that affected parents developed different perceptions and behavior after exposure to terrorism such as fear of future attacks, pessimism, and hyper-vigilance (a state of



increased vigilance caused by fear and anxiety, and the person's attempt to avoid danger resulting in increased heart rate, obsessive avoidance of perceived threat, startle reflex, and overestimation of the threat from a specific situation). These changes in the perceptions of parents are affecting their behavior and decision-making (Anyadike & Nkechi, 2013; Caldararo, 2014; Ering et al., 2014; Minteh & Perry 2013; Rubin & Wessely, 2013). A study in Afghanistan of 4365 parents exposed to terrorism revealed excessive fear, transfer of aggression to children, negative interactions with others, and being excessively authoritarian (Slone & Mann, 2016). Similarly, the study conducted by Tay, Rees, Kareth and Silove (2016) of 230 refugees from West Papua displaced to Port Moresby revealed fear, isolation, avoidance, and anger in their attitude towards others after they were reminded of the trauma.

**Effects of terrorism exposure on displaced parents.** A phenomenological study conducted by Tuason, Güss, and Carroll (2012) on nine displaced survivors of Hurricane Katrina revealed both positive and negative attitudes among these individuals. They exhibited loss of faith, strained relationships with others, loss of trust in the government, and resilience. Similarly, a phenomenological study conducted by McCormack & McKellar (2015) of survivors 9 years following exposure to the Bali bombing of 2005 revealed both positive and negative attitudes and feelings in the lived experience of the participants. The positive attitudes were reflected in the survivors' redefinition of their self-growth to face the future, while negative attitudes ignited a justified anger toward vigilance and prevention of future terrorism.

In an ethnography conducted by Waheed and Ahmad (2012), the researchers documented the negative effects of terrorism on the socioeconomic lives of parents. They found that one of the major effects of terrorist attacks on displaced persons is a financial setback as most breadwinners in the family are victims. The socioeconomic change affects the quality of life and parents become helpless in providing for the basic needs of their children. Thus, it is difficult for such parents to support the education of their children. Tarabah, Badr, Usta, and Doyle (2015) found that children of such parents lack parental support in furthering their education and resort to violent behavior as a way of life.

A major challenge of IDP in Nigeria is the issue of security (Ogwo, 2013; Uzodike & Maiangwa, 2012; Uzodike & Onapajo, 2012). There is uncertainty about the relative security put in place by the government. Allehone (2010) and Orchard (2010) have defined IDPs as individuals whose experiences of armed conflict, violence, internal strife, natural disaster, or human right violations have forced them out of their natural homes, and who are yet to cross an international border. In the specific context of this study, this term refers to those who have left their homes involuntarily because of Boko Haram attacks and are still residing within Nigeria. Since the insurgency of Boko Haram is not completely conquered, there is the possibility of IDP being attacked in their various communities. The insurgent group can resurface and cause more havoc since they attacked IDP camps in the Northern region (Oarhe, 2013). Although IDPs are accepted in the host communities, they are often treated as settlers or nonindigenous persons who cannot participate in the socio-cultural lives of the people (Eme & Ibietan, 2012). The

displaced parents are often reminded of their state of homelessness. Perlman et al. (2012) noted that the stressful experience of homelessness impacts negatively on the parent-child relationship, results in poor parenting, learning disabilities, and behavioral problems for children.

Attaining a better understanding of the experiences of displaced parents in Northern Nigeria will require an overview of the situation of IDP. The IDP in Nigeria reside in various camps and communities all over the country (Kolawole, 2014). A camp is a place approved by the government for the IDP to find shelter and support (Imasuen, 2015). Religion and gender are distinguishing marks in some of the camps. This gender ramification destroys the very essence of family togetherness. There are Christians and Muslims camps that are further demarcated as a male or female settlement (Akume, 2015; Kolawole, 2014). The agency responsible for the IDP is National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA; Akume, 2015). The agency is established to manage any emergency situation in the nation. The functions of the agency are to provide food, temporary shelter, medication, therapy, security, and basic household items like buckets, cups, towels, etc. (Imasuen, 2015).

**Effects of terrorism exposure on women and girls.** Gender also plays a role in such exposure. The studies by Richards et al. (2011) of 109 IDP residing in Columbia, and the studies by Mujeeb and Zubair (2012) of 63 male and 62 female displaced persons in Pakistan, revealed that the female gender was a higher predictor of the PTSD syndrome of anxiety. The authors confirmed that women experienced more fear, stress, anxiety, and depression than men. Murphy (2010) and Yahav (2011) discovered that in

the event of terrorism, women and children are more affected than men. The studies revealed that girls were rated higher on the anxiety syndrome than boys.

Girls tend to fear more and go into emotional trauma during violent conflict. The studies by Mapiko and Chinyoka (2013), Masten and Narayan (2012), and Pereda (2013) showed that Palestinian parents exposed to extreme violence in Gaza exhibited protective tendencies for their girls and would tolerate their boys' participation in such conflicts. The female children enjoyed more parental security than the boys as the parents kept them within watchful distance. Ensor (2014), Doeland (2012), Maiangwu and Amao (2015), and Sanni (2015) also found that female children suffer more as victims of sexual assault and sex slaves in the event of terrorism compared to boys. Some of the girls are raped, forced into early marriage by abductors, or forced to engage in prostitution for survival.

Shemyakina (2011b) in the study of armed conflict in Tajikistan from 1992- 1998 revealed that teenage school girls who lived in affected regions were less likely to be enrolled in school and complete their schooling compared to teenage school girls who did not live in affected regions. He further argued that exposure to violence affects boys and girls equally on school attainment, but girls are kept at home more to avoid sexual assaults and harassment on their way to school compared to boys. In the next section, studies will be highlighted to provide additional information on the effects of terrorism on children's schooling.

### **Impacts of Terrorism on Children's Schooling**

Schools that used to be a safe environment for children's learning are now focal points for terrorist attacks. There have been attacks on educators and students in countries like Iran, Palestine, Afghanistan, Sudan, Iraq, Colombia, Democratic, Republic of Congo, and Nigeria (Siham, Shifra, & Boag, 2012; Slone & Mann, 2016; Tarabah et al., 2015). No child is immune to the traumatic effects of terrorism no matter where they live. The children who did not have a direct experience of terrorism must have watched it on television or heard about it somehow (Ahmed, 2010). Many of these affected children in Africa end up in the hospital with no mental health service or psychological support (Ahmed, 2010). Hence, Sanni (2015) argued that parents in conflict situations may not be able to send their children to school as much as poor parents in developing countries because of financial reasons and lack of psychological support. Such conditions deny children access to quality education.

According to Eisenberg and Silver (2011), children's ages, the intensity of terror, social support, and parents' attitude determine how children cope and attend to schooling. The authors further argued that a positive school environment is a resilience factor in explaining intervention for children exposed to terrorism. In a study of 534 Israeli high-school students, Yablon (2015) observed that terrorism impacts negatively on children's schooling. Just the thought of school poses the risk of PTSD. The author suggested that the risk can be reduced with school attendance and improved positive behavior.

Following the attacks of Boko Haram, there is limited or no access to schooling in Northern Nigeria. Even where a school is available in the region, it is overcrowded

and understaffed (Ilechukwu, 2014). These children are required to learn in unfavorable conditions under trees, canopies and dilapidated buildings (Oladunjoye & Omemu, 2013). The children in the displaced camps do not have access to quality education as they are hoping for an end to the insurgency and a return home (Alta & Hussein, 2014). The effect of Boko Haram on the schooling of children could have both short and long-term impacts.

**Short-term effects.** Justino, Leone, and Salardi (2013) argued that there are short and long-term impacts of terrorism on the education of children. During the past two decades, there has been accelerated terrorist violence with deadly intent and effects (Clauzet & Gleditsch, 2012). A study of the wave of violence in Timor-Leste in 1999 revealed school avoidance by children. Thus, teenage girls may be afraid of going to school. Similarly, the report from the Psychiatric Association in America (2013) on survivors after two years of exposure indicated that children developed mental challenges and were reluctant to go to school.

**Long-term effects.** Long-term effects come through the destruction of substantial human and physical capital, forced population movement, damage to infrastructure, disruption of daily routines, and psychological trauma (Rubin & Wessely, 2013; Tarabah et al., 2015). Joshi and Fayyad (2015) argued that the effects of terrorism are complex and challenging for children who are psychologically immature and extremely vulnerable due to their age. Terrorism affects children's personality structure, identity formation, and adaptive and coping mechanisms. Children may be provided food, shelter, and clothing, and have their medical needs attended to. However, their emotional and psychological

needs are usually not recognized or attended to, which may have great consequences. In a pilot study by Pfefferbaum et al. (2013) of children in Gaza, Sarajevo, and Lebanon after ten years of exposure revealed that school-age children felt unsafe in the streets. Many lived improvised lives and were deformed in their orientation about life.

One year after the Oklahoma City bombing, 50% of elementary school children revealed anxiety syndrome and the other half reported a concern about the safety of their family. The children suffered disrupted consciousness, restlessness, school absences, social isolation, a decline in academic performance, intense grief, enduring sense of pessimism, and extreme cognitive impairment (Ahmed, M., 2010). Similarly, in the study by Lindstrom et al. (2011) children expressed fear about school and suffered attention bias.

Education, which is known to be the bedrock of self-actualization and national development (Hardie, 2015; Qureshi, 2014), is under serious threat as several schools in northern Nigeria are shut down leaving parents and children traumatized about the future (Oluyemisi, 2015). According to Fine (2012) the closure of schools affects the motivation of students. Many parents may lose interest in sending their children to school as they may not be able to afford the cost of financing the education of their children in the available schools or they may be afraid of impending dangers of insecurity and death their children may be exposed to (Adeyemi, 2011, Ee et al., 2012; Lambert et al., 2014; Maiangwu & Amao 2015; Oluyemisi, 2015; Pat-Horenczyk et al., 2012). With the attacks on schools, the cost of funding education will not be very easy for a government that is

currently battling a recession (Babatunde et al., 2014). The next section will explore parents' value for education and attitude towards sending their children to school.

### **Parents' Values and Attitudes**

The value that parents attach to education is a major factor in determining the future of their children (Adamski et al., 2013) as such parents are willing to invest in the future of their children (Kremer-Sadlik, & Fatigante, 2013). According to Hardie (2015), parental attitude and value for education are key ingredients to attaining children's educational goals and fixed-actualization. Parents make decisions to send their children to school without their consent. No matter how good a teacher is, the relationship between children and parents is a stronger motivation for children's attitude toward schooling (Qureshi, 2014). Although, fathers and mothers do not differ in their attitude to their children's education, their own levels of educational attainment and parenting style affects children's school achievement (Abdorreza & Rozumah, 2010; Adamski et al., 2013; Rout, 2011). Parents with educational backgrounds are more desirous of the education of their children than parents without educational background (Gyanendra, 2010).

A survey study of 475 Greek parents by Antonopoulou, Koutrouba, and Babalis (2011) on parental educational involvement in their children's development revealed that the value parents attached to education determined their level of involvement in the education of their children. Another survey study by Altschul (2011) of 1,609 Mexican American families with students at risk for academic underachievement revealed that parental educational involvement and value for education are the strongest indicators of



academic improvement of their children. Parents' financial investment in their children's education and the home relationship was found to have a greater impact than other forms of involvement that require parents' investment of their time. Likewise, a phenomenological study of 12 Chinese immigrant families by Zhong and Zhou (2011) revealed that Chinese immigrant parents in Canada were more interested in the education of their children in spite of their unpleasant experiences.

In their study, Stevens & Schaller (2011) argued that parental job loss contributes significantly to children's academic difficulties, but the parents were interested in the education of their children. A case study of displaced Sudanese parents' voices on education and humanitarian aid by Affolter and Allaf (2014) revealed that displaced parents view education as a fundamental prerequisite for social status, prestige, socio-economic survival, and human dignity. However, they lamented that humanitarian aid attributes less importance to education than to other sectors such as health, nutrition, and clothing.

Attitudes of parents toward the education of their children change due to an experience of terrorism. Eder (2014) studied the effect of displacement of parents during a violent conflict in the Bosnian War between 1992 and 1995, and investment in their children's education years later. The study revealed that displaced parents spent less on the education of their children in primary and secondary schools five years after the incident. The potential explanation for the reduced spending on the education of their children by displaced parents is due to altered preferences resulting from uncertainty about the future and financial constraints (Eder, 2014; Rahim, Jaimovich, & Ylönen

2013). Sanni (2015) also argued that parents affected by conflict are unable to send their children to school for financial reasons compared to parents who did not experience conflict in developing countries. Although parents are regularly involved in the education of their children, the impact of terrorism hinders their commitment since they suffer the loss of jobs, shelter, and personal belongings (Ciampi, 2012; Siham et al., 2012; O'Rourke, 2015).

Several studies have documented the impact of political violence, war, and terrorism on children's schooling. In the study of Palestinian and Jewish parents' attitude towards peace promoting education, the parents' attitudes negatively influenced the children towards education (Siham et al., 2012). Studies of the protracted conflict in the Middle East between Israel and Palestine by Skuse (2011) revealed cognitive distortion and emotional vulnerability in children. Children exposed to the Rwandan genocide in 1994 developed abusive behaviors, behaved in ways that increased their chances of health and mental challenges, and exhibited school avoidance (Ogwo, 2013). Freh (2015) studied 149 major wars and terrorist attacks between 1945 and 1992 that led to the death of 23 million parents and observed that children were affected based on the disposition of their parents being either casualties or combatants. The parents' disposition determines the children's willingness to go to school. The constant abduction of teenage girls from schools by Boko Haram may impact negatively on the attitude of non-Muslim parents concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters.

Schueler et al. (2014) noted that the attitude of parents about their children's schooling matters a lot as it also shapes children's attitude to school. Parents send their

children to school based on their perception of school climate. The motivation, behavior and academic performance of children are dependent on parents' attitude. In studying the perception of three different groups of parents in the United States who were educated, more affluent and influential =385, n=253, n=266, and had children between the ages of 5 and 18 years, it was revealed that the parents had no differences in their perception of school climate (Schueler, et al., 2014).

A study conducted by Rojas-Flores et al. (2013) in El Salvador with 35 parents and caregivers living in the context of the crisis alongside their children indicated that the conflict impacted negatively on the education of the children and affected the parenting attitude due to uncertainty and hardship. Parents did not attach much relevance to their children's schooling as much as to their well-being. Olowoselu, Onuselogu, and Bello (2014) and Kainuwa, Binti, and Yusuf (2013) argued that the economic backgrounds of parents determine whether they send their children to school in Northern Nigeria. A lot of parents are farmers in the region (Olabanji, 2015). It is believed that the child will contribute more to the family through farming than their schooling (Babatunde, Unwana-Obong, & Olanrewaju, 2014; Olabanji, 2015).

Ilechukwu (2014) further argued that since Boko Haram has crumbled the economic strength of the region, it is difficult for parents to afford the school fees of their children, which may translate to their unwillingness to send their children to school. Oladunjoye & Omemu (2013) also noted that the attitude of parents in Northern Nigeria towards Western education is due to the long-lasting effects of Islamic education in the region. With the recent acts of Boko Haram terrorism, lots of parents from Northern

Nigeria may lose interest in the education of their children due to the trauma they went through of near death experience in the bombings of various markets, churches, mosques and schools in Adamawa, Borno, Yobe, and Maiduguri (Abdullahi & Terhema, 2014; Abdulrasheed et al., 2015). Some of the students have developed school phobia due to perceptions of the school environment as dangerous (Aliyu et al., 2015; Oladunjoye & Omemu, 2013). They sustained injuries, saw the violent butchering of students in schools, witnessed the abduction of fellow students and parents, and experienced the violent destruction of schools and homes (Chiluwa & Ifukor, 2015). The next section will examine parents' perception of risk and the schooling of their children.

### **Parents' Perceptions of Risk Related to the Schooling of Their Children**

Murphy (2011) argued that homelessness creates a condition of risk for children regarding disconnection from school, absence of necessary parental support, malnutrition, and affiliation with deviant peers. The state of risk has devastating physical, emotional, social, and educational impact on children (Bragin & Opiro, 2012; Brom, Pat-Horenczyk, & Baum, 2011). Exposure to violence impacts on parents' preferences. The preference towards risks is also affected (Voors et al., 2012). Parents perceive conflict situations to be risky for their children.

Pherali (2013), in the study of a decade-long conflict in Nepal (1996-2006), revealed that schooling of children was difficult in violent situations as they are vulnerable to attacks. In spite of these risks and schooling difficulties, parents allowed their older children to go to school. However, Ouili (2015), in the study of Ivorian political instability and crisis from 1999-2011, noted that parents in conflict areas did not

enroll their children in schools. The children whose parents took the risk of sending them to school had low attendance of schooling activities. The armed conflict increased the mortality rate of children due to the deteriorating state of living and access to basic amenities.

The schooling experience that was relatively low in Northern Nigeria, particularly for Muslim females due to their cultural system of early child marriage and negative attitudes toward teenage girls have become worse with the acts of terrorism by Boko Haram (Adekeye, 2015; Oladunjoye & Omemu, 2013). Moreover, women and teenage girls are more affected by the insurgency as victims of rape, abduction, protective shield, vanguards of suicide bombings, and child soldiers (Maiangwu & Amao, 2015; Sanni, 2015). In spite of the security strategies adopted by the Nigerian government to curb Boko Haram, the schooling experience in Northern Nigeria is considered risky for teenage girls (Afolayan et al., 2013; Nmadu et al., 2010; Unterhalter, Heslop, & Mamedu, 2013) as they are more targeted by the terrorists.

According to Uzodike and Maiangwa (2012) and Yakubu (2012), the region is suffering more educational setbacks as teachers are unwilling to work there and the environment is risky for children's schooling. Over 800 schools were destroyed, which makes learning in schools difficult. Most of the students who are willing to learn are often doing so under trees and canopies (Okemi, 2013). The security threat of Boko Haram is affecting school attendance and hindering the educational development of children from that region (Oladunjoye & Omemu, 2013).

### **Impact of Boko Haram on Female Educational Development**

Historically, women were restricted from receiving education in Asia and sub-Saharan Africa when schooling was initially introduced, as their role was perceived to be that of childbearing and housekeeping (Alabi & Alabi, 2014). Mostly in Northern Nigeria, women were perceived as being unworthy of an education as they will eventually be married (Amadi, 2013). This phenomenon also affects the education of teenage girls in the region. The education of teenage girls covers the formal learning experiences developed for students to promote their development and usefulness in society (Ouili, 2015).

Although the Nigerian National Policy on Education in 2004 recognized the need to give equal opportunities for the upbringing of male and female children in schools, several factors are militating against educating teenage girls in the region. These factors include the geographical location of the family home and travel distance to school, natural hazards such as floods, topography on the way to school, early marriage, child labor, early pregnancy, heavier female domestic duties, family size, family income, parents' level of education, poverty, lack of female teachers in rural regions, cultural beliefs, and poor implementation of educational policies (Alabi & Alabi, 2014; Babatunde et al., 2014; Hammajam et al., 2015; Ishaq & Ali, 2014).

Despite the efforts of government and nongovernmental organizations encouraging the education of teenage girls through scholarship and campaigns, only 20% of teenage girls in the region are literate (Alabi & Alabi, 2014). Onyirioha (2015) and Ishaq and Ali (2014) argued that since formal education was posing serious challenges,

non-formal education can be a remedy to the education of teenage girls in Northern Nigeria given the cultural practice of early marriage in the region. However, this is a far cry from the sustained education of teenage girls in schools.

In the pilot study of Nmadu et al. (2010) in Kaduna State of Northern Nigeria, it was observed that gender inequity of education places the teenage girl in a disadvantaged position as 60% of graduates from primary schools are boys compared to 13% for girls. Several girls dropped out of school or never attended a school. Until recently female education was encouraged by government and nongovernment agencies, Boko Haram has put a stop to this growth process through abductions, killings, destructions of schools and communities (Maiangwu & Agbibo, 2014).

Based on the literature reviewed, terrorism has a significant impact on children's schooling and parents' behavior. Research revealed that displacement causes frustration, distortion of family routine, insecurity, lack of physical and mental well-being, and constant fear for parents and their children (Afolayan et al. 2013; Awodola & Ayuba, 2015; Imasuen, 2015; Maiangwa & Agbibo, 2014; Ogwo, 2013; Ojochenemi et al., 2015). Research also documented changes in behavior and perception of parents due to exposure to terrorism (Anyadike & Nkechi, 2013; Caldararo, 2014; Ering et al., 2014; Minteh & Perry 2013; Pat-Horenczyk, et al. 2011; Pfefferbaum et al., 2014; Slone & Mann, 2016). Children exposed to terrorism exhibited violent behavior as a way of life and school avoidance (Brom, Pat-Horenczyk & Baum, 2011) as parents lacked financial support for their schooling (Tarabah et al., 2015; Waheed & Ahmad, 2012). The research also documented that parents exposed to terrorism are more protective of their girls than

of boys as girls showed higher rates of anxiety syndrome after such exposure (Chiluwa & Ifukor, 2015; Doeland, 2012; Helmut & Janestic, 2013; Maiangwu & Amao, 2015; Masten & Narayan, 2012; Murphy, 2010; Pereda, 2013; Peters, 2014; Sanni, 2015; Saraiya et al., 2013; Yahav, 2011; Zenn & Pearson, 2014). Therefore, terrorism can negatively impact the attitudes of displaced parents towards the education of their children.

Previous studies have assessed the psychological impact of terrorism on parents and their attitude to the schooling of their children (Ee et al., 2012; Lambert et al., 2014; Maiangwu & Amao 2015), showed parents' value and level of involvement in the education of their children (Affolter & Allaf, 2014; Antonopoulou et al., 2011; Hardie, 2015; Qureshi, 2014), showed parents' perception of risk (Oladunjoye & Omemu, 2013; Ouili 2015; Pherali 2013), showed the impact of Boko Haram on the education of teenage girls in Northern Nigeria (Alabi & Alabi, 2014; Freh, 2015; Ouili, 2015; Schueler et al. 2014).

However, there is no study on how non-Muslim displaced parents reached decisions about the schooling of their teenage daughters in Nigeria given the Boko Haram attacks. Previous studies identified the traumatic experiences of parents and children after exposure to terrorism (Lindstrom et al., 2011; Slone & Mann, 2016; Tay et al., 2016) but have not studied risky decision-making of sending their teenage daughters to school in Nigeria. The literature is limited to the effect of displacement due to terrorism on children's schooling and does not tell us about the experiences of non-Muslim displaced parents concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters. For



further studies, it will be possible to build a picture of this same study with larger populations or gender sensitivity of parents as fathers or mothers. Other areas for future studies include how non-Muslim displaced parents react to the schooling of their teenage boys, the behavior of displaced parents when their children are being schooled in conflict environments outside their homeland, how religious beliefs impact the decision-making of non-Muslim displaced parents concerning schooling of their children in Nigeria, and the attitude of returnee parents about the safety of their children's schooling.

### **Literature Review About Methodology**

The review of the literature confirmed the lack of qualitative research investigating the experience of non-Muslim displaced parents with regard to the schooling of their teenage daughters. This inadequacy necessitates a phenomenological approach. Most of the studies have relied heavily on the survey and experimental methods. This study focused on a phenomenological approach that can access the lived experience of how terrorism features in the decision-making of non-Muslim displaced parents in Nigeria regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters that previous studies have not utilized. The limitation of prior approaches is that there is no deep insight into the lived experience of how displaced non-Muslim parents in Nigeria make decisions about their children's schooling. Most of the studies on Boko Haram attacks in Nigeria are merely historical, analytic, and descriptive. This study transcended these approaches to an interpretative phenomenological approach that engenders making sense of the reflective lived experience (Smith et al., 2009) of displaced non-Muslim parents about the

schooling of their teenage daughters. A phenomenology study is concerned with the structure of subjective experience and consciousness (Creswell, 1998).

Thus, the study focused on the participants' perception of the world and personal experiences of Boko Haram (Smith et al., 2009). The in-depth interviews of 12 non-Muslim displaced parents from the refugee camps promoted phenomenological understanding about the schooling of their teenage daughters. In IPA, small samples of three to six participants are used, as this is seen as a reasonable sample size in which saturation occurs (Smith, 2015). The emerging themes from the interviews answered the research questions.

Previous studies have been conducted using the phenomenological approach in psychology to understanding the plight of displaced parents but not about the schooling of their teenage daughters. The study by McCormack and McKellar (2015) of exposure to the Bali bombing of 2005 using interpretative phenomenological analysis revealed a positive attitude using vigilance and negative attitude using anger to redefine self-growth to face the future. The trauma experience of exposure can ignite a justified anger towards vigilance and prevention of future terrorism. Tuchner, Meiner, Parush, and Hartman-Maeir (2010) in a study of survivors in Israel noted that survivors of terrorism tend to have a reduced quality of life due to restriction in home duties, unemployment, and less leisure even two years after the terrorist event. Tuason, Güss and Carroll (2012) confirmed in the phenomenological study of nine displaced hurricane Katrina survivors that revealed loss of faith, financial hardship, and separation from the community.

## **Summary and Conclusion**

The major themes in the literature are the experience of terrorism and displacement, effects of terrorism on children's schooling, the attitude of parents towards the education of children, parents' perception of risk and value for education, and the impact of Boko Haram on teenage girls in Northern Nigeria. In the field of psychology, studies indicate the psychological impact of terrorism on educational activities, and showed the plight of internally displaced parents and children due to Boko Haram attacks; perceptions of displaced persons, attitude of parents, and parents' involvement in the education of their children (Gyanendra, 2010; Parker, Standing & Pant, 2013; O'Rourke, 2015). However, much is not known about how non-Muslim displaced parents reached their decisions and factors that confront them when choosing to allow or disallow their children to pursue an education in Nigeria.

Through this study, I expanded what is known in the literature by filling in the gap of providing an in-depth understanding of the lived experience of displaced non-Muslim parents and how they make decisions concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters by conducting semistructured interviews. The findings from the study expanded knowledge of how the experience of non-Muslim displaced parents impacts the schooling of their teenage daughters. The next chapter will provide information about the selection of the research design for this study and give details of how participants were identified and recruited, the questions that were asked, and how the information were organized and analyzed.

### Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this IPA was to acquire an in-depth understanding of how the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents influenced their attitudes and decisions relating to the schooling of their teenage daughters. The decision-making of parents is critical to their children's educational attainments (Gyanenda, 2011; Terwase et al., 2015). Exploring how the experience of terrorism by non-Muslim displaced parents impacts their decision-making concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters requires careful reflection and examination of the value they ascribe to education, their perceptions of risk, and feelings associated with the trauma they have undergone.

As identified in the literature review, exposure to terrorism has psychological impact that changes behavior and perceptions of parents (Minteh & Perry 2013; Pat-Horenczyk, et al. 2011; Pfefferbaum et al., 2014; Slone & Mann, 2016). Moreover, documented research indicates that because girls suffer from higher rates of anxiety syndrome after such exposure than boys, parents exposed to terrorism tend to be more protective of their daughters than their sons (Helmut & Janestic, 2013; Maiangwu & Amao, 2015; Oluyemisi, 2015; Pereda, 2013; Peters, 2014; Sanni, 2015; Zenn & Pearson, 2014). I provide a detailed discussion of the research design and methodology in this chapter. I also clarify the choice of phenomenological method, the selection process for participants, the procedures for data collection, the data analysis plan, the issues of trustworthiness, and ethical procedures.

#### **Research Design and Rationale**

The following research question and subquestions were the focus of the study:

RQ: How do displaced non-Muslim parents who are camp residents describe the effect of the experience of terrorism on decisions to send their teenage daughters to school?

The subquestions were:

SQ1: What is the experience of displaced non-Muslim parents regarding the safety of the school for learning now that they reside in a refugee camp?

SQ2: What would facilitate non-Muslim displaced parents' decisions residing in camps to send their teenage daughters to school?

SQ3: How do non-Muslim displaced parents residing in camps feel about their teenage daughters not attending school?

Given the above research questions, careful consideration was given to methodologies for this study. Quantitative research tends to focus on explaining associations between variables and on outcomes; whereas qualitative research tends to concentrate on meaning attributed to life experiences and how such experiences are perceived (Smith et al., 2009). This research was driven by the quest for meaning. Therefore, phenomenology was the chosen design to examine the experiences of non-Muslim displaced parents regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters. Phenomenology entails a study of the structure of subjective experience and consciousness (Creswell, 1998). As a research method, it facilitates an understanding of how participants construct, interpret, and understand their worlds (Smith, Michie, Stephenson, & Quarrell, 2002). I applied phenomenology to this study to reveal and make sense of the lived experience of non-Muslim displaced parents' decision-making

concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters (Groenewald, 2004; Moustakas, 1994).

IPA as a research method is underpinned by phenomenology (the study of experience) and hermeneutics (interpretation) and is idiographic (particular). Phenomenology is concerned with the structure of subjective experience and consciousness (Smith et al., 2009). Hermeneutics is the theory of interpretation. It focuses on how an experience is interpreted (Smith et al., 2009). The idiographic approach focuses on understanding particular phenomena in a particular context (Smith et al., 2009). IPA is an appropriate methodology for this study, as it allows a researcher to explore, describe, interpret, and situate the experiences of the participants (Smith, 2015). People act according to how they understand their world. This explains why there are multiple ways of interpretation. The interpretative insights of research participants when sharing their experiences alongside the researcher's interpretations of these experiences can bring to light the unobserved realities in the participants' world (Smith et al., 2009). This study entailed the double hermeneutics of interpreting the interpreted experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents.

Seeking rich data and detailed accounts, the study provided participants with the space and opportunity to tell their stories freely and reflectively and to develop their ideas about the topic of concern at some length (Smith, 2015). IPA provides a context for deep insights relating to an individual's experience of a phenomenon at a given time because of the unique meaning that each person ascribes to unexplored lived experience (Smith, 2015; Smith & Eatough, 2007). Engagement in IPA required a commitment to detailed

exploration and reflection on how people make sense of major life experiences that have significance impacts in their lives. In IPA, access to experience is dependent on the participants' reflective stories, which the researcher has to interpret.

Although I considered using other methods of qualitative inquiry, my conclusion was that none would be as insightful and appropriate for my study as phenomenological inquiry. I could not use case study in this study as it is concerned with what occurred and was experienced in a single lived event (Cresswell, 1998). I also did not consider biography appropriate because it is concerned with the study of an individual's lived experience (Cresswell, 1998). This means the scope of this inquiry would be too narrow for this study because this study was focused on shared experiences of non-Muslim displaced parents. Grounded theory that attempts to develop an account of a particular phenomenon at a theoretical level (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was also not considered for this study as this did not match the focus of the study. Moreover, an ethnographic study, focusing on providing a detailed description of the cultural system (Cresswell, 1998), was also not considered for the study, given that displaced non-Muslim parents were outside of their cultural environment. Further, I may not be permitted to reside in the camp with displaced people for an extended period. Therefore, I opted for a small study sample that suits phenomenological study.

### **Role of the Researcher**

As the researcher in this study, I was an observer. I had limited knowledge about the setting of displaced camps and the experiences of displaced parents. I required permission to gain access to the camps and displaced parents, and I did not have any

personal or professional relationships with the participants that influenced the results of the study. After selecting the study site and the study participants, I initiated friendly interactions that demonstrated to the participants that I valued and shared their concerns. I am a Catholic priest, but I am not the priest designated to attend to the spiritual and material needs of the displaced individuals in the camps. My position as a priest had no direct influence on the displaced parents or camps. I disclosed my occupation to NEMA, which is the care giving agency for displaced parents. However, I did not disclose this information to participants to avoid undue influence.

I did not allow my position as a priest to influence individuals' decisions on whether to participate in the study. Disclosure of my identity as a Catholic priest could influence participation in the study, as Christian parents may indicate interest or feel obliged to participate for religious reasons. Moreover, as only six participants were required for the study, several hundred (over 500) in the camp who fit the study criteria of being displaced non-Muslim parents with teenage daughters would not be able to participate. Thus, I did not disclose my identity as a priest to the participants, and I was not dressed in any priestly regalia. Even if the participants had come to know about my identity through inquiry, I would have emphasized that my position as a priest or researcher should not influence their decision to participate.

Talking with displaced non-Muslim parents was necessary to acquire an understanding of their inner thoughts about the schooling of their teenage daughters. A year ago, I spoke with two displaced parents who are not camp residents about their plight and about Boko Haram's attacks on schools. These conversations could have



influenced my personal feelings and thoughts about the study and posed a possible bias. However, I was aware of this and did not allow my prior knowledge to influence the study. The information I sought related to the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents now residing in IDP camps and their decision-making regarding their teenage daughters' schooling.

There were no repercussions if participants declined to take part in the study. I ensured that no harm would come to any of the participants directly or indirectly. I was not dressed in any priestly regalia during the recruitment and interview processes. I personally selected participants from the IDP camps who wanted to participate in the study and who met the study's selection criteria. I also personally interviewed the participants and arranged the interviews in a place and at a time that was mutually agreed upon. When conducting interviews, I engaged more in listening and probing the participants to share their lived experience in relation to the schooling of their teenage daughters. I also personally analyzed the participants' responses to make sense of their experiences.

I thought of various challenges in conducting my study. The terrorist group could launch an attack anywhere in the country that could prevent travel during a particular period. Even at the camp, the camp director may grant me limited time or specific times to be with the participants. These possible challenges necessitated that the research was carried out as soon as possible. Moreover, I had to undergo security screening exercises determined by the camp director to guarantee the participants' protection.

My own belief is that given their traumatic experiences resulting from Boko Haram's attacks, the decisions of non-Muslim parents concerning the schooling of teenage daughters could reflect fear. In collecting and interpreting the data, I addressed this potential bias by bracketing all biases and preconceptions (putting aside all initial thoughts) of what I thought would be the expected reaction to fear and insecurity by non-Muslim displaced parents. I was mindful when listening to the experiences of the participants rather than dictating the direction of the interviews. While following the structure of predesigned interview questions, I gave the participants the space to direct and express their thoughts about the issues. Moreover, interpretations were based solely on the collected data. Transcripts of the participants' interviews were instrumental in guiding the processes of my reflection, analysis, and interpretation.

## **Methodology**

### **Participant Selection Logic**

There were over 500 displaced parents in the two identified camps I visited. The camps were safe as they were located in the southern region of the country where there was relative peace and security. The participants were selected through purposive sampling of camp residents who were displaced non-Muslim parents with teenage daughters. Given the ideographic approach adopted for this study, I assumed that at least six selected participants would be able to shed light on the phenomenon under study (Smith et al., 2009). Initially, I targeted for 16 participants, but only 12 volunteered. The criteria for selecting parents was that they were non-Muslims (Christians of any denomination) of either sex and of any age, and who had a teenage daughter aged 13–17

years. The open age for parents was to get the perspective of younger and older parents who could engage in reflective thinking. I targeted finding equal numbers for genders to attain balance and to compare their decision-making since in a family setting the males usually make decisions for educational choices if they are available.

Participants were from the IDP camps and had been there for more than a year. I proposed that if the number of interested participants was more than the required number for the study, parents with younger teenage daughters between 13-15 years of age would be considered first. This filtering process narrowed the scope of the study, as parents tend to worry more about their younger children than their older children (Pat-Horenczyk et al., 2011). This is because children within this age group are unable to sufficiently care for themselves and require the guidance and decision making of their parents regarding their schooling.

Participants were recruited after a meeting with the camp directors of NEMA in the visited camps alongside the displaced parents to introduce myself as the researcher and the nature of the study. After conducting a briefing, the directors left me alone with the parents. I explained the nature of the intended study and identified non-Muslim displaced parents with teenage daughters by asking those with teenage daughters to remain after the initial meeting. Then, I immediately met with the potential participants who stayed. This meeting provided the opportunity to tell the participants of the risks and benefits of participating in the study before identifying the actual participants for the study. Then, I asked interested participants to notify me individually by coming to the office reserved for me in the camp to write down their names. Then I was able to address

them individually about everything they needed to know and clarified their questions if they had any. After the initial meeting and knowing of the potential participants, I scheduled a day and time to meet with them individually in the camp.

I proposed choosing up to 16 participants who were willing to share their experiences in order to get at least six in-depth interviews following the required sample size of IPA where saturation occurs (Smith et al., 2009). Only 12 volunteered. Selection was on a first-come, first-served basis. Some interviews yielded limited data. However, an in-depth shared experience of at least six participants is considered sufficient to provide answers to the research questions since it is an idiographic approach, and it is theoretically consistent with a qualitative paradigm and IPA's orientation (Smith et al., 2009; Smith, 2015). IPA focuses on quality and not quantity as it is dependent on rich data, deep analysis of cases, and pragmatic restriction such as time or access to participants (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). According to previous studies, saturation in IPA occurs with five to six participants (Creswell, 1998, Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014; Smith, 2015). I provided the director of the agency and the voluntary participants with a letter that described the nature of the study and sought informed consent. This letter is reproduced in Appendix A.

### **Instrumentation**

The interview questions constituted the instrument of data collection. The interview schedule can be found in Appendix B. Semistructured interview questions enabled me to engage the participants in in-depth conversations that disposed them to share their experiences reflectively. I formulated the interview questions on my own, as

there are no previous studies on the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents in Nigeria.

The interview questions are in an open-ended format for the purpose of allowing the participants to express their thoughts, opinions, and feelings on the issues being discussed, which are subjective, insightful and non-predictive. The language was carefully chosen to avoid bias and ensure impartiality.

The sequence of the interview schedule was not strictly followed. The participants' responses determined what question to follow, and whether to probe further (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). The purpose of using a semistructured interview for the collection of data was to guide the interviews without straying away from the topic (Seidman, 2013). The interviews gave the participants the opportunity to share a rich narrative of their experiences and views about the topic. Also, the interviews allowed a purposeful conversation to emerge between the participants and the researcher that engenders deeper insight (Smith et al., 2009).

Prior to conducting interviews, I guaranteed the participants' anonymity and confidentiality, assuring them that no other individuals will be involved in the study. Even the peer reviewers did not have access to identifying information. During the interviews, I ensured that participants had sufficient time to reflect on and give meaning to their experiences. The interview enabled the participants to express their feelings, thoughts, and emotions from which I constructed a personal interpretative meaning (Smith, 2015). Conducting the interviews was time consuming, but the purpose is to gain

an in-depth understanding of the experiences of non-Muslim displaced parents concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters.

To answer RQ1— How do displaced non-Muslim parents who are camp residents describe the effect of the experience of terrorism on decisions to send their teenage daughters to school? —I used the following interview queries and probes:

- What are your thoughts and feelings about Boko Haram?
- What is your experience of terrorism? How has it affected your life and family?
- What are your views about the value of educating your teenage daughter?
- How does the experience of terrorism feature in your decision about the schooling of your daughter?
- What is the most challenging aspect of Boko Haram attacks for you concerning the schooling of your teenage daughter?
- What are your thoughts, feelings, hopes, and fears concerning the continued education of your daughter in the face of the security risk?

To answer SQ1—What is the experience of displaced non-Muslim parents regarding the safety of schools for learning now that they reside in a refugee camp?—I used the following interview queries and probes:

- What are your thoughts about the security of schools in Nigeria?
- What are your feelings about the protection or safety of your teenage daughter and her schooling?

To answer SQ2—What would facilitate non-Muslim displaced parents' decisions residing in camp to send their teenage daughters to school?—I used the following interview queries and probes:

- How do you feel since your daughter is not in school?
- How important is the schooling of your daughter and why?
- What are the things you would consider if you are to send your daughter to school?
- What things do you think should be in place to facilitate the schooling of your teenage daughter?

To answer SQ3—How do non-Muslim displaced parents residing in camps feel about their teenage daughters not attending school?—I used the following interview queries and probes:

- How would you describe the effects of Boko Haram on your daughter's schooling?
- What do you think your daughter feels about schooling at this time?
- How does this make you feel? How does this influence your decision about sending her to school?

The closing question for the interview was: What else would you like to share about your decision(s) concerning the schooling of your teenage daughter?

### **Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection**

The data was collected personally from displaced camps visited. Contact were made via telephone to NEMA's regional office, providing information about the study.

Subsequently, I sent them a detailed and informative letter (Appendix A) about the nature of the study, requesting access to prospective participants.

A request for a scheduled meeting with all non-Muslim displaced parents was made through the camp director outside their usual camp activities. On the fixed date, the camp director introduced me to the parents and left me to discuss with them. After identifying all the non-Muslim displaced parents with teenage daughters, the nature of the study was explained to them. Then, interested participants were identified through a private notification to me individually, by coming to an office reserved for me during the period of the research where I was booked for at least five hours daily. This office space is not used by anyone so that the discussions and interviews cannot be overheard by another person. The criteria for selection was being either a father or mother with a teenage female daughter (13-17 years old). The displaced non-Muslim parents must have stayed in the camp for more than a year. I proposed that if the number of interested participants is more than the required number for the study, parents with younger teenage daughters between 13-15 years of age would be considered first. Interested and chosen participants were given a week to reflect on their willingness to participate and to identify to me privately in the camp before the schedule was made for the interviews. It was explained to the participants that the interviews will be audio recorded. The recording of the interviews is to get the exact words of the participants and to avoid undue distractions. Before the interviews, each participant was given a copy of a letter describing the study and the consent form to sign.



An audio tape recorder was used to record the interviews. Then these audiotapes were transcribed verbatim and analyzed by the required steps of IPA. During the interviews, If participants wished to exit the study for any reason or wanted to take a moment to rest, he or she gave notification to me on site. The services of the camp counselor or doctor were not engaged automatically unless there were signs of traumatic difficulty or breakdown. For participants that were traumatized and required attention, I engaged in debriefing through a medical doctor or counselor recommended by the camp director that the participants are already familiar with. It was one interview with each participant, lasting no longer than an hour and a half. After the interviews were concluded, I returned to the camp to conduct a member-checking session with each participant aimed at confirming whether I have satisfactorily articulated their ideas.

### **Data Analysis Plan**

The first step of the data analysis was conducted as follows: After transcribing the collected data, I listened to the audiotapes, and read and re-read the transcripts to immerse myself in the data. I entered into the participants' world by putting aside all initial thoughts. By reading and re-reading the transcripts, a structure emerged as I highlighted portions of the data that are rich in information (Smith et al., 2009).

The second step was initial noting. I examined the transcript and looked at the concerns of the participants as they talked, understood the issue and expressed their feelings. This process involves familiarization with the text and noting points of interest with an open mind. In practice, I wrote notes on the transcript and further comments and explanations (Smith et al., 2009; Smith 2015).

The third step entailed developing emergent themes. The task of data management shifted as I attempted to reduce the volume of detail. At this point, I worked with the explanatory notes rather than the transcripts. This consisted of compiling a synergy of descriptions from the noted points and from my interpretations. The analytical process entailed breaking up the narrative flow of the interview and extracting themes from the initial notes to obtain a concise statement of the important content of the various comments. These ideas were expressed as phrases to capture their essence (Smith et al., 2009).

The fourth step was identifying links across emergent themes. This involves understanding how the themes fit together. I used my initiative and interpretative ability to bring the themes together (Smith, 2015).

The fifth step was moving to the next case. Since there are several cases, the process involves moving to the next transcript and repeating the previous steps. Each transcript was treated on its own merit. At this stage, I had to bracket my ideas from the first case and do justice to the others (Smith et al., 2009; Smith, 2015).

The sixth step was finding patterns across cases. This involves laying each case on a large surface and looking for patterns across them (Smith et al., 2009; Smith 2015). I constructed and interpreted what it means for each participant to send their teenage daughters to school or not. This gave the true meaning and essence of their lived experience.

After following these steps, the emergent themes were connected to the various research questions in the study. More so, discrepant cases were explored until they could

explain something in the study or were disregarded as inappropriate to answer the research questions.

### **Issues of Trustworthiness**

There are some guidelines to assess quality and validity. In establishing trustworthiness, Lincoln and Guba (1985) focused on credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability as the naturalist's equivalents for internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity. Qualitative research is trustworthy when it is an accurate representation of participants' experiences in the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I ensured that analysis is carried out from all information gathered from participants to reflect the logical justification of the emergent themes.

#### **Credibility**

Credibility refers to confidence in the truth of the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To ensure credibility, I identified the participants and described them accurately. I maintained prolonged engagements with the participants by spending sufficient time at the IDP camps and speaking at length with them to gain a deeper understanding of their environment and thoughts about the schooling of their teenage daughters (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I used simple English when communicating with them. I built trust with the participants through my friendly and empathetic demeanor. During the first few minutes of the interviews, I established rapport with them through informal discussions that disposed them to share their experiences.

Given my understanding that a single individual cannot adequately shed light on the research topic, I made use of triangulation by attending to and confirming the

discovery of information (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I gave equal opportunities to all of the participants to express their thoughts and feelings, which subsequently provided me with a basis for articulating the different viewpoints of the participants. My sources of information included data gathered from participants' experiences through interviews, academic literature, and other documented information.

I engaged in peer debriefing personally to uncover biases or areas taken for granted (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I put aside what I knew and handled each procedure of the study with care. There was member-checking session with the participants to check how well and accuracy their thoughts were expressed, and to correct perceived errors or wrong interpretations.

### **Transferability**

Transferability refers to findings having applicability in other contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Achieving transferability required a detailed description of the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents participating in the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Thus, I described parents' decisions regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters schooling in sufficient detail. I also provided a detailed account of the field experience to ensure transferability to other times, people, and situations (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). A solid interpretation of collected data from participants led to dependable judgment about the findings, which would facilitate transferability of the study by other researchers. There were some points or expressions that I decided do not mean or add anything to the study. I maintained transferability by ensuring that I described and documented precisely the participants' perspectives and statements that are central to the study.

**Dependability**

Dependability refers to the clarity of the process that leads to the findings. This is to ensure consistency and replicability of the process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Although I was the data coder, dependability was ensured through external audits (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) that was carried out by peer reviewers in the field of psychology. I requested two graduate psychology students at Walden University, who are knowledgeable in qualitative inquiry, to perform the review. The original copies of the transcripts were made available to them with my analytical notes. Detail of confidentiality agreement in Appendix D. My committee members reflected on the interpretation to ensure consistency with the IPA analytical procedure. I meticulously recorded the various steps undertaken so that others can follow them and arrive at similar conclusions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The recorded transcripts were made available along with the reflective notes, analysis, synthesis, and interpretation. Triangulation was achieved through the validation provided by the external audit and my initial interpretation to achieve robust, comprehensive, and well-developed findings. The involvement of multiple investigators aims to ensure reflexivity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Its rationale was to assess the correctness of the interpretation, findings, and conclusions and whether they are in accordance with the data collected.

**Confirmability**

Conformability refers to the extent to which the study is shaped by the respondents and not the researcher's interest or bias (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Data analysis was solely based on the responses of the participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

There was a clear description of the research report from data collection to final report based on the data collected. This means the study fostered dialogue to ensure complementary and divergent views. I was mindful to listen to the participants rather than dictate the direction of the interview and asked study participants for the clarity of unfamiliar words.

### **Ethical Procedures**

A letter was addressed to the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), the agency in charge of displaced camps in the region to obtain permission to have access to potential participants. Details in Appendix A.

I obtained approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) before contacting the participants and initiating data collection. I also obtained approval from NEMA and the camp directors. The participants in this study are displaced non-Muslim parents, who are adults and who have volunteered to be participants. There were no repercussions for them if they choose not to participate. There is no identifiable harm associated with participation in the study. However, I have reflected on the distress that discussing this topic may cause the participants. Any participant experiencing difficulties during the course of the interviews was referred to a support system put in place if it is necessary but not automatically. This support system consists of a local service in the camp made up of a medical doctor, nurses, and a counselor. I informed the participants that they are free to stop the interview if they experience any difficulty during the interview like signs of great distress or trauma that leads to a breakdown in tears or uncomfortable feelings. Then, they were referred to the camp counselor. For any potential participant that was already

seeing the counselor, I demanded a letter from the counselor saying they can participate in the study (Appendix C).

There was an ethical component to recruitment. I stood in front of the gathered participants and use simple words to explain the study so they understand. I gave them room to clarify every aspect of the study not clear to them. After that, I requested volunteers for the study. I proposed that if the volunteers are more than 16 participants, I will narrow it down by the age of their teenage daughters. Those with younger teenage daughters would be considered first. Selection was based on a first-come first-served basis. Only 12 volunteered. I gave potential participants the opportunity to ask questions in private in case they wanted to query anything they will be reluctant to mention in public.

Data that was gathered for the purpose of this study remained confidential, and pseudo names were used for participants. The names of the displaced camps, camp directors and cities were omitted from the study or disguised. The consent form in Appendix B was completed by all participants, and confidentiality was ensured since all identifying information were removed. I also told the participants they were free to withdraw from the study at anytime.

Reference to participants in the study were made in broad terms to ensure participants' confidentiality. The files containing the audiotapes and transcripts were locked in a safe cabinet in the researcher's home study room, and password protected electronic files on my personal computer. I also secured the data online with carbonite.com. The only individuals with access to the transcripts was me and those

assigned to validate the results. Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) was responsible for reviewing the research proposal to ensure the university's ethical standards and federal guidelines are maintained (IRB approval number 04-17-17-0433760).

### **Summary**

I developed an IPA to explore the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents resident in visited camps relating to the schooling of their teenage daughters. There have been few studies conducted on the experiences of displaced parents in Northern Nigeria. Moreover, no study has been previously conducted on the decision-making process of this group of parents relating to the schooling of their teenage daughters. The information that was gathered for this study facilitated a deeper understanding of the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents and the impacts of these experiences on their decisions when considering whether to send their teenage daughters to school. Applying a phenomenological approach, I interviewed displaced non-Muslim parents to determine if there are noticeable changes in their decision-making relating the schooling of their teenage daughters in the instance of insecurity.

The purpose of the study was to document and acquire deep insights into the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters. I planned to engage these parents in reflections on the impacts of their experiences on their decision-making regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters. I hope that increased awareness of their decision-making process could help to advance



ways of promoting the education of teenage girls exposed to terrorism in camps and other communities.

This chapter has examined the proposed research design, the role of the researcher, methodology, procedures for recruiting participants and collecting data, as well as ethical procedures relating to the study. The data to be gathered through interviews with participants was coded using the procedure specified in IPA. Chapter 4 presents a detailed discussion of the results of the analysis.

This chapter examined the research design, the role of the researcher, methodology, recruitment of participants, data collection procedure and ethical procedures. The data to be gathered through interviews with participants were coded using IPA procedure. The analysis was discussed elaborately in chapter 4.

## Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to develop an in-depth understanding of the terrorism-related experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents residing in camps in Nigeria and how these experiences impacted their decision-making concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters. This information may help other parents, school administrators, teachers, the government, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in making decisions on the schooling of children who have been affected by terrorism. I chose a qualitative phenomenological study design to elicit the experiences of 12 displaced non-Muslim parents. The research addressed the following key question:

RQ: How do displaced non-Muslim parents who are camp residents describe the effect of the experience of terrorism on decisions to send their teenage daughters to school?

Prospect theory was selected as the theoretical framework of this study. The theory posits that individuals situated in a domain of loss are compelled to make risky decisions (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). IPA was considered the most appropriate method for examining participants' lived experience in relation to their decision-making regarding their teenage daughters' schooling. In this chapter, I present the results of the interviews that I conducted with 12 displaced non-Muslim parents who were camp residents. I also discuss the participants' demographics, the research setting, processes of data collection and analysis, and evidence of trustworthiness. Lastly, I provide a summary of the study's findings.

### **Research Setting**

As a researcher, I had limited knowledge of the setting of the camps in which displaced parents lived and of their experiences of Boko Haram attacks. I had no prior personal or professional relationship with NEMA personnel or with displaced parents. NEMA provided me with complete access to displaced non-Muslim parents with teenage daughters who resided in the camps. I visited two camps. There are no significant differences in the setting of the camps except for location. With the permission of NEMA and consent of camp directors, I accessed the camps for displaced people and made contact with prospective participants. However, as the researcher and because the selection procedure necessitated confidentiality, I was the only individual interviewing participants who agreed to take part in the study. The camp directors encouraged me to speak to respondents professionally, avoiding provocative questions that would further traumatize them.

I ensured that selection of participants was limited to the specific sample group of displaced non-Muslim parents resident in camp with teenage daughters. I interviewed the 12 who volunteered. I maintained a neutral stance when collecting, collating, and evaluating data. I also ensured each participant was treated with respect and without any coercion. Each participant had enough time for the interviews. During analysis of data, I did not interpret data in such a way to support my expectations. I followed IPA procedure in interpreting the data and asked auditors to review my interpretations.

### **Demographics**

The participants in the study were 12 displaced non-Muslim parents within the age group of 36–50 years. They had teenage daughters aged between 11 and 18 years. The average age of participants was 43. The average age of male participants was 46 and that of the female participants was 41. The participants comprised five fathers and seven mothers from two displaced camps. Four participants (one father and three mothers) volunteered from one camp, and eight participants (four fathers and four mothers) volunteered from the second camp. It was difficult to obtain equal numbers of males and females based on the number of individuals who volunteered to take part in the study. All of the participants had experienced Boko Haram attacks and had witnessed the abduction of women and teenage girls. Moreover, they had all lived in the camp for over two years. The table below gives comprehensive information of participants. All of the participants were given pseudonyms to ensure confidentiality.

Table 1

*Profiles of the Participants*

Name and sex (M/F)	Age (years)	Number of children	Ages of teenage daughters	Duration in camp
Alex (M)	47	2 females	10 years, 14 years	2 years, 4 months
Bright (M)	50	1 female	14 years, 2 months	2 years, 5 months
Catherine (F)	48	1 female	15 years, 7 months	2 years
David (M)	46	2 females	11 years, 13 years	2 years, 6 months
Eustace (M)	40	1male,1female	11 years	2 years, 8 months
Faith (F)	39	1male,1female	14 years, 2 months	2 years, 2 months
Grace (F)	45	1male,2 females	13 years,17 years	2 years, 5 months
Hope (F)	40	2 females	12 years,14 years	2 years, 4 months
Isi (F)	34	1 female	13 years	2 years, 9 months
John (M)	49	1male,1female	16 years, 8 months	2 years, 9 months
Karo (F)	37	1 female	11 years	2 years
Linda (F)	45	2 males,1female	13 years, 6 months	2 years, 6 months

**Data Collection**

Only 12 participants volunteered to take part in the study, and they were all interviewed. Because the study required at least six participants, non-Muslim parents were interviewed until the saturation point was attained. The participants were registered in the camps and were free to move in and out of them. There was no potential threat to the participants or to myself as the camps were situated in safe locations and guarded by

security operatives. The camp directors provided an assurance of the privacy and safety of the participants.

Prior to the interviews, participants were informed that they would be required to complete a consent form. Within each of the camps, the interviews were conducted in a reserved quiet office where nobody else would be able to overhear the interviews. I emphasized the confidential and voluntary nature of the study to the participants. Within 3 days of being informed about the study, the participants indicated their interest in the study and were given a copy of the consent form to complete. After giving them a week to reflect on their participation, I retrieved the completed consent forms and gave them their copies before finalizing schedules for the interviews.

The participants were interviewed at the agreed locations, and scheduled times were chosen by them according to their convenience. All of the interviews were tape recorded, and each participant was given sufficient opportunities to express their thoughts. Participants were told the interviews would last for an hour and a half.

At the beginning of each interview, I introduced myself, confirmed the identity of the participant, and expressed my appreciation to the participant for accepting my invitation to participate in the study. I explained to all participants that a tape recorder would be used to record their views to ensure that their thoughts were accurately represented in the data analysis. I also requested them to indicate whether they were comfortable with the recording of the interviews. None of the participants objected to the recording of interviews. I spent some time going over the consent form with participants to ensure that they were aware of the confidential nature of the study and of their right to

participate or withdraw from the study at any stage. I assured them that any identifying information would be removed in any publication that was based on the study. Before conducting each interview, I also spent some time reviewing the interview protocol, the research questions, and the purpose of the study to ensure that participants stayed focused during the interview process. I informed the participants that there were no wrong answers. If they felt uncomfortable about answering a question or did not wish to answer a particular question, their feelings would be respected.

The interviews proceeded according to the interview protocol with probes being used to elicit additional information as the participants shared their lived experiences. At the end of the interviews, I thanked the participants and reminded them that there would be another follow-up meeting to review the transcripts. I used NVivo software to transcribe each of the recorded interviews that I then saved as a Microsoft Word document in my password-protected laptop, and as password-protected electronic files. The electronic files are also securely stored online on the Carbonite server that provides cloud-secured backup. Hard copies of the data were secured in a locked private cabinet in my study room. I subsequently reviewed the transcripts in relation to the original audio recordings and identified the main recurrent themes in the interviews.

### **Data Analysis**

Before conducting the interviews, I spent some time reflecting on both the research questions and the interview questions to clarify and organize my ideas. I developed an understanding of the lived experience of displaced non-Muslim parents through the process of analyzing the data generated from the interviews. Because the

phenomenological methodology entails an interpreted understanding of the experiences shared by participants (Smith, 2015), I had to spend time in deep reflections on the thoughts of the participants following IPA process. I ensured that my interpretations were based solely on participants' responses to the interviews. My previous knowledge based on my discussions with two displaced parents did not influence the process of interpretation since the research had a specific population, issue, and purpose. Interpretation was based on data collected from 12 participants.

In addition, I subjected my interpretations to peer review to verify the IPA process and identify my biases. The phenomenological methodology lacks a definitive approach relating to interpretation, as individuals think differently and perceive ideas differently (Smith et al., 2009). There is no single correct way of interpreting data. I followed a stepwise approach for implementing the IPA method when interpreting data. I reflected on my interpretations by repeatedly listening to each recorded interview more than five times and shared my opinions for peer review with auditors (two graduate students from Walden University who are knowledgeable in qualitative inquiry in the field of psychology) and committee members. This procedure of repeatedly listening to the interviews enabled me to develop an appreciation of the feelings and deeply held thoughts of the participants that were not captured in words.

I analyzed each interview individually following IPA procedure and collated the emerging themes from the interviews. Then, the interview transcripts were entered into NVivo software to provide structure to the analysis by conducting queries on dominant words and ideas. Use of this software enabled me to visualize relationships of ideas in the



transcripts of the 12 interviews. Preliminary codes were generated, providing a foundation that facilitated the interpretative process. Examples of codes included: daughter, school, security, terrorism, and so forth. I conducted further reviews seeking examples of these themes derived from the data. No discrepant cases were found that required attention. The themes that emerged from the data following my conduct of the IPA procedure were: (a) parents were traumatized by the experience of terrorism and expressed concern for teenage daughters' safety, (b) parents worried about the vulnerability of school children, (c) parents expressed support for girl child education, and (d) parents were unhappy about teenage daughters' loss of education.

As shown in Table 3, none of the 12 participants expressed nonconforming ideas or experiences. The responses of the participants during the interviews relating to the schooling of their teenage daughters were similar within the context of the issues being discussed. Thus, there were no discrepant cases.

Table 2

*Summary of Participants' Responses Relating to Recurrent Themes*

Names	Parents were traumatized by the experience of terrorism	Parents worried about the vulnerability of school children	Parents expressed support for girl child education	Parents were unhappy about daughters' loss of education
Alex (M)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Bright (M)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Catherine (F)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
David (M)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Eustace (M)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Faith (F)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Grace (F)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Hope (F)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Isi (F)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
John (M)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Karo (F)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Linda (F)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

### **Evidence of Trustworthiness**

Trustworthiness was established in this study through the application of methods for establishing validity in a qualitative study as discussed by Lincoln and Guba (1985). The four principles relating to trustworthiness that were used in this study were credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

### **Credibility**

I implemented the plan stated in Chapter 3. I had prolonged engagement by visiting the camps and establishing friendly rapport. I engaged in peer debriefing with my committee members before embarking on the interviews. The consent forms were signed;

interviews were scheduled and recorded, transcribed and analyzed. In this way participants were encouraged to be frank in their interviews. I interviewed participants until saturation point was reached at 12 participants. Thus I used triangulation, in that the findings I can be confident in the truth of the findings as each theme was identified by several participants. There were no deviant cases. I ensured referential adequacy by providing support system (counselor and medical doctor) for participants in the camp who would be traumatized and require attention. There was a member-checking session with participants to confirm the accuracy of their thoughts. The participants did not make any corrections to the transcripts during this validation process. The data analysis showed coherence as participants' experiences were appropriate to the study.

### **Transferability**

As stated in Chapter 3, I documented and described in sufficient detail the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents with teenage daughters from the recorded interviews. This I did in the data collection, analysis, and result sections. Outcome of results are not transferable to other parents who did not experience terrorism and have teenage daughters. The findings are transferable to populations of non-Muslim displaced parents resident in camps with teenage daughters. The study was designed to address gap in the current research that was not captured in the generalized studies of parents' experience of terrorism and school decision-making.

### **Dependability**

In Chapter 3, I provided a description of procedures put in place to address issues related to dependability. I was the interviewer and the sole coder of data. I submitted my

data analysis for auditing. My auditors were two graduate students from Walden University who are knowledgeable in qualitative inquiry in the field of psychology. My committee also checked that the themes directly emanated from what participants said, for instance in checking for alignment between participants' quotes and descriptions, and themes identified. There were no changes to the procedures that might affect dependability of the study.

### **Confirmability**

Confirmability as described in Chapter 3, included the documentation of interview process, coding, and peer consultation. My doctoral committee members confirmed the validity of my preliminary interpretations and examined my interpretations to ensure consistency with the IPA analytical procedure. These processes were documented and put in place during the interview and analysis phase of the study. No changes were made related to confirmability.

### **Results**

The themes that emerged from the data analysis were grouped according to the research questions. The quotes from interviews conducted with the participants were extracted from the original transcripts to retain the conversational style. I chose this pattern to combine the shared meanings expressed by the participants and my interpretations as the researcher in developing an understanding of the essence of the phenomenon being discussed. All identifying information was removed to protect the confidentiality of the participants.

The central research question was: How do displaced non-Muslim parents who are camp residents describe the effect of the experience of terrorism on decisions to send their teenage daughters to school? Table 2 presents a summary of the themes and subthemes.

Table 3

*Themes and Subthemes*

	#1	#2	#3	#4
Themes	Parents were traumatized by the experience of terrorism	Parents worried about the vulnerability of school children	Parents expressed support for girl child education	Parents were unhappy about teenage daughters' loss of education
	Concern for teenage daughters' safety	Resolve to protect teenage daughters	Parents felt helpless not able to fully perform their roles	Children's feelings aroused a medley of feelings in parents
	Loss of self	Parents need a change of schooling environment		Parents encouraged their teenage daughters about schooling
Sub-Themes	Conflict between heart and mind in school decision-making	Parents were disappointed about camp schooling for their children	Parents worry about the threat to sustained education	Parents complained of financial challenges in school decision-making
			Parents request support for their children	

**Theme 1: Parents Were Traumatized by the Experience of Terrorism**

The central research question was aimed at fostering an understanding of participants' lived experience of terrorism and how it affects their decision-making about the schooling of their teenage daughters. These participants have been displaced for over two years because of Boko Haram's attacks. Although the camps are intended to provide temporary relief for displaced persons, participants described displacement as being physically very uncomfortable.

The participants' stated that they perceived themselves to be confined to a place that did not replicate feelings of being at home. Psychologically, participants experienced traumatic feelings that impacted their self-perception. The participants said the experience of terrorism undermined their individuals' capabilities and control. It limited

their ability to assume necessary roles in their own lives and those of their families. The findings indicated the participants' feelings of frustration at being referred to as displaced persons. Participants expressed perceptions of significant loss of self, truncated plans, uncertainty, and insecurity. The experiences of terrorism reshaped their subsequent actions and thoughts about their lives. Thus, most of the participants confirmed that excessive fear, insecurity, uncertainty, economic hardship, painful memories, stories, news, and nightmares of rapes, abductions, and mass killings were their experiences of exposure to terrorism. The experience of terrorism was traumatizing for all participants. For example, Eustace said, "Ordinary, I will not prefer a camp for my living. No matter how they try to make us comfortable here, home is home. That sense of privacy, peace and freedom you get in your home is not here." Bright also said:

I always feel ashamed and it is as though I have failed as a father, especially when it is quite obvious that there is little I can do under the present circumstances... I feel as though I have failed her because my dreams and aspirations for her are [not realized].

Participants were terrified, traumatized, and saddened by their experiences of Boko Haram attacks and consider it man's act of inhumanity to a fellow man. For example, Karo stated: "Honestly, I am in shock. I knew some of them [terrorists] in the community but never perceived them as Boko Haram [members] until these events unfolded." John expressed similar feelings:

The tension is enough to kill someone even before they [terrorists] attack you. It is a very bad experience. It is not something I can ever forget in my life. It shook

me to my foundation. I have lost everything I worked for. Even as a man who should be more confident, I was shaking. What do you expect from my wife and children then? It is a fearful experience.

Participants described the moment of escape as dramatic and having negative psychological impacts. Some of the participants described how they ran to their children's school to rescue them and escaped at night through the forest enduring several days without food and facing exposure to even more danger from attacks by wild animals. For example Cathrine said, "We continued [our escape] without water and foods for days in the forest since we felt Boko Haram were coming to get us. We were very weak and feared for our children." Most of the participants mentioned that they were not prepared for this experience as it took them by surprise. The participants also expressed their anguish caused by the suffering they have had to undergo and the loss of their former selves. They are struggling to come to terms with the present reality of their lives and the consequences of these experiences for their families and their future. Although they are grateful to be alive, they described their experiences and present condition as being unusual for them. For example, David said, "I narrowly escaped death in a brutal manner. Thank God I am alive to tell the story. It is not an experience that I want to remember. Nothing prepared us for the experience." Eustace said, "Thank God for life. I thought I was not going to survive it. Boko Haram was shooting at anyone in sight." Participants also mentioned that the experience deprived them of the chance to fulfill their dreams, and effected their degree of trust, capacity for maintaining proximity with people, and decision-making. For example, Grace stated: "This attack is barbaric. It



makes the whole town unsafe. How do we trust people now?” Karo expressed her views as follows:

The experience is bizarre as it has [inflicted] a deep wound in my mind. These Boko Haram are people we related [to] within the community. We traded together, greeted [each other], attended functions but were surprised to see them attack us in the name of religion. Honestly, I am in shock.

More so, Alex expressed anxiety and frustration about his experience when he said:

The experience is not something one can describe easily. Thank God am alive to tell the story. It is something I never thought about or even prepare myself for. It came as a shock to me. I see it as an act of wickedness. Honestly, I am worried about the future. It shows that we are not safe in this country.

Catherine expressed similar misery in her responses when she said, “this attack has made my life miserable and has scattered my family. You can see we are suffering. This is not the life I wish for myself or my family.” David also said the experience is terrible and horrific. Hope expressed her trauma when she said, “my experience of terrorism was very terrible. Almost all the members of our community were wiped out by the insurgents. In fact, we were forced to run out of our homes at night to the neighboring community.” John noted that the tension was devastating and left a dent on his life. All participants expressed shock and trauma about their exposure to terrorism.

**Concern for teenage daughters’ safety.** All 12 participants expressed more concern for their teenage daughters than for their sons. They mentioned the lower levels

of endurance exhibited by their teenage daughters who cried more, expressed anxiety, and slowed down their movements during their escape. Two of the participants, Catherine and Grace, mentioned that they had lived near a school where many children were killed within the school premises. More girls than boys were victims of these killings because of their inability to run as fast as the boys. Linda expressed how heartbroken and shocked she felt after risking her life to search for one of her teenage daughters and finding her raped and murdered in her school. This experience was deeply traumatizing, and has made her more protective of her other daughter. As I listened to the participants recount their experiences, I was saddened and shocked to hear about the horrific experiences they had undergone. Simultaneously, I was struck by the courage of these parents in sharing their thoughts and feelings and their ability to withstand the traumas and the challenges they had endured.

All of the participants described how devastated they felt at seeing many children murdered and mourning the deaths of their loved ones. Participants appeared most concerned about the security of the schools and safety of their teenage daughters. David observed the devastating effects of Boko Haram's attacks on his teenage daughter, who had witnessed the death of her mother and the killings of some of her school mates. In the interview, he described the situation as follows:

It hurts [me] to see my children cry, hungry and cold. It has shattered my plans and life. I wish it was just a dream [from which I would] wake up. It is so painful [that] this is happening. My daughter does not relate with others. She now always [keeps] to herself.

David's description illustrates his daughter's fear of associating with others. Similarly, Hope explained in detail how her daughter now wants to be alone and keep to herself. She is afraid that she will be killed by someone and needs to be defended. Karo also explained that the experience of terrorism had significantly affected her daughter as she constantly experiences nightmares. Alex expressed serious concern for her daughter when he said:

The challenging aspect of the attacks is [possibly] death [of my daughter]. My daughter could be killed. I just imagine she was in a class and there was bomb attack. That will be devastating even if she survives it. I will not allow that to happen.

Bright noted that girls are easy prey for Boko Haram and has to ensure his daughter safety. Linda expressed similar feelings when she said, "I will never allow my daughter to school in any environment where Boko Haram operates. Life comes first before anything. I do not want to take unnecessary risk. Life has no duplicate." John stated that the safety of daughter is not negotiable. Thus, all participants expressed concern for the safety of their teenage daughters who could be targeted by Boko Haram.

**Loss of self.** When participants were asked about how terrorism has affected their lives, their responses demonstrated that it has led to the shattering of their plans and has caused separation, suffering, deprivation, poverty, and trauma. There is the significant loss of self in participants' responses. Participants felt association with the camp symbolically strips them of their self-identity and humanity. Participants said they felt frustrated being referred to as displaced persons. They are no longer referred as farmers,

lawyers, businessmen, teachers etc but refugees. The experiences of terrorism evidently reshaped their subsequent actions and thoughts about their lives following the significant loss of self, truncated plans, uncertainty, and insecurity. They were improvised, destabilized, and incapacitated. Linda stated: “Boko Haram has affected my life and family by making us feel traumatized.” For Alex,

I have struggled as a man to make a living for my family, but all that is gone now. It is like starting life afresh. We are not living comfortably, nor eating well, nor sleeping peacefully. It has not been a pleasant experience going through emotional trauma, not knowing what will happen next or the next action to take.

According to David, it is as if [his] life has been put on hold when he said:

All that I worked for all these years is gone; my house, cars, investment, jobs, and certificates, all gone. I even lost my wife. I am left alone to care for our children. Where do I start from now? I have to start life all over again. It has destroyed everything that I labored for...Life in this camp is challenging. I used to live in a mansion but now reduced to mass suffering without privacy.

Bright noted that his experience of terrorism had left “an indelible mark” on his psyche, making the experience very difficult to forget. He expressed his feelings thus:

It has left an indelible mark on my psyche. I have stayed in the north[Nigeria] for almost 30 years and now forced to abandon virtually everything I have worked for all my life. It is a menace. My family is suffering. I was doing well [before the attacks]. I could afford a comfortable living for my family. Look at me today, living in a camp.

For Catherine, “these events have taken the life out of me. I am no longer a happy person. I am so frustrated, saddened, and depressed.” Eustace had a similar view:

Ordinary, I will not prefer a camp for my living. No matter how they try to make us comfortable here, home is home. That sense of privacy, peace and freedom you get in your home is not here. I do not decide what I will eat. I eat what is available to me. It has changed our story. I cannot say with confidence what the future holds for me.

The loss of self was also expressed by Faith: “It has turned me into a beggar. My family is going through extreme poverty.” Grace’s experience has been similar: “It is like being reduced to nothing; from being a prominent person to being a refugee in my country.” Hope described the immense suffering and the pain that her family is undergoing. John stated that the experience had shattered his plans and life prospects and had caused separation and loss of his beloved family members. Karo expressed his views as follows: “It has changed how we perceive life and [our] fellow humans, so [it is] hard to trust anyone.” These views are summed up in Isi’s statement that “Things have changed for the worse for us.”

From the responses of the participants, there was significant loss of self. They said, displacement in the camps changed the identity of participants and conditioned them to a new way of life. They are not living the life they intended for themselves. Participants said they have lost touch with their homes, communities, families, properties, and identity. There is the presence of psychological trauma, physical suffering, frustration, and feelings of victimization.

**Conflict between heart and mind in school decision-making.** When asked about the value of educating their teenage daughters in spite of their experiences of terrorism, participants were unequivocal in their affirmation of this value. Catherine stated: “I value her [daughter’s] schooling and education. Her education is as important [to me] as the air that I breathe.” Speaking of his teenage daughter’s education, David observed: “her education is profitable to herself, her family, and to society. . . . For me, there is no alternative to education.” Bright declared that “I am an unrepentant advocate of girls’ education.” Eustace opined: “I cannot underestimate the worth of education in the life of my daughter.” Similarly, Grace expressed her belief that “the education of a girl child should not be compromised in any way.” John felt that “education is good, and I think my daughter deserves to be educated.” For Karo, “educating my daughter will forever be a valuable venture no matter what the situation or condition at hand.” Hope, Alex, Isi, and Linda all shared similar views on desiring education for their teenage daughters.

However, when asked whether they would allow their teenage daughters to continue their education in the face of risk, the majority [9] of the participants (Bright, Catherine, David, Hope, Faith, Grace, John, Linda, and Alex) were not prepared to expose their teenage daughters to further risk for the sake of education. Although participants cognitively wanted education for their teenage daughters and wanted to send them to school, emotionally they experienced fear and insecurity. Alex expressed his view as follows:

If going to school may result in death, she can stay at home with me. Some of our forefathers were not educated but lived good and fulfilling lives. I will not put my daughter's life at risk in any way.

Bright held similar views: "I will not risk my daughter's life. I think schooling can wait." Catherine stated: "It is really difficult for the girl children in these attacks and to expose them to more danger in schools where Boko Haram can attack anytime is not reasonable." David expressed his concerns about his daughter, saying: "I want her to continue her education, but I am worried about [the] state of insecurity." Faith also referred to insecurity when she said: "I live in fear, [as] I don't even know what will happen next." Grace too expressed her fears and her consequent decision. "Until there is an improvement in security, I cannot risk the life of my daughters, because they are my life." Hope's fear was apparent when she said: "The threat and fear that the militants will one day reemerge from the bushes still lingers." John put it this way: "The fear that [daughter] might be raped or kidnapped is enough to kill any parent. It is not something you want to think about twice." Similarly, Linda stated: "I cannot as a parent put my daughter in danger. If there is danger, there is [a] need to wait until there is peace before she returns to school full-time." However, Eustace, Karo, and Isi felt that educating their daughters was a risk worth taking in the face of what the future holds for their daughters. Speaking of his daughter, Eustace said: "She will go to school. It's just that we have to be more watchful and careful. Not to go to school is a greater risk." For Karo, "the fight for life must continue. Life itself is a risk. She must go to school." Isi too felt that her

daughter should continue her schooling, saying: “I am in support of her schooling no matter the [circumstances].”

Decision-making about their teenage daughters’ schooling was a challenging experience as this process entailed prospects and possible risks to their daughters. There is the conflict between heart and mind. Cognitively, they want education but emotionally, they are scared. What they are thinking does not conform to how they are feeling. Although the experience of terrorism is traumatizing for parents, some participants felt that it should not hinder the educational prospects of their teenage daughters. Participants expressed differences in their attitude to risk-taking. While some participants are unwilling to embrace the risk involved in allowing their teenage daughters to school in crisis prone environment, others are prepared to face the challenges.

### **Theme 2: Parents Worried About the Vulnerability of School Children**

The first subquestion asked: What is the experience of displaced non-Muslim parents regarding the safety of the school for learning now that they reside in a refugee camp? This second theme was aimed at eliciting an understanding of the participants’ current perceptions on the safety of schools that can be attributed to their experiences of terrorism. All of the participants noted that schools in Nigeria are not sufficiently secure and that they are highly vulnerable to attacks. Moreover, the participants reported that schools’ security has been taken for granted with security measures merely comprising perimeter fencing and the presence of a gate keeper. Thus, their experiences of terrorism revealed the porosity of school security. Linda explained that initially she thought the



schools were secure sites for learning until Boko Haram attacked some of them.

Similarly, John stated:

I can say that the schools are not secure enough. Anything can happen to the children in their various schools. There is no proper security to checkmate the activities of Boko Haram. If the group should target more schools, I am sure they will have their way.

More so, Catherine was of the opinion that the presence of security operatives in schools does not guarantee security. She stated:

I am not too sure of the present realities in some places, but my thought about the security of schools is that it is very poor. Even in places where there are security men, their presence does not even guarantee safety of school children.

David, Eustace, Faith, Grace, Hope and Isi share similar experiences about the security of school. David stated that our schools are not safe since Boko Haram attacked them. He expressed his brief thus:

Many children were killed, injured, raped or abducted in school. No school is completely secured. Yes, there are fences and gatemen, but that is not enough to guarantee security of schools in Nigeria. Anything can happen to any of these schools except government will put her security presence in all the schools. I know this is not possible considering the number of schools that we have in the country. We all thought the schools were secured for learning until Boko Haram attacked some of them.

Also, Hope expressed her thoughts about the state of school security when she said, “I am not too sure if she will be safe in school. I am scared. You cannot send your child to school and go to bed.” Eustace also expressed similar feelings when he said, “I just fear that [Boko Haram] can attack the schools at anytime. [Boko Haram] can come in with various strategies. They can disguise as students, enter the compound and attack [school children]. Faith said:

[Nigerian] government has not done much about security in schools in the country. Many parents are just praying and being hopeful their children are safe and will return home [after school]. [As a parent] you will have your heart in your hand as soon as you hear a little report of insecurity in a school your child [attends].

Catherine and Grace mentioned their experiences of living near a school where many children were killed within the school premises. Linda also expressed shock as one of her teenage daughters was murdered in school. Thus, parents were sensitive to the issue of security in school as most of the schools were attacked in their various communities.

Alex expressed his opinion about the vulnerability of schools to attacks by Boko Haram when he said:

My daughter could be killed. Just imagine she was in a class and there was bomb attack. That will be devastating even if she survives it . . . With the experience with Boko Haram, I can say no school is properly secured [in Nigeria]. This has never been our practice. The minimum security in schools cannot withstand Boko Haram attacks.

Catherine emphasized this vulnerability when she said, “[schools] are not secured. If they were secured, the cases of abduction of female students, raping and killing will not be there. Boko Haram can gain entering into any school and kill students, teachers and the administrators.”

John also emphasized the threat to school children when he said, “Anything can happen to the children in their various schools. There is no proper security to checkmate the activities of Boko Haram. If the group should target more schools, I am sure they will have their way.” These responses from the participants are clear indications of the vulnerability of schools to attack.

This experiences of participants indicated that schools are vulnerable to attacks. Hope stated bluntly that “the security of schools in Nigeria is porous. A lot still needs to be done to guarantee the safety of students.” Isi, David, Grace, Faith, and Eustace shared similar views to those of Bright who stated that: “Schools in Nigeria are generally soft points for attacks and are technically unsafe. The kidnapping of innocent students and teachers is gradually becoming the order of the day.” Participants stated in their responses that schools were targeted by Boko Haram as their ideology is to eradicate Western education.

Participants were not comfortable with the security of school environments. The experience of Boko Haram attacks revealed the porosity of school safety. There is a significant degree of uncertainty about the security of schools and the vulnerability of school children to potential attacks. Boko Haram can successful unleash terror on children in their schools.

**Resolve to protect teenage daughters.** When asked about their feelings about the safety and protection of their teenage daughters at school, the participants commented that they were obliged to protect their children because the government could not guarantee safety. Overall, there is the feeling of fear, uncertainty, and sadness about the state of security in the nation. Alex said, “I just have to play my role as well to ensure my daughter’s safety in school. I have to take her to school and be sure the school is safe and have security in place.” Bright stated: “I will never relent in ensuring her [daughter’s] safety; neither will I compromise her safety for anything. With God helping me, it is entirely my responsibility to ensure that her safety is guaranteed at all times.” Hope affirmed her commitment to her daughter’s safety stating that: “Truly, I [would] prefer [for] her stay at home for now rather than go to school.” The reason provided for not sending daughters to school was to avoid their exposure to security risks (death, rape, and abduction). Alex mentioned commitment to protection of daughter when he said, “I want to be sure my daughter is safe. I want to be sure she will return from school unharmed.”

All participants expressed parental care and commitment to the protection of their teenage daughters. They are ready to defend and ensure no harm comes to their teenage daughters who could be targeted by Boko Haram. Parents promised to keep a watchful distance to enable them respond quickly to security threats to their teenage daughters.

**Parents need a change of schooling environment.** Participants indicated that their original environment is not safe for the schooling of their teenage daughters. There was the need to relocate to a safer environment to encourage schooling of teenage daughters. Participants further pointed to the need for adequate security provided in

schools to guarantee the safety of their teenage daughters. John, Alex, Grace, Hope, and Karo suggested relocation, protection of schools by state security operatives, and ending insurgency as possible solutions that would enable their teenage daughters' schooling. Alex expressed his feelings for relocation when he said, "my daughter cannot receive a sound education in the midst of terrorist attacks. There will be need to change environment because my daughter deserves the best. I think my daughter will not school in that environment again". Grace expressed similar thoughts of relocation when she said, "security of the environment and the location of the school [comes first]. [There are] places that are free from security threat in Nigeria." Karo shared similar views when he said, "I will prefer to have [my daughter] continue her education in an entirely new continent like Great Britain. I want her to relocate from this country." David said: "sending my daughter to school in that region after this experience is like sending her to her early grave."

Participants were not comfortable with the idea of their children's schooling in the same environment they were attacked. Parents stated that after resettlement, they would decide what environment is suitable for their children's schooling. Parents were also worried about the safety of their teenage daughters. Parents are of the opinion that the schooling of their children in a safe environment will reduce anxiety for both parents and children.

#### **Parents were disappointed about camp schooling for their children.**

Participants expressed happy feelings that their children are learning in the camp but were not satisfied with the quality of education given to their children. Parents wanted

their children to be in a proper school but have to make do with camp learning with the constraint of insecurity and inadequate finance. Eustace said, “Still in shocking [about the experience] and my daughter is schooling in the camp. Well, we can manage [with camp schooling] for now until we are out of here and can get something better.” Faith expressed her thoughts on camp schooling when she said, “I am thinking of how to leave camp to give her the best of education that she deserves.” Bright stated: “I always feel ashamed about [my daughter’s schooling] and it is as though I have failed as a father; especially when it is quite obvious that there is little I can do under the present circumstances”.

Catherine expressed her thoughts on the issue when she said:

In the camp here, there is no proper school for my daughter. I really wish my daughter to be in a very good school outside the camp. Whatever, they are learning in this camp is not my wish for my daughter. I want something better.

David expressed similar views when he said:

It is a sad feeling to see [my] child is not in a proper school of my choice. I know the [contribution and efforts of] my parents to my education. My daughter was in one of the best private schools in the north before the attacks. I did not mind the cost but wanted the best for my children. Looking at my children everyday out of a good school is frustrating. I just wish I could change the situation immediately.

Camp schooling was valued but participants wanted proper schools for their children where they can mingle with other children who did not experience terrorism.

Participants noted that camp schooling isolates their children and deprives them access to

quality education and facilities. Camp schooling should be temporary; not staying so long as they have experienced.

### **Theme 3: Parents Expressed Support for Girl Child Education**

SQ2 was: What would facilitate non-Muslim displaced parents' decisions residing in camps to send their teenage daughters to school? This third theme captured an understanding of what would encourage displaced parents to send their teenage daughters to school in spite of their experiences and the perceived risks. All participants expressed support for girl child education in spite of Boko Haram's threat to eradicate girl child education. When asked about the importance of their teenage daughters' schooling, all participants confirmed the value they ascribed to education for their teenage daughters.

Bright expressed his support for girl child education when he said:

I am an unrepentant advocate of girl education. More than ever before, I strongly believe that a girl who is educated and learned is an invaluable asset not only to the immediate family but also to the country. Am sure you will agree with me that the earlier the girl child completes her education the better it is before story of other issues will creep in like unwanted pregnancy and early marriage.

For Faith, education was of utmost importance when she said:

Girls education is like sowing a seed which gives rise to green and full grown family plant. Educate a girl child and you have successfully educated a nation. Africa is where it is today because women were deprived education. [This will] also affected their offspring. Education is the way forward for African development and growth.

Karo shared similar feelings with David when he said:

It is very important for my daughter to be educated, because education is good. What legacy can I bequeath my daughter without education? I know what my mates who did not go to school suffered in life. I do not wish that for my daughter.

Alex emphasized support for girl child education when he said, “the schooling of my daughter is very important, because it is going to help her to understand herself and the society. It will also make her independent, not relying on others.” Catherine opined that “the schooling of my daughter is very important to me, because she is my pride. Her success is my success, and her failure is my failure.” Eustace commented that education was invaluable and that his daughter must be educated. John presented his views as follows: “Education is good and I think my daughter deserves to be educated. It will be disastrous if my daughter is an illiterate. My daughter needs education to face the challenges of the future.”

Similarly, Linda stated: “The schooling of my daughter is very important because education gives one sense of direction and exposure to more useful information and knowledge.” Grace said, “Educating a girl child is good and rewarding. Personally, I believe that the education of a girl child should not be compromised in any way.” Thus, all participants expressed support for girl child education and wanted their teenage daughters to continue their education if not for insurgency. School loss for teenage daughters was a pain for participants.



**Parents felt helpless not being able to fully perform their roles.** When asked how they felt about their daughters not being in school, all participants expressed sadness and bitterness. Apart from the loss of self, parents expressed their failure to perform their roles as expected. The experience limited their capabilities. Catherine expressed her feelings as follows: “I feel wounded, terrible, and pained as my daughter is not going to school against my plans for her education. Whatever, they are learning in this camp is not my wish for my daughter.” Alex felt incapacitated when he said: “I feel so bad and helpless, knowing how important education is.” Grace noted that it was “disheartening and sad to observe but cannot help.” Isi said, “I feel very unhappy that I cannot help my children.” Hope mentioned that she felt bitter and helpless regarding the turn of events. Linda said, “I am really disturbed and confused.” John commented that: “I feel terrible and sad that my daughter is not in the school of my choice, knowing the importance of education in her life.” Bright expressed his feeling of failure as a father:

I always feel ashamed and it is as though I have failed as a father, especially when it is quite obvious that there is little I can do under the present circumstances...I feel as though I have failed her because my dreams and aspirations for her are [not realized].

Faith said, “I feel terrible seeing my daughter’s future wasting [away]. I feel bad that I cannot give my daughter the kind of education I wanted for her.” Karo mentioned having mixed feelings and being confused about having her daughter stay at home. Linda said, “The [greatest] challenge for my daughter is that she has little or no access to education. It has made my daughter look confused as a result. And I can do nothing about it.”

All of the participants were able to identify with the pains of their teenage daughters. The experience of terrorism deprived their children of proper schooling and learning. Participants also expressed their helplessness at not being able to fully perform their roles in furthering the education of their teenage daughters. They are also not satisfied with camp learning for their teenage daughters but are helpless. The disruption of education for their teenage daughters saddened them deeply as it entailed an essential loss for growing children. I felt the pain of educational deprivation in the responses of the parents and their inability to change the status quo.

**Parents worry about the threat to sustained education.** When participants were asked about their greatest challenge, they expressed their fear about the threat to sustained education. Alex said:

My daughter is just a victim of circumstance. How can Boko Haram dictate how people will live their lives and no one can dictate for them? Am sure they want to enslave people and the best way to achieve that is to prevent people from being educated. Illiteracy will help their agenda I think... I feel sad that the presence of Boko Haram and terrorism is putting my daughter's life and education at risk.

Bright emphasized same point when he stated:

These heartless sneaky barbarians [are] hiding under the guise of religion to wreak havoc on [education] and perpetrate evil in Northern Nigeria. If we continue like this, we are heading to ruin. With kidnapping of innocent students and teachers gradually becoming the order of the day, you cannot but be scared. [And] if the attacks continue, illiteracy will blossom and that will spell more

doom for the nation...The worst thing that can happen to my daughter is to deny her education and relegate her to a mere second class citizen.

Eustace said “Illiteracy is a disease and disaster. The continuous presence of Boko Haram will lead to illiteracy.” Faith said Boko Haram as a group is against Western education especially for girls. Catherine said:

I worry about the future of my daughter. If these cruel attacks on innocent people continues, the future education of my daughter is brink. My greatest fear is that the place of the girl child in life and leadership position or taking responsibility is threatened and becoming more risky. Lack of education can causes lots of problem. If Boko Haram were educated and civilized persons, they would support education. All their actions are against it. Education is foundational to the development of the society and insecurity will make it [impossible].

Participants worry about the future of sustainable education in the nation if the threat of Boko Haram continues. Definitely, it will have drastic effects on schooling. And that will spell doom to the education of children. Participants worry about the schooling and safety of their teenage daughters. However, they are conscious of the threat to education and safety of their children.

**Parents requested support for their children.** Parents requested support for their children given their present conditions and helplessness in performing their roles.

Alex said:

Care and attention should be given to our children. We need to think for them and plan a greater future for them. Parents should work hand in hand with teachers

both at home and at school to encourage the education of the girl child affected by Boko Haram attacks.

Catherine expressed need for support to ensure daughter has better education. She said, “Government should ensure schools are available and accessible to affected children.”

For David, “Government should curb Boko Haram and all forms of violence in the country and sponsor education of children.” Grace said, “I need help from government to see my daughter through her education.” John said, “Government should provide adequate security with the complementing efforts of parents.” Faith said:

I would want government to provide proper security and involve[school] authorities in the [planning]. I would also want the school authorities to provide hope for those of us who have experienced Boko Haram attacks, especially for our teenagers who are now in fear and unwilling to go to school.

Thus, participants requested support for the education of their teenage daughters. This appeal for support is as a result of displacement and financial challenges. Parents are incapacitated to help the educational training and curb the security threat to teenage daughters schooling. The support could be financial, psychological, spiritual, social, physical, material, and otherwise.

#### **Theme 4: Parents Were Unhappy About Teenage Daughters’ Loss of Education**

SQ3 asked: How do non-Muslim displaced parents residing in camps feel about their teenage daughters not attending school? The fourth theme focused on understanding the feelings of parents about the schooling status of their teenage female daughters. All of the participants expressed feelings of unhappiness and noted that the experience of

terrorism inflicted by Boko Haram had impacted negatively on their teenage daughters' schooling. Boko Haram's acts of terrorism and the families' subsequent experiences of displacement have resulted in the temporary disruption of the schooling of the participants' teenage daughters. Faith described this experience as an "earthquake" that has destroyed her daughter's future. Alex stated: "Boko Haram has disrupted the schooling of my daughter; knowing its importance, I feel very unhappy about it." Hope and Isi stated that Boko Haram has truncated the schooling of their daughters. Eustace observed that "the trauma has weakened my daughter's motivation for schooling." Bright stated clearly that the negative effects of the experiences of terrorism and displacement on his daughter's schooling were simply unquantifiable. The feelings of Catherine and Karo regarding their experiences were similar to those of David who stated that:

It has disrupted her [daughter's] schooling and her journey to greatness. For the past two years she has not been in a proper school. This schooling here is a makeshift learning center; not what I want for my children. Boko Haram has put the fear of schooling in her heart. Things are not the way they ought to be at all.

Grace also expressed frustration, and John commented that: "I feel devastated and unhappy, because at this time and age, education is paramount and it is the key to [a good] life and the success of my daughter."

Participants as caring parents were not happy about the negative effects of terrorism on their teenage daughters' schooling. Apart from educational loss for teenage daughters, it has resulted in loss of interest for schooling in daughters, and psychological trauma. Participants felt helpless about the situation and noted the impact on their teenage

daughters. These feelings impacted the decision-making of parents whether or not to send their teenage daughters to school.

In response to the question of how the experience of terrorism had influenced their decisions regarding sending their teenage daughters to school, all of the participants confirmed that this experience had impacted their decision-making. Accordingly, they expressed concerns relating to the need for caution regarding their daughters' safety, and indicated their willingness or unwillingness to send their teenage daughters to school. The participants that are willing to send their teenage daughters were more conscious of the academic prospect for their daughters than the security challenges. The failure of educating their teenage daughters is considered a greater risk than the threat of insecurity. The other participants focused on the safety of their daughters and expressed unwillingness to send them to school.

**Children's feelings aroused a medley of feelings in parents.** When asked how their daughters felt about schooling at this time, 10 participants stated that their teenage daughters seemed afraid, unhappy, and reluctant to continue their schooling. However, two participants stated that their teenage daughters were enthusiastic about schooling and looked forward to resuming it. Bright spoke about his daughter's perception of deprivation: "She feels she is being denied what she ought to get." Eustace said that his daughter was "not too interested in schooling." Several respondents noted their daughters' fear. Alex said, "I can sense fear in my daughter." Hope, Linda, Isi, and Faith all stated that their daughters lived in fear and were afraid of going back to school. Karo too mentioned that the thought of school aroused fear in her daughter. However,

Catherine stated that her daughter seemed to want to resume her schooling. Similarly, David's daughter was enthusiastic about schooling: "She is interested in schooling and learning. She used to ask me, Daddy, when will I return to school?"

These feelings expressed by the children aroused a medley of feelings in their parents: sadness, disappointment, devastation, bitterness, and disappointment in the government of the country for not being able to provide adequate security for its citizens, and especially school children. They felt hopeful about their children's enthusiasm for schooling encouraged through parental support. However, as noted by Alex: "You cannot see your child in this condition and be happy." Bright expressed a sense of having failed as a father. "I feel as though I have failed her, because my dreams and aspirations for her are yet to come to fruition." Catherine said: "All of these happenings make me feel terrible and ashamed of my country for not being able to provide adequate security for school children and citizens." Faith expressed a sense of despair: "It makes me feel I have lost it all. No future for us, no hope that things will get better for us." These feelings resonated with Linda: "It really makes me very uncomfortable seeing all her [daughter's] fears. My desire to see her succeed in all areas of life is getting thwarted before my eyes." Similarly, John said: "It makes me feel bad and unsure of what will happen next. I feel disappointed about how people express their religious beliefs and how the government protects its citizens."

**Parents encouraged their teenage daughters about schooling.** Noticing the low enthusiasm for schooling, parents encouraged their teenage daughters. Alex said, "I encouraged my daughter not to be scared. I know it will not be easy initially." David said,

“Boko Haram has put fear of schooling in [my daughter’s] heart but I have been talking with her.” Eustace said, “I am encouraging her [daughter] and making her to realize the importance of education. Grace expressed her efforts when she said:

I know [my daughters] do not want to hear about school because of insecurity and time wasted. [However], I have been encouraging them that with education their future is bright. I cannot help but encourage my children that education is profitable to them

John also said, “I encouraged the child not to be intimidated under the present condition.”

Karo expressed his thoughts and efforts and said, “We have been going through rehabilitation and reorientation. I have been talking with her about school and her future.” Thus, participant supported their teenage daughters and encouraged them about the value of education. Participants told teenage daughters that, the experience of terrorism should not discourage them from embracing the task of schooling.

**Parents complained of financial challenges to school decision-making.** Apart from the challenges of insecurity to decision-making, participants also mentioned the financial challenges they are having. Hope said, “I do not have money to finance her education and living in this overcrowded camp will not even afford her enough space to study.”

Faith and Hope also brought up the issue of their financial status and challenges. David expressed his financial challenges when he said, “I am no longer able to provide all the educational needs of my children.”Karo expressed his pain when he said:



The financial implication of my choice of school for my daughter sets my adrenal gland at high capacity. This is because such a school will definitely be capital intensive and Boko Haram has incapacitated this potential standard. With enough money, many things can be put in place for a better future. But since I do not have so much money now, no job or business potentials, all my lofty ideas are crippled. Catherine said, “I really wish [for] my daughter to be in a very good school outside the camp but how will I afford it. For now, [I have] no means to better education for my daughters and it saddened me.” Linda said, “I desire to see her succeed academically but all of that cannot be achieved now without finance.”

From the responses of participants, financial challenges also impacted school decision making. Parents desire education but may not be able to afford the cost due to displacement. Thus, it shows that finance is a crucial issue in school decision. Apart from financial challenges expressed by participants, they shared similar views in the main identified themes.

### **Summary**

In this chapter, I have presented findings relating to the interview responses of 12 individuals who participated in the study along with interpretations of their responses. The results of the study were derived from my reflections and interpretation on the participants’ responses. I reflected on each of the participant’s comments on their experiences of terrorism and how it has impacted their decision-making concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters.

The participants reported that terrorism had impacted their lives and decision-making and expressed concern about the safety of their teenage daughters in sending them to school. Their experiences indicated fear, and feelings of insecurity about the schooling environment for their teenage daughters. Though the value they ascribed to education had not diminished, parents felt that the experience of terrorism has impacted significantly on their decision-making relating to their teenage daughters' schooling. Thus, there are differences in the attitudes of parents toward sending their teenage daughters to school. While some parents are willing to risk sending their teenage daughters to school in spite of anticipated dangers, other parents are reluctant to do so. In Chapter 5, I present a summary of the study, discussed my interpretations of the findings, and offered conclusions. I also made recommendations for future research.

## Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The primary purpose of this study was to develop a deeper understanding of how displaced non-Muslim parents who had experienced terrorist attacks by Boko Haram and were now living in refugee camps made decisions regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters. Evidently their decisions entailed a consideration of their traumatic experiences of terrorist attacks, the plight of being displaced, the loss of educational opportunities, and the challenges associated with insecurity that impacted the educational prospects of their teenage daughters.

To understand the school-related decision-making of displaced non-Muslim parents, I conducted a phenomenological study, as it enabled access to personal experiences and consciousness (Moustakas, 1994). Applying the IPA approach (Smith, 2015) in my analysis, I was able to explore, describe, and interpret the interpreted experiences of the participants in my study. I interviewed 12 displaced non-Muslim parents regarding their experience of terrorism and their decision-making about the schooling of their teenage daughters. This study was conducted to address the knowledge gap in the existing literature by eliciting an understanding of the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters.

The findings of the study provided insights into the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents that included the following themes:

1. Parents were traumatized by the experience of terrorism.
2. Parents worried about vulnerability of school children.
3. Parents expressed support for girl child education.

4. Parents were unhappy about teenage daughters' loss of education.

### **Interpretation of Findings**

This section on the interpretation of findings follows the sequence of the research questions. The organization of the findings correspond to each research question in the development of basic themes which are: (a) parents were traumatized by the experience of terrorism, (b) parents worried about vulnerability of school children, (c) parents expressed support for girl child education, and (d) parents were unhappy about teenage daughters' loss of education.

#### **Parents Were Traumatized by the Experience of Terrorism**

The central research question asked how do displaced non-Muslim parents who are camp residents describe the effect of the experience of terrorism on decisions to send their teenage daughters to school. The first conclusion relating to this question is that terrorism did impact on the school-related decision-making of parents for their teenage daughters. The responses of participants indicated that they were traumatized by the experience. The participants further confirmed that the safety of their teenage daughters was a determining factor in their school-related decision-making. Cognitively, parents wanted education for their teenage daughters but emotionally were unwilling to expose their teenage daughters to security risks. The data revealed themes associated with being traumatized from exposure to terrorism, loss of self, and conflict between heart and mind in school decision-making.

Researchers have shown that the challenges associated with exposure to terrorism have a significant impact on the perceptions and behaviors of parents (Pat-Horenczyk et

al. 2011; Pfefferbaum et al., 2014). Parents express fear (Agbibo, 2014; Imasuen, 2015) and significant changes in their decision-making (Anyadike & Nkechi, 2013; Caldararo, 2014; Ering et al., 2014; Minteh & Perry 2013; Rubin & Wessely, 2013). These findings were replicated in the present study. Parents were traumatized, and there were significant changes in their school-related decision-making for their teenage daughters. Indeed, all the participants reported feelings of excessive fear, hurt, traumatic memories, and uncertainty that affected their decision-making. When participants considered their trauma of exposure to terrorism, they expressed fear for the safety of their teenage daughters. This conclusion supports the finding of Glöckner et al. (2016) that the experience of terrorism comes with uncertainty-related anxiety. Participants expressed uncertainty about daughters' safety given the security challenges. The experience of terrorism clearly impacts decision-making.

However, there were individual differences in the perception and reaction to security threat regarding the school-related decision-making of non-Muslim displaced parents. This is consistent with the findings of Daphna et al. (2013) and De Castro, Camacho, Zenaida, Balanon, & Galang (2012) that there are remarkable individual differences and reactions to the impact of terrorism. Although the parents were all traumatized, their decision-making was not the same. Clearly, some parents were more willing to take risks than others. This shows that decision-making is based on individuals' value system and perception of the risk. While some parents were more concerned about the future educational prospect for their teenage daughters, others focused on the threat of

insecurity in their decision-making. The findings indicated there is relationship between experience of terrorism and school decision-making.

Several studies have indicated that parents exposed to terrorism are more protective of their daughters than of their sons, because girls are seen to show higher rates of anxiety syndrome after such exposure (Helmut & Janestic, 2013; Maiangwu & Amao, 2015; Mapiko & Chinyoka, 2013; Masten & Narayan, 2012; Pereda, 2013; Sanni, 2015; Saraiya et al., 2013; Zenn & Pearson, 2014). There are lingering feelings of vulnerability to harm for girls. The findings of this study are in line with the above findings in the literature. All 12 participants expressed serious concerns about the safety of their teenage daughters in their school-related decision-making. However, the current study did not investigate parents' decision-making regarding the schooling of their teenage sons. Participants were protective of their teenage daughters and were unwilling to expose them to harm. Fear and uncertainty dominated parents' school-related decision-making for their teenage daughters based on a perception of possible future attacks. The findings indicated that parents perceived the vulnerability of their teenage daughters to possible harm in school decision-making.

Studies by Anyadike and Nkechi (2013), Braithwaite (2013), Canetti et al.(2015), Ron (2014), Rubin and Wessely (2013), and Tuchner et al. (2010) indicated that there is a lingering feeling of vulnerability to harm that keeps displaced persons exposed to terrorism from normal living. The findings of this study affirmed their report and revealed that participants expressed pain and discomfort about displacement. Participants mentioned the plight of displacement as abnormal living. It made them to experience loss

of the self, deprivation, confinement, and psychological trauma. They are no longer living the life they wished and worked for.

In their studies on judgment and decision-making, Dane and Pratt (2007) and Shiv and Fedorikhin (1999) stated that when availability of processing resources is limited, this evokes affective reaction rather than cognitive reaction in choices. Processing resources refers to the presence of an item or sufficient information. On the contrary, when availability of processing resources is high, cognition tends to have a bigger impact in decision-making. The findings of this study is consistent with the above report as participants encountered the conflict between heart and mind (affective and cognitive domains) in school decision-making for their teenage daughters. In the decision-making of participants whether or not to send their teenage daughters to school, the affective domain had greater impact than the cognitive domain. The reason attributed for this is that the available information to participants was limited. There was uncertainty about the state of security. Participants could not tell what would happen to their teenage daughters. Hence, participants expressed reluctance in sending their teenage daughters to school.

In addition, the study is consistent with the findings of Young et al., (2012) that emotions are influential in decision-making. The study identified fear as the dominant emotion that impacted participants' perception and decision-making. However, the study did not examine if decision-making made out of fear would be different from the decision-making made out of anger or any other emotion.

The study finding is in support of several other studies indicating that many parents may become increasingly reluctant to send their children to school as a result of

terrorism (Adeyemi, 2011; Ee, et al., 2012; Lambert et al., 2014; Maiangwu & Amao, 2015; Oluyemisi, 2015; Pat-Horenczyk et al., 2012). Participants expressed similar fears regarding the impending dangers and insecurity and were reluctant to send their teenage daughters to school.

### **Parents Worried About Vulnerability of School Children**

SQ1 asked about the experience of displaced non-Muslim parents regarding the safety of the school for learning now that they reside in a refugee camp. All of the participants expressed frustration and skepticism about the status of school security. Participants were all in agreement that schools were not well secured in Nigeria, and there was a high level of vulnerability of school children. Participants also noted that prior to the attacks by Boko Haram, the security of schools was not a major concern impacting parents' school-related decisions in Nigeria. The mere presence of gatekeepers and perimeter fencing around schools was considered sufficient. Presently, it did not provide a guarantee of a secure environment. Even the presence of a security operative stationed at a school did not guarantee security. Thus, security is a major factor determining whether or not non-Muslim displaced parents are willing to send their teenage daughters to school. There was a significant degree of uncertainty about the security of schools and the vulnerability of school children to potential attacks. Further probing indicated that parents were committed to protecting their teenage daughters from potential harm. To protect their teenage daughters, participants expressed the need for change in the schooling environment. Participants noted that a change of environment would be helpful for teenage daughters' schooling. Although they appreciated their



children's learning in the camp, they were not satisfied with camp schooling for their children.

An established finding in the literature was that security was a major challenge for IDPs in Nigeria (Ogwo, 2013; Uzodike & Maiangwa, 2012; Uzodike & Onapajo, 2012) and impacted negatively on children's schooling (Sanni, 2015; Yablon, 2015). This study confirms their findings as all participants expressed concern regarding the insecurity of schools and the vulnerability of school children to further attacks in the schooling environment. Specifically, participants mentioned that schools were soft points for attacks and were technically unsafe. This shows that children's schooling is affected as a result of terrorism. Thus, there were significant changes in the school-related decisions of parents as they anticipated the vulnerability of their teenage daughters to harm.

A study by Schueler et al. (2014) revealed that parents send their children to school based on their perception of school climate. The findings of the study confirmed their report as perceptions of the schooling environment were a major determinant of school-related decision-making of participants. All participants were worried that schools were not sufficiently safe for the schooling of their teenage daughters.

Previous studies have assessed the psychological impact of terrorism on parents and their attitude to the schooling of their children. They revealed that parents were protective of their children (Ee et al., 2012; Lambert et al., 2014; Maiangwu & Amao 2015). The study finding indicated that participants felt obliged to protect their teenage daughters as expected of parents. Consequently, they were considering the option of a

new schooling environment or deployment of security personnel by government to schools.

Shemyakina (2011a) revealed that teenage school girls who lived in terrorism-affected regions were less likely to be enrolled in school and to complete their schooling compared with teenage school girls who did not live in affected regions. The findings of this study endorsed this view, as participants indicated that their teenage daughters were not enrolled in schools outside the camp like other children. Their children were engaged in camp schooling. This camp schooling could affect children's learning and completion of their schooling.

The study findings also supported the study by Alta and Hussein (2014) that children in displaced camps do not have access to quality education. Participants in my study indicated that the standard of camp schooling available to them did not match what they desired for their children. They wanted their teenage daughters to be in proper schools to acquire a high-quality education. Also, the study conducted by Ouili (2015) on Ivorian political instability and crisis from 1999 to 2011 indicated that parents who risked sending their children to school observed low attendance relating to schooling activities by their children. The findings of this study did not indicate low school attendance as participants were yet to send their children to school outside the camp. There were no reports of children avoiding camp schooling.

### **Parents Expressed Support for Girl Child Education**

The second subquestion asked what in the view of displaced non-Muslim parents residing in camps would facilitate their decision to send their teenage daughters to school.

Participants expressed support for the girl child education. All participants valued education for their teenage daughters and all female children. They felt sad about teenage daughters' loss of education and the negative attitude to girl child education. In spite of the challenges faced by displaced non-Muslim parents as a result of terrorism, the value that they attached to the education of their teenage daughters and the girl child did not diminish. Overall, all participants felt helpless in performing their roles of supporting the education of their teenage daughters. They also expressed worry about the perceived threat of Boko Haram to sustainable education. Thus, they requested support for their children.

Studies by Alabi and Alabi (2014), Amadi (2013) and Nmadu et al. (2010) observed that women in Northern Nigeria were perceived as being unworthy of an education and advocated support for girl child education. The study findings confirm the report of the literature as all participants were totally in support of girl child education. Participants wanted their teenage daughters to be educated. Affolter and Allaf (2014) and Antonopoulou, Koutrouba, and Babalis (2011) noted that parental involvement in their children's educational development was based on the value that they attached to education. The findings of this study confirmed that participants attached considerable value to the education of their teenage daughters and girl child education.

On the other hand, studies by Slone and Mann (2016) and Tay, Rees, Kareth and Silove (2016) revealed that parents who could not fulfill their obligations due to exposure to terrorism expressed excessive fear, transfer of aggression to children, negative interactions with others, and were excessively authoritarian. The study findings could not

confirm aggressive behavior in parents but affirmed the parents' perception of themselves as unable to fully perform their roles. Although parents experienced frustration in not being able to perform their roles, there were no reports of aggressive behavior towards their children or others.

The findings of the studies by Afolayan et al. (2013), Maiangwu and Agbibo (2014), Nmadu et al. (2010), and Unterhalter, Heslop, and Mamedu (2013) revealed that in spite of the security strategies adopted by the Nigerian government to curb the activities of Boko Haram, the group is a fundamental threat to sustained education. The activities of Boko Haram pose a serious threat to the educational development and literacy of teenage girls through abductions, killings, and destructions of schools and communities. Study findings confirm that participants were also worried about sustainable education with the continuous threat of Boko Haram. The continuous activities of Boko Haram would have psychological and physical impact on educational development in Nigeria.

Research by Stevens and Schaller (2011) and Zhong and Zhou (2011) revealed that parents were interested in the education of their children in spite of their unpleasant experiences. The study findings indicated parental support for the education of their children. Given several recent reports of children being kidnapped from schools (Abonyi & Ezeh, 2017), participants expressed a need for more governmental intervention regarding school security. Unless schools are secure, children cannot learn. And parents will not be comfortable and confident in sending their children to school. The required interventions entail policy formulation on school security and support of affected

children. Affolter and Allaf (2014) further noted that parents lamented humanitarian aids that were devoid of education support for their children. The study participants expressed similar feelings and wanted educational support for their children apart from material support from government and other organizations.

### **Parents Were Unhappy About Teenage Daughters' Loss of Education**

The third subquestion asked how do non-Muslim displaced parents residing in camps feel about their teenage daughters not attending school. All of the participants expressed feelings of unhappiness and noted that the experience of Boko Haram's attacks had impacted negatively on their daughters' schooling. When asked about their daughters' feelings about school, they reported a low level of enthusiasm regarding schooling. Parents reported engaging their teenage daughters in therapy sessions by encouraging them. Parents also complained of financial challenges as impacting their decision-making.

Studies by Aliyu et al. (2015) and Oladunjoye and Omemu (2013) noted that students developed school phobia when they perceived threat in the school environment. The study findings confirm their report as teenage daughters expressed low enthusiasm for schooling after exposure to terrorism. Ten of the participants confirmed that their daughters expressed phobia for schooling and would require motivation. This is a clear indicator that terrorism impacts children's enthusiasm for schooling.

Brom, Pat-Horenczyk, and Baum (2011) noted that children exposed to terrorism exhibited school avoidance and violent behavior as a way of life. The findings of the present study revealed similar views concerning school avoidance, as 10 participants

stated that their daughters seem afraid, unhappy, and reluctant to continue their schooling. By contrast, two participants stated that their daughters were enthusiastic about continuing their schooling and looked forward to it. Participants expressed feelings of unhappiness and noted that the experience of Boko Haram attacks had disrupted their daughters' schooling. However, none of the participants reported violent behavior exhibited by their teenage daughters. According to frustration-aggression theory developed by Dollard et al. (1939), occurrence of aggressive behavior always presupposes the existence of frustration, and the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression (Berkowitz, 1989). Despite the frustrations from exposure to terrorism, displacement and educational loss, none of the participants' teenage daughters were reported to have demonstrated aggressive behavior toward their parents or other children in the camp. The participants only reported that their teenage daughters were unhappy about school deprivation and expressed low enthusiasm for schooling.

Morey and Gentzler (2017) studied parents' response to their children's emotions. And this response causes parents to express emotions and attachment. This study finding confirms the report as participants expressed negative emotions and attachment as their children were deprived of proper schooling as a result of terrorism and displacement. Participants expressed bitterness and were unhappy about the loss of education for their children. The reaction of these parents implies that children expressed negative emotions to schooling which is also confirmed in this study.

Research by Lozada, Halberstadt, Craig, Dennis and Dunsmore (2016) and Pottinger (2005) revealed that when parents talked with their children experiencing

difficulties, it was helpful. Parents used greater encouragement to foster positive than negative emotions. The study participants reported talking with their teenage daughters about their phobia for schooling and encouraged them. Parents were optimistic that the discussion sessions held with their teenage daughters will improve their orientation about schooling.

Studies by Waheed and Ahmad (2012) and Sanni (2015) revealed that terrorism impacts the socioeconomic lives of parents. They found that one of the major effects of terrorist attacks on displaced persons is financial setback. The study findings confirm their findings as participant reported their financial constraints in supporting their children's schooling. Abdullahi and Terhemba (2014), Abdurashed et al. (2015), and Oladunjoye and Omemu (2013) noted in their studies that the lasting effects of terrorism in Northern Nigeria might result in parents losing interest in the education of their children. The finding of this study is not in support of their report as participants did not lose interest in the education of their children in spite of financial challenges.

### **Theoretical Perspective**

The study was grounded in prospect theory. It was developed by Kahneman and Tversky (1979) as a predictor of human behavior and decision-making process under risk conditions in psychological studies (Hens & Vicek, 2011; Mercer, 2005; Trott, 2013). The basic tenet of the theory is that people make decisions based on their understanding of the values of their gains and losses under risk conditions rather than the final outcome of the risk such as war, conflict, or terrorism (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Participants made decisions based on their understanding of their gains and losses. The perceived

gains by participants in their decision-making were access to education, advanced academic prospects for their daughters, and governmental interventions. The perceived losses were feelings of insecurity, vulnerability of daughters, an inability to support the education of their daughters, and continued illiteracy of their daughters. The study reveals that there is gain induced decision-making and loss induced decision-making. Although all parents valued education, some parents were willing to send their teenage daughters to school in spite of the impending security threat (gain induced decision). For them, it would improve teenage daughters' academic prospects. Other parents were unwilling to risk sending teenage daughters to school (loss induced decision). For them, their teenage daughters would be exposed to harm.

According to Hancock and Weiss (2011) and Yechiam and Hochman (2013), losses are given more attention than gains in decision-making under conditions of risk, because losses increase task attention and the tendency for reinforcement. This means loss makes a person more determined for gain than when in the domain of gain. This study did confirm the prediction of prospect theory in relation to loss given more attention than gain. Participants paid more attention to their losses than gains in their school decision-making. Participants felt sending their teenage daughters to school would make them vulnerable. Participants were mainly risk-averse, as they preferred not to send their children to school.

In prospect theory, loss aversion means to assume more risk and avoid the frame of loss by seeking to identify the prospect of gain (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). When individuals frame an outcome as a loss, they assume more risk than when framed as gain.



Actors in the domain of loss may cooperate to avoid more losses, but prospect theory expects them to assume a risky position to attain gains (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Thus, it was expected that non-Muslim displaced parents in the domain of loss would make riskier choices concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters to improve the life prospect of their children. However, the study revealed that majority of the participants did not make riskier choice of sending teenage daughters to school. Only three of the 12 participants were willing to accept the risk of sending teenage daughters because of the academic prospect for their daughters. For them, the education of their daughters is worth the risk. They considered the challenge of what impending illiteracy would be for their daughters. Majority of participants on the other hand, made less risky choice by prioritizing the safety of their teenage daughters in school decision-making. They were reluctant to expose their daughters to harm in the process of school attendance. For these parents, they cannot take such risk as life has no duplicate. Schooling of daughters can wait until peace is restored to the communities.

From the discussion above, the study did not confirm the tenets of prospect theory regarding individuals making riskier choices in the loss domain. In fact, being in the loss domain does not necessarily imply making riskier decisions. Majority of the participants (nine out of 12) did not make riskier decisions in their school decision-making. Participants were more concern about their losses and sort the protection of their daughters. The value ascribed to teenage daughters' lives was more than the value ascribed to education in school-related decision-making. Thus, participants were risk averse. This indicates that an individual's perception of the risk and risk-taking tendency

varies according to contexts. All of the participants did not express the same attitude to risk-taking.

In prospect theory, emotions such as fear, greed, sadness, anger, panic, regret, pride, and trust play an important role in decision-making (Mercer, 2005; Yechiam & Hochman, 2013; Young et al., 2012). This study confirms the role of emotions in decision-making. The participants' perceptions of the schooling environment and security threat evoked different feelings in them. Each participant had subjective feelings of fear, anger, sadness, and regret about their losses and gains that drive their choices. These feelings about the safety of schooling environment played a dominant role in participants' school-related decision making for their teenage daughters. The participants in this study had similar feelings about the unsafe schooling environment and the vulnerability of their children. These feelings significantly impacted their school decision-making. The study revealed conflict between the cognitive and affective domain in participants' school decision-making. In this battle, the affective domain influenced their decision-making more than the cognitive domain. Cognitively, participants valued education for their teenage daughters but were emotionally withdrawn and unwilling to risk sending them to school. How participants felt influenced them more than what they thought should be.

### **Limitations of the Study**

The study focused in depth on the lived experience of displaced non-Muslim parents living in camps in Nigeria. The perceptions of the participants were met with the sample and resulted in a meaningful study (Smith et al., 2009). The study gave these parents a voice, and so important themes depicting their experience have been identified.

Efforts were made to enhance the transferability of the study by providing considerable detail on the procedural and contextual aspects of the data collection so that the reader can justifiably apply the results to their own settings. However the meaningfulness of the findings may be limited to non-Muslim parents displaced with teenage daughters. There is a need for further research in consideration of gendered differences to compare the views of fathers and mothers.

The results from the study were based on the interview responses of selected displaced non-Muslim parents residing in camps regarding their experiences of terrorism and the schooling of their teenage daughters. Since participants shared their self-reflective report of their experiences, it was believed that their memories relating to what they shared during the interviews were accurate. Participants may not have recalled every memory that they could have shared. It is also possible that some participants avoided saying certain things that could upset them. However, the 12 in-depth interviews that were conducted yielded data saturation and answered the research questions. Going through the data generated by those interviewed did not yield new information after exceeding the sample size for five or six persons required for IPA studies. From the sixth interview, participants kept repeating what others have said. There was no new information. The findings from the interview probes revealed that displaced non-Muslim parents residing in the camps were disturbed about the safety and security of their teenage daughters' schooling.

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

In this study, I explored the lived experience of displaced non-Muslim parents and reported my interpretations concerning their perceptions of risk and decision-making about the schooling of their teenage daughters. Because of the limited scope of the study, the results may not apply to all parents who have teenage daughters, as participants in this study comprised a specific population of displaced non-Muslim parents residing in camps. I recommend that this study be replicated with a larger population and considering the factor of gender to enable findings to be compared. There could be significant differences in the school decision-making of fathers and mothers about their teenage daughters after exposure to terrorism, which this study could not capture. Additionally, consideration could be given to a comparative examination of the views of displaced non-Muslim parents with teenage boys and displaced non-Muslim parents with teenage girls. This will enable us understand if parents experience same anxiety for their sons as their daughters. This study examined the experience of displaced non-Muslim parents in camp. Further study could examine the decision-making of displaced non-Muslim parents who do not reside in camps. It is important to know if the camp influenced school decision-making. Further research could also examine the prospects of homeschooling as an educational alternative for teenage girls affected by terrorism in parents' decision-making related to their schooling. Further studies could also be conducted to find out attitude of teenage girls to school attendance outside the camps. It is important to know if there are differences in the attitude to schooling of teenage girls in the camp and affected teenage girls outside the camp.

Of the 12 participants, nine reported that they were reluctant to expose their teenage daughters to risk, whereas three participants felt that educating their children was worth the risk. A subsequent study could be conducted on an individual's risk-taking tendency, which could vary according to contexts as it relates to prospect theory. It could examine if gender impacts risk-taking tendency.

### **Implications for Social Change**

My involvement in this study fostered my renewed enthusiasm about creating positive social change while being personally challenged as a result of learning about the plights and concerns of these displaced parents living in the camps. I was deeply moved by the plight of displaced school children and their parents. I know that I could be a voice to advocate support for these affected children to bring about social change that would improve their educational prospects. Displaced non-Muslim parents who voluntarily participated in the study willingly shared their experiences and described how these experiences impacted their decision-making regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters. The study's findings revealed the concerns of displaced parents regarding the safety of their teenage daughters in decisions about schooling. Interventions should not just focus on the provision of material needs and health care, but should also be aimed at understanding the feelings of displaced parents and their psychological needs concerning the safety of their teenage daughters and schooling environment.

The findings from the study will be of importance for parents, school administrators and teachers, the government, and NGOs. They should serve to facilitate awareness regarding content creation within the interventions that would cater to the

psychological needs of displaced parents concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters. These targeted interventions should consequently prompt behavioral and attitudinal changes of displaced non-Muslim parents concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters. The study contributes to positive social change by fostering an in-depth understanding of the terrorism-related experiences of non-Muslim displaced parents and advocating for the provision of support for parents and schools so that teenage girls who have been affected by terrorism can resume their schooling to improve their life prospects and the educational level of the entire community.

The findings can aid the decision-making of other parents situated in a crisis domain regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters on being conscious about the security of their teenage daughters. Moreover, it can inform the government's policy formulation relating to the education of teenage girls who have been exposed to and affected by terrorism through the provision of free education and welfare.

The findings of the study will be informative for teachers and school administrators, enabling them to acquire an understanding of how parents feel about the security of their teenage daughters in schools. They can consequently recommend alternative programs such as counseling, new curricula, security orientations, and enforcement of security policies in schools to enhance the schooling experience of teenage girls exposed to terrorism. The findings will also prompt school administrators to improve school security and will encourage them to be security conscious. Moreover, they will help to improve the schooling experience of affected teenage girls and prompt actions that increase parents' confidence about the security of their daughters and their

schooling experience. Lastly, they will help to foster greater empathy for children who have endured terrorism attacks among school teachers and the desire to encourage these children to learn.

This research contributes to science by promoting support for the education of the girl child. The study confirms that the use of prospect theory is appropriate for understanding decision-making under conditions of risk. Its findings reveal the explanatory power of this theory regarding the decision-making of displaced non-Muslim parents who have been affected by terrorism regarding the school attendance of their teenage daughters.

A lack of awareness and of interventions concerning the schooling-related decision-making of displaced non-Muslim parents may lead to illiteracy of their daughters and to the advancement of Boko Haram's ideology. Illiteracy of the girl child continues to be a major problem on the African continent, and it is likely that concern regarding the continued education of the affected girls will increasingly diminish as the education of the girl child is not prioritized (Alabi & Alabi, 2014). Hence creating awareness about the schooling of terrorism-affected teenage girls in Nigeria is very important. The participants in this study revealed the impacts of terrorism on their school-related decision-making regarding their teenage daughters, their perceptions of the schooling environment, and their attitudes toward risk-taking.

### **Conclusion**

To address the limited knowledge on the experiences of non-Muslim displaced parents regarding the schooling of their teenage daughters, I applied the IPA

methodology to elicit the lived experience of 12 participants. Based on the results of the analysis, the major themes were: (a) parents were traumatized by the experience of terrorism, (b) parents worried about the vulnerability of school children, (c) parents expressed support for girl child education, and (d) parents expressed unhappiness about daughters' loss of education. The study's findings have demonstrated that terrorism impacts school decision-making as parents ascribe value to education but were reluctant to send their teenage daughters to school. Thus, it contributes to an understanding of the experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents regarding their decisions to send their teenage daughters to school. The results of the study will therefore create awareness of the challenges faced by displaced parents and the schooling of their teenage daughters.

The experiences of displaced non-Muslim parents as it relates to the education of their teenage daughters are clear indications of the fundamental threat to education of the girl child and fear of insecurity in the hearts of parents towards supporting the education of their teenage daughters. Every teenage girl is vulnerable to potential attacks as Boko Haram is opposed to Western education and education of women. Teenage girls might develop phobia for schooling and become hypersensitive in school knowing that they are targeted. Also, displaced parents and other parents may become increasingly afraid about the safety of their teenage daughters and stop sending them to school. Consequently, this would lead to illiteracy in the family and community. Thus, parents should be supported to embrace the risk of educating their teenage daughters in spite of the challenges of terrorism and insecurity. And teenage girls should be reoriented in schools and at home not to perceive these attacks as obstacles to their education. Government, NGOs, and



school administrators are to ensure security of schools to reassure parents of their children's safety and to support affected children. Ultimately, educating children remains the utmost remedy against the spread of Boko Haram's ideology and insurgency.

## References

- Abdel-Rahim, A., Jaimovich, D., & Ylönen, A. (2015). Forced displacement and behavioral change: An empirical study of returnee households in the Nuba Mountains. *Defence and Peace Economics*, 1-31.  
doi:10.1080/10242694.2015.1095515
- Abdorreza, K., & Rozumah, B. (2010). Parenting attitude and style and its effect on children's school achievements. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 2(2). Retrieved from [www.ccsenet.org/ijps](http://www.ccsenet.org/ijps)
- Abdullahi, U., & Terhemba, A. (2014). Effects of insecurity on primary school attendance in Damaturu metropolis Yobe State, Nigeria. *Journal of Research in Education and Society*, 5(1), 32 –38. doi:10.9790/0661-16133237
- Abdulrasheed, O., Onuselogu, A., & Obioma, G. (2015). Effects of insurgency on universal basic education in Borno State of Nigeria. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 3(4), 490-494. doi:10.12691/education-3-4-16
- Abel, R., & Friedman, H. (2009). Israeli school and community response to war trauma. A review of selected literature. *School Psychology International*, 30(3), 265-28.  
doi:10.1177/0143034309106493
- Abonyi, S., & Ezeh, C. (2017). Terrorism, insurgency and the welfare of the African child: A case of Boko Haram in Nigeria. *International Journal of Social & Management Sciences*, 1(1), 84-90. Retrieved from [www.gojamss.net](http://www.gojamss.net)

- Adamski, A., Fraser, J. & Peiro, M. (2013). Parental involvement in schooling, classroom environment and student outcomes. *Learning Environments Research*, 16(3), 315-328. doi:10.1007/s10984-012-9121-7
- Adegbulu, F. (2013). From guerrilla tactics to outright terrorism: A study of Boko Haram's synergy with Al-Qaeda terrorist network. *IUP Journal of International Relations*, 7(2), 60-84. Retrieved from <http://ssrn.com/abstract=2343479>
- Adekeye, A. (2015). Socioeconomic and political impact of Boko Haram terrorism in Nigeria. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*. doi:10.2139/ssrn.2565928
- Adeyemi, T. (2011). Financing of education in Nigeria: An analytical review. *American Journal of Social and Management Sciences*, 2(3), 295-3. doi:10.5251/ajsms.2011.2.3.295.303
- Affolter, W., & Allaf, C. (2014). Displaced Sudanese voices on education, dignity, and humanitarian aid. *Canada's Journal on Refugees*, 30(1). Retrieved from [www.refuge.journal.youku.ca](http://www.refuge.journal.youku.ca)
- Afolayan, F., Abegunrin, O., Abidde, S., Emordi, E., Oriola, T., & Unemen, J. (2013). Roundtable - Boko Haram: Governance, security, and peace in Nigeria. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*. Retrieved from <http://ssrn.com/abstract=2239240>
- Agbiboa, D. (2013). No retreat, no surrender: Understanding the religious terrorism of Boko Haram in Nigeria. *African Study Monographs*, 34(2), 65-84. doi:10.14989/179136

- Agbiboa, D. (2013). The Nigerian burden: Religious identity, conflict and the current terrorism of Boko Haram. *Conflict, Security & Development*, 13(1), 129.  
doi:10.1080/14678802.2013.770257
- Agbiboa, D. (2014). Peace at daggers drawn? Boko Haram and the state of emergency in Nigeria. *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism*, 37(1), 41-67.  
doi:10.1080/1057610X.2014.853602
- Ahmed, A., Masood, K., Dean, S., Shakir, T., Kardar, A., Barlass, U., Imam, S., Mohmand, M., Ibrahim, H., Khan, I., Akram, U., & Hasnain, F. (2011). The constant threat of terrorism: Stress levels and coping strategies amongst university students of Karachi. *Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association*, 61(4), 410-4.  
Retrieved from [http://ecommons.aku.edu/pakistan\\_fhs\\_mc\\_psychiatry/8](http://ecommons.aku.edu/pakistan_fhs_mc_psychiatry/8)
- Ahmed, M. (2010). Effects of terrorism on children: Psychosocial biological understanding. *Journal of the Islamic Medical Association of North America*, 39(2). doi:10.5915/39-2-6491
- Ahokegh, A. (2012). Boko Haram: A 21<sup>st</sup> century challenge in Nigeria. *European Scientific Journal*, 8(21), 46-56. doi:10.3390/rel6041182
- Ajayi, A. (2012). Boko Haram terrorism in Nigeria. *Global Advanced Research Journal of History, Political Science and International Relations*, 1(5), 103 -107.  
Retrieved from <http://garj.org/garjhpsir/index.htm>
- Ajibade J., & Segun J. (2013). Domestic terrorism, official response and the politics of Black gold in Niger-Delta, Nigeria. *IFE Psychologia*, 21(1), 114-126.  
doi:10.4314/ifep.v16i1.23767

- Akume, A. (2015). The question of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Nigeria: A reflection on present realities. *Journal of Third World Studies*, 32(1), 221-244. Retrieved from Walden University library.
- Akpan, L., Onwuka, M., & Onyeizugbe, C. (2012). Terrorist activities and economic development in Nigeria: An early warning signal. *OIDA International Journal of Sustainable Development*, 5(4), 69-78. Retrieved from <http://ssrn.com/abstract=2173041>
- Alabi, T., & Alabi, O. (2014). Female education: A sociological analysis of girl-child education in Nigeria. *International Journal of Educational Policy Research and Review*, 1(1), 006-013. Retrieved from <http://www.journalissues.org/journals/ijeprr>
- Alexander, T. (2012). *John Dewey's theory of art, experience, and nature: The horizons of feeling*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Aliyu, A., Moorthy, R., & Idris, N. (2015). Towards understanding the Boko Haram phenomenon in Nigeria. *Asian Social Science*, 11, 10. doi:10.5539/ass.v11n10p307
- Allehone, A. (2010). The African Union Convention on internally displaced persons: Its codification background, scope, and enforcement challenges. *Refugee Survey Quarterly*, 29(3), 28-57. doi:10.1093/rsq/hdq029
- Allen, J., & Dechow, P. (2013). The rationality of the long distance runner: Prospect theory and the marathon. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*. doi:10.2139/ssrn.2342396

- Allport, G. (1935). Attitude. In C. Murchison (Ed.), *Handbook of social psychology* (pp. 798-844). Worcester, MA: Clark University Press.
- Alta, G., & Hussein, S. (2014). Understanding the rise of Boko Haram and its discontents. *Journal for Contemporary History, 39*(2), 225-247.  
doi:10.1177/002200948201700203
- Altschul, I. (2011). Parental involvement and the academic achievement of Mexican American youths: What kinds of involvement in youths' education matter most? *Social Work Research, 35*(3), 159-170. doi:10.1093/swr/35.3.159
- Amadi, E. (2013). Socio-cultural factors on the girl-child education in secondary schools in Ihiala local government area of Anambra State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Education Learning and Development, 1*(1), 71-74. Retrieved from [www.ea-journals.org](http://www.ea-journals.org)
- American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (5th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
- Antonopoulou, K., Koutrouba, K., & Babalis, T. (2011). Parental involvement in secondary education schools: The views of parents in Greece. *Educational Studies, 37*(3), 333-344. doi:10.1080/03055698.2010.506332
- Anyadike, I., & Nkechi, O. (2013). Boko Haram and national security challenges in Nigeria; causes and solutions. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development, 4*(5), 2222-2855. doi:10.5901/jesr.2013.v3n10p19

- Aramidé, K., Leif, J., & Shannon S. (2010). School attendance in Nigeria: Understanding the impact and intersection of gender, urban-rural residence, and socioeconomic status. *Comparative Education Review*, 54(2) 295-319. doi:10.1086/652139
- Arie, S. (2011). Somali children are increasingly caught up in country's 20 years conflict. *BMJ*, 343. doi:10.1136/bmj.d4631
- Ashaolu, D. (2012). Solving security challenges in Nigeria through intelligence gathering and surveillance. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*. doi:10.2139/ssrn.2275986
- Ataria, Y. (2014). Traumatic memories as black holes: A qualitative-phenomenological approach. *Qualitative Psychology*, 1(2), 123-140. doi:10.1037/qup0000009
- Awodola, B., & Ayuba, C. (2015). Terrorism in Nigeria: The case of the Boko Haram. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(4). doi:10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n4s2p247
- Awodola, B., & Oboshi, A. (2015). Terrorism in northern Nigeria: A threat to food security in Maiduguri. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(3, S2). doi:10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n3s2p11
- Awortu, B. (2015). Boko Haram insurgency and the underdevelopment of Nigeria. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, 5(6). doi:10.4314/ijah.v4i1.3
- Babatunde, M., Unwana-Obong, U., & Olanrewaju, M. (2014). Historical antecedents of Boko Haram insurgency and its implications for sustainable and educational development in North Central Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5(22).

Retrieved from

<http://www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/JEP/article/view/14542/14851>

- Ballard, T., Yeo, G., Neal, A., & Farrell, S. (2016). Departures from optimality when pursuing multiple approach or avoidance goals. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*(7), 1056-1066. doi:10.1037/ap10000082
- Barakat, S., Connolly, D., Hardman, F., & Sundaram, V. (2013). The role of basic education in post-conflict recovery. *Comparative Education, 49*(2), 124-142. doi:10.1080/03050068.2012.686259
- Berkowitz, L. (1989). Frustration-aggression hypothesis: Examination and reformation. *Psychological bulletin, 106*(1), 59. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.106.1.59
- Borum, R. (2004). *Psychology of terrorism*. Tampa, FL: University of South Florida Press.
- Bragin, M., & Opiro, G. (2012). Making the right to education a reality for war affected children: The Northern Uganda experience. *International Journal of Applied Psychoanalytic Studies, 9*(2), 158-177. doi:10.1002/aps.1309
- Braithwaite, A. (2013). The logic of public fear in terrorism and counter-terrorism. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology, 28*(2), 95-101. doi:10.1007/s11896-013-9126-x
- Brinkmann, S., & Kvale, S. (2015). *Interview: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing*. London, United Kingdom: SAGE Publications.



- Brom, D., Pat-Horenczyk, R., & Baum, N. (2011). The influence of war and terrorism on posttraumatic distress among Israeli children. *International Psychiatry*, 8(4), 81-83. Retrieved from <http://www.rcpsych.ac.uk>
- Bromiley, P. (2010). Looking at Prospect theory. *Strategic Management Journal*, 31, 1357-1370. doi:10.1002/smj.885
- Butler, T., Hamnett, C., & Ramsden, M. (2013). Gentrification, education, and exclusionary displacement in East London. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 37, 556–575. doi:10.1111/1468-2427.12001
- Caldararo, L. (2014). Al-Qaeda, ISIS, Boko Haram and forms of rebellion in the 21st Century in the vacuum of Ottoman Soviet 'collapse'. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*. doi:10.2139/ssrn.2494027
- Campos-Vazquez, R., & Cuijty, E. (2014). The role of emotions on risk aversion: A prospect theory experiment. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics*, 50, 1–9. doi:10.1016/j.socec.2014.01.001
- Canetti, D., Elad-Strenger, J., Lavi, I., Guy, D., & Bar-Tal, D. (2015). Exposure to violence, ethos of conflict, and support for compromise surveys in Israel, East Jerusalem, West Bank, and Gaza. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 61(1), 84-113. doi:10.1177/0022002715569771
- Caponecchia, C. (2012). Relative risk perception for terrorism: Implications for preparedness and risk communication. *Risk Analysis*, 32(9), 1524-1534. doi:10.1111/j.1539-6924.2011.01784.x

- Chemtob, C., Pat-Horenczyk, R., Madan, A., Pitman, S., Yanping W., Doppelt, O., Burns, K., Abramovitz, R., & Brom, D. (2011). Israeli adolescents with ongoing exposure to terrorism: Suicidal ideation, posttraumatic stress disorder, and functional impairment. *Journal of Traumatic Stress, 24* (6), 756–759.  
doi:10.1002/jts.20708
- Chiluwa, I., & Ifukor, P. (2015). War against our children: Stance and evaluation in #BringBackOurGirls campaign discourse on Twitter and Facebook. *Discourse & Society, 26*, 267-296. doi:10.1177/0957926514564735
- Chinaedu, B. (2011). New trend in terrorism in Nigeria: ‘Boko Haram sect’ - The villain of the piece. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*.  
doi:10.2139/ssrn.1932061
- Chrisman, A., & Dougherty, J. (2014). Mass trauma: Disasters, terrorism, and war. *Child and adolescent psychiatric clinics of North America, 23*(2), 257-279.  
doi:10.1016/j.chc.2013.12.004
- Ciampi, F. (2012). Anticipated attitude for providing psychological services to survivors of major terrorist incidents. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy, 4*(2), 237-243. doi:10.1037/a0024475
- Clauset, A., & Gleditsch, S. (2012). The developmental dynamics of terrorist organizations. *PLoS ONE, 7*(11). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0048633
- Cohen, J., & Geier, K. (2010). School climate research summary. *School Climate Brief, 1*(1). Retrieved from  
[http://www.schoolclimate.org/climate/documents/SCBrief\\_v1n1\\_Jan2010.pdf](http://www.schoolclimate.org/climate/documents/SCBrief_v1n1_Jan2010.pdf)

- Constandinides, D., Kamens, S., Marshoud, B., & Flefel, F. (2011). Research in ongoing conflict zones: Effects of a school-based intervention for Palestinian children. *Journal of Peace Psychology, 17*(3), 270-302.  
doi:10.1080/10781919.2011.587174
- Creswell, J. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. London, United Kingdom: Sage Publications.
- Dane, E., & Pratt, M. (2007). Exploring intuition and its role in managerial decision making. *Academy of Management Review, 32*(1), 33-54.  
doi:10.5465/AMR.2007.23463682
- Daphna, C., Brian J., Carmit, R., & Carly W. (2013). Exposure to political violence and political extremism: A stress-based process. *European Psychologist, 18*, 263-272.  
doi:10.1027/1016-9040/a000158
- De Castro, E., Camacho, A., Zenaida, V., Balanon, F., & Galang, M. (2012). Children caught in conflicts: Assessing the psychosocial impact of armed conflict on children in the Philippines. *International Journal of Applied Psychoanalytic Studies, 9*(3), 249-265. doi:10.1002/aps.1323
- DeVoe, E., Bannon, W., Klein, T., & Miranda-Julian, C. (2011). Young children in the aftermath of the world trade center attacks. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy, 3*(1), 1-7. doi:10.1037/a0020567
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. Indianapolis, IN: Kappa Delta Pi.

- Dimitry, L. (2012). A systematic review on the mental health of children and adolescents in areas of armed conflict in the Middle East. *Child: Care, Health and Development, 38*: 153–161. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2214.2011.01246.x
- Doeland, E. (2012). The influence of terrorist threats on Israeli children and adolescents. *Social Cosmos, 3*(1), 61-67. doi:10.1037/e510492012-001
- Durotoye, A. (2105). Economic consequences and management of Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management, 3*(6), 1247-1270. Retrieved from <http://ijecm.co.uk>
- Eder, C. (2014). Displacement and education of the next generation: evidence from Bosnia and Herzegovina. *IZA Journal of Labor & Development, 3*(1), 12. doi:10.1186/2193-9020-3-12
- Ee, E., Kleber, R., & Mooren, T. (2012). War trauma lingers on: Associations between maternal posttraumatic stress disorder, parent–child interaction, and child development. *Infant Mental Health Journal, 33*(5), 459-468. doi:10.1002/imhj.21324
- Eisenberg, N., & Silver, C. (2011). Growing up in the shadow of terrorism: Youth in America after 9/11. *American Psychologist, 66*(6), 468-481. doi:10.1037/a0024619
- Eiser, R., Bostrom, A., Burton, I., Johnston, M., McClure, J., Paton, D., & White, P. (2012). Risk interpretation and action: A conceptual framework for responses to natural hazards. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction, 1*, 5-16. doi:10.1016/j.ijdr.2012.05.002

- Eme, I., & Ibietan, J. (2012). The cost of Boko Haram activities in Nigeria. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 2(2), 10-32.  
doi:10.12816/0002238
- Ensor, M. (2014). Displaced girlhood: Gendered dimensions of coping and social change among conflict-affected South Sudanese youth. *Refuge: Canada's Journal on Refugees*, 30(1). Retrieved from [www.refugejournal.youku.ca](http://www.refugejournal.youku.ca)
- Ering, S., Omono, C., & Oketa, M. (2014). Islamic militancy and global insecurity: The challenge of Boko-Haram in Nigeria. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 4(1). doi:10.5901/jesr.2014.v4n1p503
- Erlich, S. (2003). Experience- What is it? *International Journal of psychoanalysis*, 84, 1125-1147. Retrieved from <http://psychology.huji.ac.il/.upload/articles/erlich1.pdf>
- Espelage, D., Low, S., & Jimerson, S. (2014). Understanding school climate, aggression, peer victimization, and bully perpetration: Contemporary science, practice, and policy. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 29(3), 233-237. doi:10.1037/spq0000090
- Essizoglu, A., & Keser, I. (2014). Post-traumatic stress disorder in internally displaced people subjected to displacement by armed forces. *Journal of Trauma Stress Disorder Treat*, 3(2). doi:10.4172/2324-8947.100012
- Ezell, C., Bennett, P., von Winterfeldt, D., Sokolowski, J., & Collins, J. (2010). Probabilistic risk analysis and terrorism risk. *Risk Analysis*, 30(4), 575-589.  
doi:10.1111/j.1539-6924.2010.01401.x
- Falode, A. (2015). The nature of the Nigeria-Boko Haram war, 2010-2015: A strategic analysis. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*: doi:10.2139/ssrn.2380234

- Fine, M. (2012). Disrupting peace/provoking conflict: Stories of school closings and struggles for educational justice. *Peace and Conflict: Journal of Peace Psychology, 18*(2), 144-146. doi:10.1037/a0028095
- Forest, F. (2012). *Confronting the Terrorism of Boko Haram in Nigeria*. Florida: Joint Special Operations University Press.
- Freh, M. (2015). Psychological effects of war and violence on children. *Journal of Psychological Abnormalities, 5*(s1). doi:10.4172/2329-9525.1000e001
- Glaser, B. & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine Publications.
- Glöckner, A., & Betsch, T. (2011). The Empirical content of theories in judgment and decision making: Shortcomings and remedies. *Judgment and Decision Making, 6*(8), 711-721. doi:10.1080/1047840x.2010.517737
- Glöckner, A., Hilbig, B., Henninger, F., & Fiedler, S. (2016). The reversed description-experience gap: Disentangling sources of presentation format effects in risky choice. *Journal of Experimental Psychology, 145*(4), 486-508. doi:10.1037/a0040103
- Glöckner, A., & Pachur, T. (2012). Cognitive models of risky choice: Parameter stability and predictive accuracy of prospect theory. *Cognition, 123*(1), 21–32. doi:10.1016/j.cognition.2011.12.002
- Greenberg, M., & Babcock-Dunning, L. (2012). Worrying about terrorism and other acute environmental health hazard events. *American Journal of Public Health, 102*(4), 651-656. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2011.300434

- Greenberg, M., & Lowrie, K. (2012). Daniel Kahneman: How we think and choose. *Risk Analysis*, 32(7), 1113–1116. doi:10.1111/j.1539-6924.2012.01865.x
- Groenewald, T. (2004). A phenomenological research design illustrated. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 3(1), 4. Retrieved from <http://www.ualberta.ca/iiqm/backissues>
- Guariso, A. & Verpoorten, M. (2014). Armed conflicts and schooling in Rwanda: Digging deeper. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10419/101056>
- Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1989). *Fourth generation evaluation*. Newbury, CA: Sage Publications.
- Gyanendra, K. (2010). Awareness and attitude of parents towards adolescence education in secondary schools. *Journal of Health management*, 13, 463-475. doi:101177/097206341101300406
- Hamilton, H., Marshall, L., Rummens, J., Fenta, H., & Simich, L. (2011). Immigrant parents' perceptions of school environment and children's mental health and behavior. *Journal of School Health*, 81, 313–319. doi:10.1111/j.1746-1561.2011.00596.x
- Hammajam, A., Moh'dGaldi, R., & Idris, S. (2015). Attitude of parents toward western education in north eastern Nigeria “Case study Chibok local government area of Borno State.” *Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 20(1), 72-77. doi:10.9790/0837-20117277
- Hancock, L., & Weiss, J. (2011). Prospect theory and the failure to sell the Oslo Accords. *Peace & Change*, 36(3), 427–452. doi:10.1111/j.1468-0130.2011.00705.x

- Hardie, J. (2015). The Broken Compass: Parental involvement with children's education. *Contemporary Sociology: A Journal of Reviews*, 44(5), 697-699.  
doi:10.1177/0094306115599351rr
- Haselhuhn, P., Pope, G., Schweitzer, E., & Fishman, P. (2012). The impact of personal experience on behavior: Evidence from video-rental fines. *Management Science*, 58(1), 52-61. doi:10.1287/mnsc.1110.1367
- Heeren, G., Markett, S., Montag, C., Gibbons, H., & Reuter, M. (2016). Decision conflict and loss aversion—An ERP study. *Journal of Neuroscience, Psychology and Economics*, 9(1), 50-63. doi:10.1037/npe0000052
- Helmut, S., & Twikirize, J. (2013). War-affected children in northern Uganda: No easy path to normality. *International Social Work*, 56(1), 67-79.  
doi:10.1177/0020872812459067
- Hens, T., & Vlcek, M. (2011). Does prospect theory explain the disposition effect? *Journal of Behavioral Finance*, 12(3), 141-157.  
doi:10.1080/15427560.2011.601976
- Herczog, M. (2012). Rights of the child and early childhood education and care in Europe. *European Journal of Education*, 47(4), 542-555. doi:10.1111/ejed.12008
- Hertwig, R. (2012). The psychology and rationality of decisions from experience. *Synthese*, 187(1), 269-292. doi:10.1007/s11229-011-0024-4.
- Hirsch-Hoefler, S., Canetti, D., Rapaport, C., & Hobfoll, S. (2014). Conflict will harden your heart: Exposure to violence, psychological distress, and peace barriers in



Israel and Palestine. *British Journal of Political Science*, 1-15.

doi:10.1017/S0007123414000374

Hlatshwayo, M., & Vally, S. (2014). Violence, resilience and solidarity: The right to education for child migrants in South Africa. *School Psychology International*, 35(3), 266-279. doi:10.1177/0143034313511004

Hoffman, B. (1998). *Inside Terrorism*: New York: Columbia University Press.

Iro, A., & Oarhe O. (2012). The Boko Haram uprising: How should Nigeria respond?

*Third World Quarterly*, 33(5), 853-869. doi:10.1080/01436597.2012.674701

Imasuen, E. (2015). Insurgency and humanitarian crises in northern Nigeria: The case of

Boko Haram. *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations*,

9(7), 284-296. doi:10.5897/AJPSIR2015.0789

Ilechukwu, C. (2014). Religious terrorism (Boko Haram) and the future of education in

Nigeria. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, 4(24), 62-77. Retrieved

from [www.iiste.org](http://www.iiste.org)

Ishaq, A., & Ali, M. (2014). Non-formal education and the girl-child in Northern Nigeria:

Issues and strategies. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5(37), 45-50. Retrieved

from [www.iiste.org](http://www.iiste.org)

Izama, M. (2014). Muslim education in Africa: Trends and attitudes toward faith-based

schools. *The Review of Faith & International Affairs* 12(2), 38-50.

doi:10.1080/15570274.2014.918749

- Jayeola-Omoyeni, M., & Omoyeni, J. (2014). Contributions of Western education to the making of modern Nigeria during and after the First World War. *European Scientific Journal*, 10(31). Retrieved from [www.eujournal.org](http://www.eujournal.org)
- Joda, M., & Abdulrasheed O. (2015). Effects of insurgency on girls' education in north eastern Nigeria. *European Journal of Education and Development psychology*, 3(1), 44-50. Retrieved from [www.eajournals.org](http://www.eajournals.org)
- Joshi, P., & Fayyad, J. (2015). Displaced children: The psychological implications. *Child and adolescent psychiatric clinics of North America*, 24(4), 715-730.  
doi:10.1016/j.chc.2015.06.003
- Justino, P., Leone, M., & Salardi, P. (2013). Short-and long-term impact of violence on education: The case of Timor Leste. *World Bank Economic Review*, 28(2), 320-353. doi:10.1093/wber/lht007
- Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica*, 47, 263. doi:10.2307/1914185
- Kainuwa, A. Binti, N., & Yusuf, M. (2013). Influence of socio-economic and educational background of parents on their children's education in Nigeria. *International Journal of Scientific and Research*, 3(10), 1-8. Retrieved from [www.ijsrp.org](http://www.ijsrp.org)
- Keeney, L., & von Winterfeldt, D. (2010). Identifying and structuring the objectives of terrorists. *Risk Analysis*, 30(12), 1803-1816. doi:10.1111/j.1539-6924.2010.01472.x
- Klein, S., Robertson, T., Delton, A., & Lax, M. (2012). Familiarity and personal experience as mediators of recall when planning for future contingencies. *Journal*

*of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 38(1), 240.

doi:10.1037/a0025200

Kolawole, A. (2014). Towards the evolution of legal and institutional framework for the protection of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Nigeria. *OIDA International Journal of Sustainable Development*, 6(5), 141-154. Retrieved from

<http://ssrn.com/abstract=2381329>

Kombol, M. (2013). Representations of Boko Haram on Nigerian digital space:

Implications on mobility. *ASA 2013 Annual Meeting Paper*. Retrieved from

<http://ssrn.com/abstract=2237109>

Kothiyal, A., Spinu V., & Wakker, P. (2011). Prospect theory for continuous

distributions: A preference foundation. *Journal of risk and uncertainty*, 42, 195–

210. doi:10.1007/s11166-011-9118-0

Kremer-Sadlik, T., & Fatigante, M. (2013). Investing in children's future: Cross-cultural

perspectives and ideologies on parental involvement in education. *Childhood*,

22(1), 67-84. doi:10.1177/0907568213513307

Lacquer, W. (1987). *The age of terrorism*. Boston, MA: Little Brown and Co.

Ladan, M. (2012). Diagnostic review of insurgency in Nigeria: The Legal dimension.

*SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*. doi:10.2139/ssrn.2336171

Lakshminarayanan, V., Chen, K., & Santos, L. (2011). The evolution of decision-making

under risk: Framing effects in monkey risk preferences. *Journal of Experimental*

*Social Psychology*, 47(3), 689–693. doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2010.12.011

- Lambert, J. Holzer, J., & Hasbun, A. (2014). Association between parents' PTSD severity and children's psychological distress: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Traumatic Stress, 27*(1), 9-17. doi:10.1002/jts.21891
- Lasenby-Lessard, J., Morrongiello, B., & Barrie, D. (2014). The impact of accumulated experience on children's appraisals of risk and risk-taking decisions: Implications for youth injury prevention. *Health Psychology, 32*(4), 370-378. doi:10.1037/a0023857
- Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lindstrom, K., Mandell, D., Musa, G., Britton, J., Sankin, L., Mogg, K., . . . Hoven, C. (2011). Attention orientation in parents exposed to the 9/11 terrorist attacks and their children. *Psychiatry Research, 187*(1), 261–26. doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2010.09.005
- Lise, S., & Grete, D. (2016). Research participation after terrorism: an open cohort study of survivors and parents after the 2011 Utøya attack in Norway. *BMC Research Notes, 9*(1). doi:10.1186/s13104-016-1873-1
- Little, S., Akin-Little, A., & Somerville, M. (2011). Response to trauma in children: An examination of effective intervention and post-traumatic growth. *School Psychology International, 32*(5), 448-463. doi:10.1177/0143034311402916
- Lozada, F., Halberstadt, A., Craig, A., Dennis, P., & Dunsmore, J. (2016). Parents' beliefs about children's emotions and parents' emotion-related conversations with their

children. *Journal of child and Family Studies*, 25(5), 1525-1538.

doi:10.1007/s10826-015-0325-1

- Lundy, L. (2012). Children's rights and educational policy in Europe: The implementation of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. *Oxford Review of Education*, 38(4), 393-411. doi:10.1080/03054985.2012.704874
- Mapiko, E., & Chinyoka, K. (2013). Exploring the effects of displacement on academic performance of unaccompanied girl children at a refugee camp in Zimbabwe. *European Journal of Academic Research*, 1(3), 100-117. Retrieved from [www.journalsgate.com](http://www.journalsgate.com)
- McCormack, L., & McKellar, L. (2015). Adaptive growth following terrorism: Vigilance and anger as facilitators of posttraumatic growth in the aftermath of the Bali bombings. *Traumatology*, 21(2), 71-81. doi:1085-9373/15/\$12.00
- Maiangwu, B., & Agbiboa, D. (2014). Why Boko Haram kidnaps women and young girls in north-eastern Nigeria. *Conflict Trends*, 2014(3), 51-56. Retrieved from <https://www.giga.hamburg>
- Maiangwa, B., & Amao, B. (2015). Daughters, brides, and supporters of the jihad: Revisiting the gender-based atrocities of Boko Haram in Nigeria. *African Renaissance*. 12(2), 117-144. Retrieved from <http://www.otago.ac.nz/politics/otago213405.pdf>
- Malsch, A., Green, B. & Kothari, B. (2011). Understanding parents' perspectives on the transition to kindergarten: What early childhood settings and schools can do for at-risk families. *Best Practices in Mental Health: An International Journal*, 7(1),

47-66. Retrieved from

<https://scholar.google.com/scholar?cluster=1104252028847070739>

Massey, S., Cameron, A., Ouellette, S., & Fine, M. (1998). Qualitative approaches to the study of thriving: What can be learned? *Journal of Social Issues*, *54*, 337–355. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4560.1998.tb01222.x

Masten, A., & Narayan, A. (2012). Child development in the context of disaster, war, and terrorism: Pathways of risk and resilience. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *63*, 227-257. doi:10.1146/annurev-psych-120710-100356

Mather, M., Mazar, N., Gorlick, M., Lighthall, N., Burgeno, J., Schoeke, A., & Ariely, D. (2012). Risk preferences and aging: The “certainty effect” in older adults' decision making. *Psychology and Aging*, *27*(4), 801-816. doi:10.1037/a0030174

Mercer, J. (2005). Prospect theory and political science. *Annual Review of Political Science*, *8*(1), 1-21. doi:10.1146/annurev.polisci.8.082103.104911

Merrick, J., & Leclerc, P. (2014). Modeling adversaries in counterterrorism decisions using prospect theory. *Risk Analysis*, *36*(4), 681-693. doi:10.1111/risa.12254

Minteh, S., & Perry, A. (2013). Terrorism in West Africa – Boko Haram's evolution, strategy and affiliations. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*. doi:10.2139/ssrn.2313906

Monahan, J. (2012). The individual risk assessment of terrorism. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, *8*(2), 167-205. doi:10.1037/a0025792

- Morey, J. & Gentzler, A. (2017). Parents' perceptions of and responses to children's emotions: Relations with meta-emotions philosophy and adult attachment. *Parenting, 17*(2), 73-103. doi:10.1080/15295192.2017.1304782
- Moscardino, U., Scrimin, S., Capello, F., & Altoe, G. (2014). Brief report: Self-blame and PTSD symptoms in adolescents exposed to terrorism: Is school connectedness a mediator? *Journal of Adolescence, 37*(1), 47-52.  
doi:10.1016/j.adolescence.2013.10.011
- Mujeeb, A., & Zubair, A. (2012). Resilience, stress, anxiety and depression among internally displaced persons affected by armed conflict. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 9*(3), 20-26. doi:10.1177/0020764015573083
- Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods*. London, United Kingdom: Sage Publications.
- Mowen, T. (2013). Parental involvement in school and the role of school security measures. *Education and Urban Society, 47*(7), 830-848.  
doi:10.1177/0013124513508581
- Mowrer, R., & Davidson, W. (2011). Academic decision making and prospect theory. *Psychological Reports, 11*, 289-300. doi:10.2466/01.07.20.PR0.109.4.289-300
- Murphy, A. (2010). Women's and children's exposure to mass disaster and terrorist attacks. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing, 31*(1), 45-53.  
doi:10.3109/0161280903200035

- Murphy, J. (2011). Homeless children and youth at risk: The educational impact of displacement. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 16(1), 38-55.  
doi:10.1080/10824669.2011.554143
- Musa, P. (2011). Boko Haram history in Nigeria. *Journal of Arts and Social Science*, 4(2) 18-21 Retrieved from <http://www.sciepub.com/reference/106508>
- Nacos, B. L. (2012). *Terrorism and counterterrorism* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson.
- Nekvasil, T., & Cornell, D. (2015). Student threat assessment associated with safety in middle schools. *Journal of Threat Assessment and Management*, 2(2), 98-113.  
doi:10.1037/tam0000038
- Nevo, I., & Erev, I. (2012). On surprise, change, and the effect of recent outcomes. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 3(24). doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2012.00024
- Nmadu, S., Avidime, O., Oguntunde, V., Dashe, B., & Abdulkarim, M. (2010). Girl Child Education: Rising to the Challenge. *African Journal of Reproductive Health*, 14, 3. Retrieved from <http://www.ajol.info>
- Oarhe, O. (2013). Boko Haram insurgency in northern Nigeria and the vicious cycle of internal insecurity. *Small Wars & Insurgencies*, 24(3), 536-560.  
doi:10.1080/09592318.2013.802605
- Obi, C. (2015). Challenges of insecurity and terrorism in Nigeria: Implication for national development. *OIDA International Journal of Sustainable Development*, 8(2), 11-18.  
Retrieved from <http://ssrn.com/abstract=2586395>



- Ogwo, A. (2013). Sex differences in the manifestation of aggression on internally displaced Nigerian children. *Gender and Behaviour, 11*(2), 5586-5592.  
doi:10.1037/e503792013-001
- Ojochenemi, D., Asuelime, L., & Onapajo, H. (2015). The phenomenon of Boko Haram terrorism in Nigeria. *Springer Briefs in Political Science, 1*, 1-20.  
doi:10.1007/978-3-319-21230-2\_1
- Okemi, M. (2013). Boko Haram: A religious sect or terrorist organisation. *Global Journal of Politics and Law Research, 1*(1), 1-9. Retrived from  
<http://www.eajournals.org>
- Okpaga, A., Chijioke, S., & Innocent, O. (2013). Activities of Boko Haram and insecurity question in Nigeria. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review, 1*(9), 77-80. doi:10.12816/0002163
- Olabanji, A. (2015). Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria: Between Islamic fundamentalism, politics, and poverty. *African Security, 8*(1), 1-29.  
doi:10.1080/19392206.2015.998539
- Oladunjoye, P. & Omemu F. (2013). Effects of Boko Haram on school attendance in northern Nigeria. *British Journal of Education, 1* (2), 1-9. Retrieved from  
<http://www.ea-journals.org>
- Olowoselu, A. (2014). Historical analysis of Boko Haram insurgency on educational management in Northern Nigeria. *Global Journal of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences, 2*(10), 77- 83. Retrieved from <http://www.eajournals.org>

- Onyirioha, N. (2015). The role of chemistry education in internally displaced persons' resettlement. *International Advanced Journal of Teaching and Learning*, 1(1), 34-43. Retrieved from <http://www.iosrjournals.org>
- O'Rourke, J. (2015). Education for all Syrian refugees: The failure of the second-generation human rights during extraordinary crises. *Albany Law Review*, 78(2), 711-738. Retrieved from <http://www.lexisnexis.com>
- Orchard, P. (2010) Protection of internally displaced persons: Soft law as a norm-generating mechanism *Review of International Studies*, 36(2), 281-303.  
doi:10.1017/S0260210510000033
- Osborn, M., & Smith, J. (2015). The personal experience of chronic benign lower back pain: An interpretative phenomenological analysis. *British Journal of Pain*, 9(1), 65-83. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8287.1998.tb00556.x
- Osinuga, O. (2013). Nigeria, Boko Haram - cutting corners and the illusion of speedy conflict resolution. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*.  
doi:10.2139/ssrn.2260446
- Ouili, I. (2015). Armed conflicts, children's education and mortality: New evidence from Ivory Coast. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*.  
doi:10.2139/ssrn.2660879
- Park, N. (2011). Military children and families: Strengths and challenges during peace and war. *American Psychologist*, 66(1), 65-72. doi:10.1037/a0021249

- Parker, S., Standing, K., & Pant, B. (2013). Caught in the cross fire: Children's right to education during conflict- The case of Nepal 1996-2006. *Children & Society*, 27, 372-384. doi:10.1111/j.099-0860.2011.00412.x
- Pat-Horenczyk, R., Achituv, M., Rubenstein, A., Khodabakhsh, A., Brom D., & Chemtob, C. (2012). Growing up under fire: Building resilience in young children and parents exposed to ongoing missile attacks. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Trauma*, 5(4), 303-314. doi:10.1080/19361521.2012.719595
- Pat-Horenczyk, R., Brom, D., Baum, N., Benbenishty, R., Schiff, M., & Astor, R. (2011). A city-wide school-based model for addressing the needs of children exposed to terrorism and war. *Post-traumatic syndromes in children and adolescents*, 243-254. doi:10.1037/e517302011-138
- Pereda, N. (2013). Systematic review of the psychological consequences of terrorism among child victims. *International Review of Victimology*, 19(2), 181-199. doi:10.1177/0269758012472771
- Perlman, S., Cowan, B., Gewirtz, A., Haskett, M., & Stokes, L. (2012). Promoting positive parenting in the context of homelessness. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 82(3), 402-412. doi:10.1111/j.1939-0025.2012.01158.x
- Pérouse de Montclos, M. (2012). Boko Haram, terrorism, and Islamism in Nigeria: A religious uprising, a political contest, or a social protest? *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Journal*. doi:10.2139/ssrn.2282542
- Peters, M. (2014). Western education is sinful: Boko Haram and the abduction of Chibok

school girls. *Policy Futures in Education*, 12, 186.

doi:10.2304/pfie.2014.12.2.186

Pfefferbaum, B., Newman, E., & Nelson, S. (2014). Mental health interventions for children exposed to disasters and terrorism. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychopharmacology*, 24(1): 24-31. doi:10.1089/cap.2013.0061.

Pfefferbaum, B., Noffsinger, M., Wind, L., & Allen, J. (2014). Children's coping in the context of disasters and terrorism. *Journal of Loss and Trauma: International Perspectives on Stress & Coping*, 19 (1), 78-97.

doi:10.1080/15325024.2013.791797

Pfefferbaum, B., Tucker, P., Jeon-Slaughter, H., Allen, J., Hammond, R., Whittlesey, W., . . . Feng, Y. (2013). A pilot study of physiological reactivity in children and maternal figures who lost relatives in a terrorist attack. *Death Studies*, 37(5), 395-412. doi:10.1080/07481187.2011.649938

Pfefferbaum, B., Varma, V., Nitiéma, P., & Newman, E. (2014). Universal preventive interventions for children in the context of disasters and terrorism. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 23 (2) 363–382.

doi:10.1016/j.chc.2013.12.006

Pherali, T. (2013). Schooling in violent situations: The politicization of education in Nepal, before and after the 2006 peace agreement. *Prospects*, 43(1), 49-67.

doi.10.1007/s11125-012-9255-5

Philips, P., & Pohl, G. (2014). Prospect theory and terrorist choice. *Journal of Applied Economics*, 17, 139-160. doi:10.1016/s1514-0326(14)60006-4

- Pietkiewicz, I., & Smith, J. (2014). A practical guide to using interpretative phenomenological analysis in qualitative research psychology. *Psychological Journal*, 20(1), 7-14. doi:10.14691/CPJ.20.1.7
- Polusny, M., Ries, B., Meis, L., DeGarmo, D., McCormick-Deaton, C., Thuras, P., & Erbes, R. (2011). Effects of parents' experiential avoidance and PTSD on adolescent disaster-related posttraumatic stress symptomatology. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 25(2), 220-229. doi:10.1037/a0022945
- Pottinger, A. (2005). Children's experience of loss by parental migration in inner-city Jamaica. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 75(4) 485. doi:10.1037/0002-9432.75.4.485
- Priya, R. (2012). Trauma reactions, suffering, and healing among riot-affected internally displaced children of Gujarat, India: A qualitative inquiry. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 9(3), 189-209. doi:10.1080/14780887.2010.500353
- Putra, I., & Sukabdi, Z. (2013). Basic concepts and reasons behind the emergence of religious terror activities in Indonesia: An inside view. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 16, 83–91. doi:10.1111/ajsp.12001
- Qureshi, K. (2014). Sending children to school 'back home': Multiple moralities of Punjabi Sikh parents in Britain. *Journal of Moral Education*, 43(2), 213-226. doi:10.1080/03057240.2014.893866
- Richards, A., Ospina-Duque, J., Barrera-Valencia, M., Escobar-Rincón, J., Ardila-Gutiérrez, M., Metzler, T., & Marmar, C. (2011). Posttraumatic stress disorder, anxiety and depression symptoms, and psychosocial treatment needs in

Colombians internally displaced by armed conflict: A Mixed-Method Evaluation. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy*, 3(4), 384-393.  
doi:10.1037/a0022257

Rojas-Flores, L., Herrera, S., Currier, J., Lin, E., Kulzer, R., & Foy, D. (2013). We are raising our children in fear: War, community violence, and parenting practices in El Salvador. *International Perspectives in Psychology: Research, Practice, Consultation*, 2(4), 269-285. doi:10.1037/ipp0000009

Romanov, D., Zussman, A., & Zussman, N. (2012). Does terrorism demoralize? Evidence from Israel. *Economica*, 79: 183–198. doi:10.1111/j.1468-0335.2010.00868.x

Ron, P. (2014). Posttraumatic stress disorder among three-generation families in times of war: A comparison between Israeli Jewish and Arabs after the second Lebanon war (2006) and Cast Lead operation (2009). *Traumatology*, 20(4), 269-276.  
doi:10.1037/h0099863

Rout, G. (2011). Awareness and attitude of parents towards adolescence education in secondary schools. *Journal of Health Management*, 13(4), 463-475.  
doi:10.1177/097206341101300406

Rubin, J., & Wessely, S. (2013). The psychological and psychiatric effects of terrorism: Lessons from London. *Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 36(3), 339–350.  
doi:10.1016/j.psc.2013.05.008

- Saka, Y., & Cohen-Louck, K. (2014). From demonization to identification: How parents who lost children in terrorist attacks perceive the attacker. *Journal of Loss and Trauma, 19*(2), 137-154. doi:1080/15325024.2012.743323
- Sanni, O. (2015). Effects of insecurity and challenges on females' education in Nigeria. *African Journal for Psychological and Social Sciences Issues, 18*(3), 49-56.  
Retrieved from <http://www.ajpssi.org>
- Saraiya, A., Garakani, A., & Billick, S. (2013). Mental health approaches to child victims of acts of terrorism. *Psychiatric Quarterly, 84*(1), 115-124. Retrieved from <http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11126-012-9232-4>
- Schiff, M., Pat-Horenczyk, R., Benbenishty, R., Brom, D., Baum, N., & Astor, R. (2012). High school students' posttraumatic symptoms, substance abuse and involvement in violence in the aftermath of war. *Social Science & Medicine, 75*(7), 1321-1328. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2012.05.010
- Scholer, A., Zou, X., Fujita, K., Stroessner, J., & Higgins, T. (2014). When risk seeking becomes a motivational necessity. *Motivation Science, 1*(S), 91-115. doi:10.1037/2333-8113.1.S.91
- Scholten, M., & Read, D. (2014). Prospect theory and the "forgotten" fourfold pattern of risk preferences. *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty, 48*(1), 67-83. doi:10.1007/s11166-014-9183-2.
- Schueler, B., Capotosto, L., Bahena, S., McIntyre, J., & Gehlbach, H. (2014). Measuring parent perceptions of school climate. *Psychological Assessment, 26*(1), 314-320. doi:10.1037/a0034830

- Seidman, I. (2013). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education & the social sciences* (4<sup>th</sup>ed.) New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Shiv, B. & Fedorikhin, A. (1999). Heart and mind in conflict: The interplay of affect and cognition in consumer decision making. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 26(3), 278-292. doi:10.1086/209563
- Siham, Y., Shifra, S., & Boag S. (2012). When education meets conflict: Palestinian and Jewish-Israeli parental attitudes towards peace promoting education. *Journal of Peace Education*, 9(3). doi:10.1080/17400201.2012.698386
- Siriwardhana ,C., & Stewart, R. (2013). Forced migration and mental health: Prolonged internal displacement, return migration and resilience. *International Health*, 5(1), 19-23. doi:10.1093/inthealth/ihs014
- Sheikh, T., Mohammed, A., Agunbiade, S., Ike, J., Ebiti, W., & Adekeye , O. (2014). Psycho-trauma, psychosocial adjustment, and symptomatic post-traumatic stress disorder among internally displaced persons in Kaduna, Northwestern Nigeria. *Front Psychiatry*, 5, 127. doi:10.3389/fpsyt.2014.00127
- Shemyakina, O. (2011a). Education and armed conflict in Tajikistan. *HiCN Working Paper*, 106. doi:10.1596/1813-9450-5738
- Shemyakina, O. (2011b). The effect of armed conflict on accumulation of schooling: Results from Tajikistan. *Journal of Development Economics*, 95(2), 186-200. Retrieved from <http://www.hicn.org>



- Slone, M., & Mann, S. (2016). Effects of war, terrorism and armed conflict on young children: A systematic review. *Child Psychiatry & Human Development*, 47(6), 950-965. doi:10.1007/s10578-016-0626-7
- Smith, J. (1996). Beyond the divide between cognitive and discourse: Using interpretative phenomenological analysis in health psychology. *Psychology & Health*, 11, 261–271. doi:10.1080/08870449608400256
- Smith, J. (Ed.). (2015). *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). London, United Kingdom: Sage Publications.
- Smith, J., & Eatough, V. (2007). Interpretative phenomenological analysis. In E. Lyons & A. Coyle (Eds.), *Analysing qualitative data in psychology*. London, United Kingdom: Sage Publications. doi:10.4135/9781446207536.d10
- Smith, J., Flowers, P., & Larkin, M. (2009). *Interpretative phenomenological analysis: Theory, methods and research*. London, United Kingdom: Sage Publications.
- Smith, J., Michie, S., Stephenson, M., & Quarrell, O. (2002). Risk perception and decision making in candidates for genetic testing in Huntingdon's disease: An interpretative phenomenological analysis. *Journal of Health Psychology*, 7, 131–144. doi:10.1177/1359105302007002398
- Skuse, D. (2011). Children caught up in conflict. *Intentional Psychiatry*, 8,4, 81.  
Retrieved from <http://www.rcpsch.ac.uk/pdf/IPv8n4>.
- Stevens, A., & Schaller, J. (2011). Short-run effects of parental job loss on children's academic achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 30(2), 289-299.  
doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2010.10.002

- Taiwo, J. (2013). Transforming the Almajiri education for the benefit of the Nigerian society. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 3, 9, doi:10.5901/jesr.2013.v3n9p67
- Tao, A., Zhou, Q., & Wang, Y. (2010). Parental reactions to children's negative emotions: Prospective relations to Chinese children's psychological adjustment. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 24(2), 135-144. doi:10.1037/a0018974
- Tarabah A., Badr, L., Usta, J., & Doyle, J. (2015). Exposure to violence and children's desensitization attitudes in Lebanon. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. doi:10.1177/0886260515584337
- Tatar, M. Amram S., & Kelman, T. (2011). Help-seeking behaviors of adolescents in relation to terrorist attacks: the perceptions of Israeli parents. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 39(2), 131-147. doi:10.1080/03069885.2010.547052
- Tay, A., Rees, S., Kareth, M., & Silove, D. (2016). Associations of adult separation anxiety disorder with conflict-related trauma, ongoing adversity, and the psychosocial disruptions of mass conflict among West Papuan refugees. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 86(2), 224-235. doi:10.1037/ort0000126
- Taylor, S., & Sidhu, R. K. (2012). Supporting refugee students in schools: what constitutes inclusive education? *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 16(1), 39-56. doi:10.1080/13603110903560085
- Terwase, I., Abdul-Talib, A., Zengeni, K., & Terwase, J. (2015). The psychological trauma on Boko Haram victims in Nigeria: Conflict resolution perspective.

*Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(6).

doi:10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n6s4p519

- Timmermans, H. (2010). On the (Ir) relevance of prospect theory in modeling uncertainty in travel decisions. *European Journal of Transport and Infrastructure Research*, 10(4), 368-384. Retrieved from [http://www.ejtir.tudeift.nl/issuses/2010\\_04/index.asp](http://www.ejtir.tudeift.nl/issuses/2010_04/index.asp)
- Trott, W. (2013). Prospect theory: Contributing to understanding actors, causes and consequences of conflicts in Africa. *International Journal of Security & Development*, 2(2), 1-15. doi:10.5334/sta.cd
- Tuason, T., Güss, D., & Carroll, L. (2012). The disaster continues: A qualitative study on the experiences of displaced hurricane Katrina survivors. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 43(4), 288-297. doi:10.1037/a0028054
- Tuchner, M., Meiner, Z., Parush, S., & Hartman-Maeir, A. (2010). Relationships between sequelae of injury, participation, and quality of life in survivors of terrorist attacks. *Occupation, Participation and Health*, 30, 29–38. doi:10.3928/15394492-20091214-05
- Tufford, L., & Newman, P. (2012). Bracketing in qualitative research. *Qualitative Social Work*, 11(1), 80-96. doi:10.1177/1473325010368316
- Uguak, U. (2010). The importance of psychological needs for the post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and displaced children in schools. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 37(4), 340-351. Retrieved from <http://www.questia.com>

- Ugwumba, E., & Odom, T. (2015). Boko Haram insurgency: A peril to achievement of education for all in Nigeria. *International Journal of Education Learning and Development*, 3(1),1-11. Retrieved from [www.eajournal.org](http://www.eajournal.org)
- UNICEF (2015). Insecurity threatens gains in girls' education: Parents unwilling to enroll their daughters in school in the northeast. Retrieved from <http://ajpssi.org>
- Unterhalter, E., Heslop, J., & Mamedu, A. (2013). Girls claiming education rights: Reflections on distribution, empowerment and gender justice in Northern Tanzania and Northern Nigeria *International Journal of Educational Development*, 33(6), 566-575. doi:10.1016/j.ijedudev.2013.05.007
- Ur, F., & Vanin, P. (2015). Terrorism risk and democratic preferences in Pakistan. *SSRN, Social Science Electronic Publishing*. doi:10.2139/ssrn.2681110
- Uzodike, O., & Maiangwa, B. (2012). Boko Haram terrorism in Nigeria: Causal factors and central problematic. *Africa Renaissance: Terrorism in Africa*, 9(1), 91–118. Retrieved from <http://jds.sagepub.com>
- Uzodike, O., & Onapajo, H. (2012). Boko Haram terrorism in Nigeria: Man, the State and International system. *African Security Review*, 21(3) 24-39. doi:10.1080/10246029.2012.687693
- Voors, M., Nillesen, E., Verwimp, P., Bulte, E., Lensink, R., & Van-Soest, D. (2012). Violent conflict and behavior: A field experiment in Burundi. *American Economic Review*, 102, 941–964. doi:10.1257/aer.102.2.941

- Waheed, A., & Ahmad, M. (2012). Socioeconomic impacts of terrorism on affected families in Lahore, Pakistan. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 21(2), 202-222. doi:10.1080/10926771.2012.639052
- Wang, X., & Johnson, J. (2012). A tri-reference point theory of decision making under risk. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 141(4), 743-756. doi:10.1037/a0027415
- Walasek, L., & Stewart, N. (2015). How to make loss aversion disappear and reverse: Tests of the decision by sampling origin of loss aversion. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 144(1) 7-11. doi:10/0371xge0000039
- Walker, A. (2012). Early marriage in Africa—Trends, harmful effects and interventions. *African journal of reproductive health*, 16(2), 231-240. Retrieved from <http://www.ajol.info>
- Waxman, D. (2011). Living with terror, not living in terror: The impact of chronic terrorism on Israeli society. *Perspectives on Terrorism*, 5(5-6). Retrieved from <http://www.terrorismanalysts.com>
- Weissman, H., Busch, G., & Schouten, R. (2014). Introduction to this issue: The evolution of terrorism from 1914 to 2014. *Behavioral Sciences & the Law*, 32(3), 259-262. doi:10.1002/bsl.2124
- Whyte, S., Babiiha, M., Mukyala, R., & Meinert, L. (2012). Remaining internally displaced: Missing links to security in Northern Uganda. *Journal of Refugee Studies*. doi:10.1093/jrs/fes040
- Wilkinson, P. (2006). *The Handbook of Security*. Basingstoke: Palgrave.

- Wright, A., & Plasterer, R. (2012). Beyond basic education: Exploring opportunities for higher learning in Kenyan refugee camps. *Refuge: Canada's Journal on Refugees*, 27(2). Retrieved from <http://www.refuge.journals.yorku.ca>
- Yaacov, B.(2015). Positive school climate as a resilience factor in armed conflict zones. *Psychology of Violence*, 5(4), 393-401. doi:10.1037/a0039600
- Yahav, R. (2011). Exposure of children to war and terrorism: A Review. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Trauma*, 4(2), 90-108. doi:10.1080/19361521.2011.577395
- Yakubu, Y. (2012). Boko Haram activities in northern Nigeria. *Voice*, 4(2), 13 – 16. Retrieved from [www.ea-journals.org](http://www.ea-journals.org)
- Yechiam, E., & Hochman, G. (2013). Losses as modulators of attention: Review and analysis of the unique effects of losses over gains. *Psychological Bulletin*, 139(2), 497-518. doi:10.1037/a0029383
- Young, D., Goodie, A., Hall, D., & Wu, E. (2012). Decision making under time pressure, modeled in a prospect theory framework. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 118(2), 179–188. doi:10.1016/j.obhdp.2012.03.005
- Yusuf, O. (2013). Harvests of violence - Neglect of basic rights and the Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria. *Critical Studies on Terrorism*, 6, 371-390. doi:10.1080/17539153.2013.835528
- Zeisberger, S., Vrecko, D., & Langer, T.(2012). Measuring the time stability of prospect theory preferences. *Theory and Decision*, 72(3), 359-386. doi:10.1007/s11238-010-9234-3
- Zenn, J. & Pearson, E. (2014). Women, gender and the evolving tactics of Boko Haram

*Journal of Terrorism Research*, 5(1). doi:10.15664/jtr.828

- Zhong, L., & Zhou, G. (2011). Chinese immigrant parents' involvement in their children's school education: High interest but low action. *Brock Education*, 20(2), 4-21. Retrieved from <http://www.researchgate.net>
- Zou, X., Scholer, A., & Higgins, E. (2014). In pursuit of progress: Promotion motivation and risk preference in the domain of gains. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 106(2), 182-201. doi:10.1037/a0035391
- Zumve, S., Ingyoroko, M., & Akuva, I. (2013). Terrorism in contemporary Nigeria: A latent function of official corruption and State neglect. *European Scientific Journal*, 9(8) 124. Retrieved from [www.eujournal.org](http://www.eujournal.org)

## Appendix A: Letter to Director of NEMA

10-31-16

Director of NEMA  
Region of visited camps

Dear Sir,

My name is James Urien, and I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University. I am conducting dissertation research on terrorism and parents' experience of children's schooling in Nigeria: A phenomenological study. There are a vast number of studies detailing the negative effects of terrorism and the plight of displaced parents. However, the experiences of non-Muslim displaced parents concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters are unknown. This research will provide insight into the lived experience of non-Muslim displaced parents towards sending their teenage daughters to school in Nigeria.

Your assistance in conducting this much-needed research is important. If willing, I will want you to grant me access to displaced parents with teenage children and introduce me to them in a scheduled meeting. After the introduction, I would like to meet with them privately to discuss the nature of this study. The participants of this study need to be parents and not guardians, who have at least one female child between 13-18 years old. The participants are free to choose whether or not to participate in the study, and they can discontinue participation at anytime. Information provided by the participants will be kept strictly confidential.

I would welcome a telephone call from you to discuss any question you may have concerning this study and your role in connecting the researcher to the potential participants. I can be reached at (+234) 803-7949001 or e-mailed at [james.urien@waldenu.edu](mailto:james.urien@waldenu.edu).

Sincerely,

James Urien  
Doctoral Candidate  
Walden University



## Appendix B: Interview Protocol

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Location: \_\_\_\_\_

Name of  
Interviewer: \_\_\_\_\_

Name of  
Interviewee: \_\_\_\_\_

What is your age \_\_\_\_\_ How many children do you have \_\_\_\_\_

Gender and ages of children \_\_\_\_\_

Duration in camp \_\_\_\_\_

1. What are your thoughts and feelings about Boko Haram?
2. What is your experience of terrorism?
3. How has it affected your life and family?
4. What are your views about the value of educating your daughter?
5. How does the experience of terrorism feature in your decisions about the schooling of your daughter?
6. What is the most challenging aspect of Boko Haram attacks for you concerning the schooling of your teenage daughter?
7. What are your thoughts, feelings, hopes, and fears concerning the continued education of your daughter in the face of the security risk?
8. What are your thoughts about the security of schools in Nigeria?
9. What are your feelings about the protection or safety of your teenage daughter and her schooling?

10. How do you feel since your daughter is not in school?
11. How important is the schooling of your daughter, and why?
12. What are the things you would consider if you are to send your daughter to school?
13. What things do you think should be in place to facilitate the schooling of your teenage daughter?
14. How would you describe the effects of Boko Haram on your daughter's schooling?
15. What do you think your daughter feels about schooling at this time?
16. How does this make you feel?
17. How does this influence your decision about sending her to school?

**Closing question:** What else would you like to share about your decision(s) concerning the schooling of your teenage daughter?

## Appendix C: Letter to IDP Camp Counselor

10-31-2016

Office of Counselor (NEMA)  
Visited camp

Dear Ma,

My name is James Urien, and I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University. I am conducting dissertation research on terrorism and parents' experience of children's schooling in Nigeria: A phenomenological study. There are a vast number of studies detailing the negative effects of terrorism and the plight of displaced parents. However, the experiences of non-Muslim displaced parents concerning the schooling of their teenage daughters are unknown. This research will provide insight into the lived experience of non-Muslim displaced parents regarding sending their teenage daughters to school in Nigeria.

In conducting this research, interviewing participants is crucial. The participants of this study need to be parents and not guardians, who have at least one female child between the ages of 13-18 years. The participants are free to choose whether or not to participate and can discontinue participation at any time. Information provided by the participants will be kept strictly confidential. There is no identified harm associated with the study. However, I have reflected on the distress this might cause the participants.

I will inform the participants that they are free to stop the interviews if they experience any difficulty such as distress or trauma that causes emotional breakdown or uncomfortable feelings. If by chance a participant experiences difficulties during the interview, he/she will be referred to your office as the counselor acting as the support system. If any of the potential participants are already undergoing counseling sessions, I will need a letter signed by you saying they can participate in the study.

I would welcome a telephone call from you to discuss any question you may have concerning this study and your role as a counselor in the relationship between the researcher and potential participants. I can be reached at (+234) 803-7949001 or emailed at [james.urien@waldenu.edu](mailto:james.urien@waldenu.edu).

Sincerely,

James Urien  
Doctoral Candidate  
Walden University

## Appendix D: Confidentiality Agreement

**Name of Signer:**

During the course of my activity in collecting data for this research: **Terrorism and Parents' Experience of Children's Schooling in Nigeria: A Phenomenological Study**, I will have access to information, which is confidential and should not be disclosed. I acknowledge that the information must remain confidential, and that improper disclosure of confidential information can be damaging to the participant.

By signing this Confidentiality Agreement I acknowledge and agree that:

1. I will not disclose or discuss any confidential information with others, including friends or family.
2. I will not in any way divulge, copy, release, sell, loan, alter or destroy any confidential information except as properly authorized.
3. I will not discuss confidential information where others can overhear the conversation. I understand that it is not acceptable to discuss confidential information even if the participant's name is not used.
4. I will not make any unauthorized transmissions, inquiries, modification or purging of confidential information.
5. I agree that my obligations under this agreement will continue after termination of the job that I will perform.
6. I understand that violation of this agreement will have legal implications.
7. I will only access or use systems or devices I'm officially authorized to access and I will not demonstrate the operation or function of systems or devices to unauthorized individuals.

Signing this document, I acknowledge that I have read the agreement and I agree to comply with all the terms and conditions stated above.

**Signature:****Date:**