Natural Resource Governance, Environmental Change and Human Security in Nigeria

**Abstract**

Globally, there have been several discussions about the connection or relationship between environmental change, natural resources, and security. Aside from the detrimental effects it has on livelihood in the majority of the world's current regions, many academics have identified environmental change, or climate change, as one of the primary causes of conflict and insecurity. Thus, this study's main goal is to investigate how natural resources, environmental change, and human security are related in Nigeria's Niger-Delta region. For this study, a qualitative approach to data collecting was used, utilizing journals, books, conference proceedings, and online resources. The study's theoretical foundation was provided by the resource curse hypothesis and the frustration-aggression theory. Content and descriptive analyses were performed on the acquired data. Nonetheless, the analysis showed that natural resource governance, environmental change, and security are all symbolically related. However, some of the advocates in the fight for resource management continued to act avaricious, notwithstanding genuine incidents of carelessness and negligence that initially gave rise to the grievance. Because of the significant effects that inadequate resource governance and environmental problems have on the region's peace and security, it is important to recognize that addressing these challenges is not just vital but also essential. The report suggests that while addressing resource-related conflicts, the government give humanitarian assistance equal weight with upholding the law. The study's policy implications assert that policymakers worldwide can use it to inform how policies are administered.

**Keywords:** Natural Resource Governance, Conflict, Environmental Change, Human Security, Niger- Delta, Nigeria.

# Introduction

“…The degree to which habitats contribute to human safety as well as the chances for successful preservation of nature in the future are significantly shaped by the efficiency, efficacy, equity, and justice of natural resource governance systems. Both people and biodiversity would gain from improved governance of natural resources that upholds rights and the allocation of authority and responsibility. Thus, governance is a necessary predicate for a just world that honors, cherishes, and preserves nature as well as helps to realize the objectives of sustainable development, global peace, and security” (Natural Resource Charter, 2014).

The connection or relationship between natural resources, security, and environmental change has generally been the subject of several arguments. Aside from the detrimental effects it has on livelihood in the majority of the world's current regions, many academics have identified environmental change, or climate change, as one of the primary causes of conflict and insecurity. Concern over how climate change affects war, peace, and security in Africa has grown in recent years. Among the main issues preventing peace and security on the continent today are environmental change and degradation (Stanley and Philani 2021: 1–13). Environmental scholars have recognized how government policies and procedures affect environmental outcomes such as growth and development, livelihoods, conservation, and sustainable use of natural resources, which translates into environmental preservation, conservation, and Ansell and Torfing 2016, Cox et al. 2016: 45–56. Although there are frameworks and backgrounds for these issues (Binder et al. 2013:26, Torfing 2016 et al. 2018, Nunan 2019), their proponents find it more difficult to envision or explain the occurrence of unfavorable consequences or threats (Oyelami, et al. 2023).   
The United Nations Environmental Programme asserted, when looking for fresh group approaches to efficient global environmental governance, that:

“…..The management of the many and varied natural resources on our planet is progressively become more difficult and complex. Managing environmental threats, particularly those that cross political borders like air pollution and biodiversity damage, will undoubtedly require new global, regional, national, and international responses involving a wide range of stakeholders in our globalized world of interconnected unified nations, economies, and people. Developing solutions for environmental concerns requires effective environmental governance or management at many levels. The organizations, protocols, practices, laws, and regulations that describe how people interact with the environment are collectively referred to as environmental governance.Every actor or stakeholder who has an impact on the environment is taken into account by good environmental governance. Collaboration between governments, non-governmental organizations, the commercial sector, and civil society is essential to establishing efficient governance that will contribute to the transition to a more secure and sustainable future for all” ( UNEP,2016:2).

Global collaboration and partnership in the fight against environmental dangers are guaranteed by effective environmental governance. It is the duty of a nation's government to maintain environmental stability (Chukwudi, Gberevbie, Abasilim & Imhonopi, 2019). Every individual in every community has a right to environmental safety and protection. "All citizens; both male and female, young or old, Black or White, shall have the right to a universal and satisfactory environment favourable to their development including environmental safety and protection," reads Article 24 of the African Charter on Human and People's Rights. Unfortunately, this has not been the case in Africa, where the effects of environmental change are combining with a number of other factors to fuel conflict and violence, including poverty, marginalization, inequality, exclusivity, and poor governance (African Center for Strategic Studies-ACSS, 2021).

In a similar vein, Ehiane & Moyo (2021) contend that social inequality, poverty, bad governance, political marginalization, poor educational and health systems, climatic change, and institutional fragility are the root causes of the multiple vulnerabilities associated with conflict and insecurity.   
According to Ide, Johnson, Barnett, Krampe, Le Billon, Maertens, Uexkull, and Vélez-Torres (2023), there is a significant correlation between environmental change and conflicts. However, most of the time, environmental change is not the direct cause of conflicts; rather, it works in tandem with other factors like marginalization, poverty, and injustice. The UNHCR Global Report (2018: 1-131) asserted that the extraordinary number of displaced persons and refugees in Africa and Asia each year is over 21.5 million, owing to disasters linked to climate change.

The detrimental and destructive consequences of environmental shifts from the country's north to its south disrupt people's everyday lives either directly or indirectly, affecting both the Nigerian government and populace. According to Olajide et al. (2018), a significant portion of Nigeria's population depends entirely on nature for their economic and social activities, which makes them more susceptible to the negative effects of climate change.

Amobi and Onyishi (2015: 1–12) claim that because of its unique ecology and geographic position, Nigeria is now extremely vulnerable to the unpredictable effects of climate change. These changes frequently fuel insecurity as northern herdsmen migrate to the middle belt and southern Nigeria in quest of grazing land for their cattle. According to Daudu, Osimen, and Shuaibu (2023) this kind of movement has led to violent conflict that has broken the calm and harmony or, better yet, created tension and anxiety that has affected community cohesion and livelihood sustainability. Communities have grown more insecure as a result of competition and rivalry over the limited and unfair distribution of these natural resources.

Because of climate change challenges like biodiversity loss, land degradation, desert encroachment, and flooding throughout the nation, Olajide et al. (2018: 173–1966) believe that environmental change has the potential to exacerbate problems or misery for Nigerians if appropriate measures are not put in place, mostly in the human security dimension Oyelami, et al. 2023). They added that Nigeria as a whole has not truly come to terms with the fact that environmental change poses dangers to human security. It's true that environmental change in Nigeria has exacerbated the ongoing and severe decline in human well-being.

Thus, the main goal of this essay is to investigate how natural resources, environmental change, and human security are related in Nigeria's Niger-Delta region. Despite the fact that the study aims to answer two key questions: First, how much does the Niger-Delta region of Nigeria's environmental change affect human security? Second, how much has the control of natural resources contributed to various forms of violence and insecurity in Nigeria's Niger-Delta region? The article aims to determine the policy implications for development practitioners and policymakers in Nigeria about sustained peace and security in Nigeria, namely Niger-Delta, through excellent resource governance and best environmental practices. The paper is structured into six sections in order to accomplish these goals.The study's major topics are explained in part two, while section one serves as an introduction. Developing conceptual connections between environmental change, human security, and natural resource governance in Nigeria is the main task of this part. The theoretical framework used for the paper's analysis is presented in Section.

The impact of environmental change and natural resource governance on human security in the Niger-Delta region is the subject of section four. As the study's conclusion, section five provides some policy recommendations on how Nigeria might effectively address the threats that environmental change poses to human security in the Niger-Delta region.

# Clarification and review of key concepts

Concepts clarified in this section include natural resource governance, good governance, environmental change and human security.

# Natural Resource Governance:

The term "natural resources" often refers to land, water, fuel, minerals, and any other natural resources that are amenable to human control. The term "natural resource management" refers to the practices, organizations, and methods that demonstrate how authority and control over natural resources are applied, how choices are made, and how environmental occupants take use of and profit from natural resource management (Springer, 2016). He goes on to say that the goal of effective resource governance is to make better, more robust decisions about the use of natural resources and to guarantee that the benefits of nature are distributed fairly. He also says that the preservation of ecosystems and biodiversity must be justified in light of the needs of the local communities affected (Springer, 2016).

According to him, resource governance ought to be positioned in the middle of the local communities where resource extraction and mining occur and the actual natural resource.

In light of the overuse of natural resources, the environmental damage caused by intensive industrial and agricultural processes, and the harm done to local residents, the governance of natural resources is becoming increasingly contentious (Akamkpa Quarry Limited, 2020).   
The benefits, provisions, and usefulness of resources have a direct impact on the environment and its components, which is why the use of land is primarily focused on natural resource control, particularly in the areas of management, wildlife conservation, and ecological development (Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations-FAOUN, 2024).

Aside from natural resource control or management, environmental conservation also gave humans a lot of weight. Exploitation of natural resources, including commercial farming, forestry, mining, monoculture farming, and dam construction, has a major negative impact on the community's residents. For this reason, indigenous self-determination and tenure rights are essential components of natural resource management. Unfortunately, many nations' national legal systems still fail to provide the required acknowledgment of native lands and environmental management to their residents (Majid Cooke & Vaz, 2011).

The UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP), for example, states that occupants should not be forcibly removed from their lands and that, in the event that relocation is necessary, it must be done with the consent of the peoples involved and be accompanied by a just and fair compensation. However, despite the existence of international treaties that support indigenous self-determination and self-management of natural resources, compliance rates remain low (United Nations, 2007).

In a similar vein, the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) recognizes that traditional cultures are vital to the preservation and diversity of the population and that people in these communities have a close relationship with their land (Majid Cooke & Vaz, 2011). According to observations, the rights and freedoms of indigenous people and any group impacted by the exploitation of natural resources or conflicting land uses must be protected, and this requires access to impartiality and consultation.

# An efficient system for managing natural resources should give communities or residents engaged the correct managerial or authorized choice in cases where the right to consultation is denied. The UN Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-Making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters, or the Aarhus Convention, introduces the three (3) pillars of public participation—the right to access information, public participation in decision-making, and access to justice—as a way to empower individuals to protect their own environments with an eye toward environmental conservation (UNECE, 1998).

# Concept of Human Security:

The term "human security" has simply shifted the focus of security studies from states to people by asserting that people, not nations, are the point of reference or the entity to be safeguarded as well as the aim of security (Kerr 2013:106). Human security derives from the human person; the essential essence that needs to be safeguarded and is intentionally shielding. It acknowledges that situations far outside of people's control pose a deadly threat to individuals and communities. Human security proponents disagree over whether threats should be given priority or should be securitized, even though they agree that people are the referent object.

According to the broad school of thought, dangers to human security encompass more than only acts of violence. They define human security as having both freedom from want and freedom from fear, which is consistent with the UNDP's definition of human development. Human security, as it pertains to the Third World and underdevelopment, is defined by Newman (2010) as the safeguarding of individuals from grave and potentially fatal risks, irrespective of the sources of the threats—natural or man-made, internal or external to a state, direct or structural.

According to the UN Human Development Report (1994), sees ‘human security as the:

*…means that the citizens can exercise their choices of safely freely and that they should also be self-confident that their prospects and opportunities of today are not completely lost out tomorrow’. The report further sees human security from two different standpoints. First, safety from threats such as poverty, hunger, disease and suppression; second, protection from unexpected and hurtful interferences in the forms of daily activities of life*

*– whether during activities at homes, at work or in the communities there must be freedom from fear and freedom from want at no cost. In additionally, that when people notice a threat to their live or environments, they regularly become prejudiced.*

Protecting a vital component of every human life in a way that promotes human freedoms and fulfillment will therefore be the main goal of human security (Kerr 2013: 107). Economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security, and political security are the seven categories into which the UNDP report divided the threats to human security.  
According to the research, because human well-being and individuals are interdependent, they may at some point be threatened or face several threats.

# In a similar vein, efforts to "protect the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and human fulfillment" are described as human security by the UN Commission on Human Security (UNCHS) in 2003. Human security is distinct from the human development approach in that the former places greater emphasis on the security of the individual and the threats that they face, including identity theft, political repression, and various forms of violence, while the latter is more concerned with the State. The values of human development to their surroundings were emphasized by Ayankoya and Osimen (2023), and all of these can be accomplished in a stable setting.

# Environmental Change:

Conversely, observable changes in environmental variables including temperature, humidity, sunshine, and rainfall are considered indicators of environmental change. Typically, Tyokumbur (2010) states that it is "used to describe variations in the weather condition and ecological conditions of a place over a period of time as a result of environmental resource use by man." The earth's biosphere has undoubtedly undergone observable changes and adjustments, as claimed by numerous scholars. According to (Abasilim et al.2010), these modifications and shifts have had a profound and unprecedented impact on man and his surroundings.In a similar vein, Osimen, Ayankoya, and Udoh (2023) have shown the strong connection between environment and security. In most parts of the world today, environmental change is mostly caused by human overuse of the environment; Tyokumbur further stressed that:

anthropogenic activities or human activities such as fossil fuel combustion, bush or wood burning, crop cultivation before paddies, livestock (cattle) farming, industrial and use of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) as spray propellants, fire hydrants, frothing agents and heat transfer media in refrigerators and air conditioning system are some of the activities that have impacted negatively on climate (Tyokumbur, 2010:72).

According to him, there are many different ways that people can be environmentally insecure, including where they live and the types of environmental changes that occur there, how vulnerable they are to environmental changes-caused harm, and how well-adapted they are to them. He provided an insightful analysis, drawing parallels between Australian farmers and those in several Third World nations, and elucidated the ways in which environmental insecurity is shaped more by social factors than by natural ones. Australian farmers share many of their Third World colleagues' environmental challenges, such as weak soils and erratic weather patterns. In contrast to their counterparts in the Third World, Australian farmers, however, consume relatively little of their own produce, with the majority going to market. Other advantages include the widespread use and availability of irrigation, modern and effective food transport and storage systems, easily affordable fertilizers and pesticides, a high degree of government support, and a variety of off-farm income options.

Consequently, even though they could lose some cattle and revenue, Australian farmers do not go hungry during dry spells. Climate change is expected to increase climate variability for both Australian farmers and their counterparts in the Third World, but it will become increasingly difficult for Third World farmers to sustain adequate food for themselves and the population. The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) released the Global Environmental Outlook (GEO 6) in 2019. It is evident from this and other publications by the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) that the increasing insecurity in society is caused by natural resources like food and water, which put at risk areas that could become habitable and lead to mass migration, which in turn causes problems with global security. Environmental change has many negative effects on human life. It has been said that environmental change will be extremely destructive, posing hazards to both man and his environment and causing worldwide crises. The temperature of the atmosphere has increased due to global warming, which might have a serious negative influence on the variability of rainfall, the thawing of ice glaciers and polar ice, and the total disruption of biodiversity in many parts of the planet. The sustainability of the environment and the existence of humans are now threatened by it.

# Theoretical Framework

**Environmental and Human Security Issues in Nigeria: The Resource Curse Thesis Analysis**

This section examines pertinent theories to explain how Nigeria's human security is affected by mismanaged natural resources.

The resource curse hypothesis serves as the main foundation for this essay, which is supported by the frustration aggression theory. One of the most pertinent hypotheses that connects the existence of natural resources to violent conflict and insecurity in most of the world is the resource curse theory, or thesis. According to Humphreys et al. (2007), the resource curse thesis, also referred to as the paradox of plenty and abundant, explains why governments in resource-rich states are often disappointed or frustrated when their natural resource treasure is not fully utilized for the benefit of the public or the needs of the welfare state. While one might anticipate that these resource-rich nations would have better economic growth and development, in reality, these nations typically have lower rates of socio-political and economic stability, higher rates of conflict, and political tyranny.

Collier and Hoeffler (2005: 625–633) asserted that nations endowed with natural resources are more likely to experience violent conflict and went on to say that greed is typically a major contributing cause to these conflicts. However, according to the Natural Resource Charter (2014), nations that are wealthy in natural resources have both possibilities and challenges. When employed effectively, they can lead to increased opportunity and prosperity for both current and future generations; yet, when mishandled or squandered, they can cause financial instability and violent conflict.

According to Siegle (2008: 45–55), nations endowed with natural resources have more pressing political, social, and economic problems than nations devoid of such resources. The big-push theory, which holds that there is a greater likelihood of economic growth and development the more resources available, is immediately challenged by the resource-curse idea. According to the resource-curse theory, economic growth—which is typically expressed in terms of GDP—declines as an excessive reliance on exports of natural resources decreases (Sachs and Warner, 2001: 45). The idea goes on to say that riches derived from natural resources might lead to economic stagnation rather than fostering growth and progress. This argument explains why Nigeria's economy has not improved despite the country's easy access to natural resources.

Nigeria is the seventh oil producing country in the world and one of the front liners in the continent of Africa often nick-named “The Giant of Africa”, yet the country is rated one of the poorest in terms of human capital development and technological advancement compared to many other countries in the world. In 2017 for instance, the UNDP rated Nigeria amongst the countries in the world (citizens) living below dollar per day, low income earners, low savings, low investment, mass unemployment, unprecedented level of poverty,

insecurity among others (UNDP, 2017). Nigeria situation is like a story of “a man who lives beside a river, yet has no water to bath" the abundant natural resources such as Fossil oil, Gold, Timber, among others have not reflected on the life of the citizens or commoners in the country.

According to the hypothesis, only a small number of resource-rich nations have been able to successfully convert their abundance in natural resources into economic development and growth. According to this study, there is a "curse of the natural resource" since, like Nigeria, many developing nations have not been able to grow their economies. The relationship between natural resources and economic growth was first studied by Sachs and Warner (2001:38). Since then, a large body of literature has examined the existence of and potential mechanisms through which an abundance of natural resources can have a negative impact on economic growth and exacerbate conflict and insecurity. According to the hypothesis, natural resources, such as those found in the Niger Delta region, can readily spark and maintain internal conflicts as various communities vie for control of the resources. In addition, the agitators have the option of using natural resources to pay for their weapons purchases.

Compared to non-oil producing countries, oil-producing countries have experienced three times as many civil wars in recent decades. Numerous academics have attested to this, citing the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Nigerian Niger Delta, Iraq, Libya, and Angola as evidence for their claims. This is also true for international communities, as certain instances of Iraq's invasion of Iran and Kuwait have shown.

The hypothesis goes on to say that the mining and development of natural resources is typically the cause of social and environmental issues. The point-source aspect of extractive industries, according to Sachs and Warner (2001: 38), frequently causes issues when attempting to equalize or balance the requirements of the surrounding communities and surroundings. The risks that arose during or after the extraction or exploitation of these resources are currently one of the biggest issues facing the host communities. Apart from the risks that befall the host communities, disputes over the allocation and payment of compensation for resources like land, water, and minerals invariably arise between the communities and mining companies, on the one hand, and the communities and government/extraction companies, on the other. In addition, extraction jobs typically draw in large crowds of people, which may or may not result in a rise in employment because there are always more individuals looking for work. Due to this strain, relationships in the social, cultural, and economic spheres may become strained, which typically leads to conflict and insecurity within the community. Environmental issues encompass a wide range of issues, according to Rodrik (2002), such as:

*“dust from mining, scarring of the landscape, noise from process operation, contamination of hydric sources from waste rock and tailing disposal, massive use of water in the extractive process, gas flaring causing health problems and wasteful CO2 emissions and seismic disturbances. Again, several of the political and economic problems highlights above can result in the violation of human rights. The agreement between the government and the mining company could resolve these problems and elucidate whose duty it is to regulate these impacts. The resource curse is not inevitable because of the theoretical meaning of the term, which is often refers to as the many challenges described above as “challenges associated with natural resource extraction or mining.”*

The resource-curse theory, however, focused on economic expansion and advancement as the primary drivers of conflict and instability in the majority of the world. Numerous channeling techniques have been developed by the resource curse speculative literature to relate resource reliance with growth failure. A single form of natural resource-based economy, according to Mavrotas, Murshed, and Torres (2006: 387-93), impedes institutional development, which is frequently gauged by the effectiveness of the government and the degree of democracy. Murshed (2002: 387-93) contended that rationalizations for appropriate resource administration typically draw a contrast between grievance and greed. These can be interpreted in terms of motivation or inspiration, either for individuals or for groups. A sense of injustice in the treatment of a social group serves as the basis for grievances. A group of indigenous people may become motivated to seek justice if they are excluded from the benefits of the riches of natural resources in their area. John Dollard's frustrated aggression theory (1939: 209) provides a more compelling explanation for this..

Frustration Aggression Theory

According to the theory of frustration aggression, hostility arises when someone's attempts to achieve a goal are obstructed, rejected, or otherwise frustrated. It makes an effort to provide an explanation for why violence occurs. According to the hypothesis, aggressiveness is sparked by frustration, but when the source of the irritation is unassailable, the animosity shifts to an innocent target. (Davies, 1962) made the following arguments in an effort to explain conflict and aggression:

*…the difference between what people feel they want or deserve and what they actually gets the want or get-ratio and difference between expected need satisfaction and actual need satisfaction. The theory tries to explain or create a linkage between development and conflict. when development does not satisfy the expectations of the people it tends to produce conflicts; more so, as Nigeria operate the “logic of federalism” that is, the state being in charge of distribution of all resources and allocation, failure of the state to provide for the need of the people more often serves as exacerbating factor for conflicts (Davies, 1962*).

# When one's expectations are not met, people typically feel compelled to confront those they hold accountable for not fulfilling their desires. Therefore, people often use hostility and violence to vent their frustrations at the people they hold accountable for their problems, but greed is an avaricious urge that serves as the driving force behind crime. Because of official denial or neglect, as occurs in many resource-rich nations, certain groups may feel compelled to resort to violent means to obtain resources. For example, the resource-based violence in Nigeria's Niger Delta is blamed on government indifference.

# Linking Natural Resource Governance and Conflict in the Niger Delta Region

The relationship between natural resource governance, environmental problems, and conflict in Nigeria's Niger Delta was the main topic of this section.   
One of the main regions in Africa most impacted by violent conflict is Nigeria's Niger Delta. Situated in the oil-rich Gulf of Guinea in West Africa, it is home to over 20 million people. In addition, the region has one of Africa's worst environmental problems, which has been made worse by pollution for more than 20 years. August 2009 saw widespread and violent clashes in the region between militant groups, MNCs, and the government (Ajala, 2016).

Although the region is the primary oil-producing area in the nation, reports place it among the poorest because it has not benefited from the oil's enormous fortune through production. Environmental deterioration has made it harder for the local population to support their way of life economically, depriving many of them of their primary sources of income—farming and fishing.

Although the region's oil resources provide more than 90% of the nation's foreign exchange earnings and more than 70% of federal government revenues, ongoing violence and disruptions to oil exploration have hampered development, which has improved human security in the area. Along with times of instability and bloody warfare, the region has also seen periods of oil discoveries in 1956. The nation's military and democratic administrations have all made an effort to offer a long-term solution to the unrest in the area (Ajala, 2016). Due to the immense suffering and damage that oil spills cause to humanity, there are often violent clashes between the local populace and the government on the one hand, and multinational oil corporations (MNCs) and the host communities on the other (Bisina, 2004).

According to Odock (2010: 127) Niger Delta is the Nigerian oil-rich region:

Where the meeting of three major practices connected with environmental change meet and strengthen one another, namely; exposure to ocean and tidal waves, coastal erosion and severe and heavy rainfall on the one hand, and traditional agricultural practices that put emphasis on the natural forces and over five decades of oil and gas exploration and exploitation, go together with the regular gas flaring; with little or no attention to the opposing effects that these have on the environment and subsequently on climate change, thereby creating one of the most overwhelming consequences for the host community in the region on the one hand and the awful necessity to soften, manage and reverse these trends.

However, in 2004, the Niger Delta crisis came to a head with the declarations made by the Niger Delta People's Volunteer Force (NDPVF), a separatist group led by Asari Dokubo, threatening to declare war in the region if the government does not comply with host communities' calls for better control over the region's abundant oil resources. Although the MOSOP's original militant method of responding to government activities has been weakened due to internal disunions, it has never fully recovered from its former strength despite continuing to push for political and economic reorganizations.Due to the disruption of oil production in the area caused by this declaration, oil prices increased more than anticipated. In a similar vein, The Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND), a group that continuously acknowledged the region's poor living circumstances and environmental damage, has a significant impact. It serves as an umbrella organization for a loose coalition of rebel factions operating in the Niger Delta.

MEND engaged in combat with the military forces of the government last year, causing damage to oil sites, kidnapping foreign workers, and being involved in two explosions that claimed lives in the area. They have also been implicated in the destruction of pipelines, which resulted in the deaths of at least 29 security force members, and the attack on Shell's Benisede flow station in January 2006, which destroyed the facility and claimed the lives of 14 military and 2 civilian contractors (Ajala, 2016).

According to Aigbe, Cotton, and Stringer (2023), there has been a growing concern on a national and international level over the environmental effects of the oil business on the communities that produce oil. The federal government has been under heavy fire for failing to address the effects of oil exploration in the region, as have oil firms like BP and Shell.

Militant organizations are a contributing factor in the problem since they engage in oil bunkering, which has devastated arable land and other natural resources and resulted in oil spills. The dispute is commonly ascribed to inadequate human security, which has prevented the local population from accessing their means of subsistence because of contamination brought on by oil exploration. The government's amnesty program for "repentant militants" in the area was an attempt to put an end to the fighting and help them reintegrate into society by giving them jobs and appropriate training, with the ongoing goal of enhancing their human security (Ajala, 2016).

According to Manisalidis (2020), environmental issues like pollution and the devastation of farmlands and fishponds, which are the foundation of peoples' sources of income, can put strain on the people's human security and frequently lead to uprisings. This and the state of the Niger Delta's population are inextricably linked. Conflict and underdevelopment in the area have been caused by a variety of factors, some of which are noteworthy and include greed, grievances, predatory governments, and prebendalism..In addition to being motivated by money, the violent groups involved in many of the disputes are made up of young men who are angry that their chances of having a better life are being eroded by circumstances that do not seem to be their fault. Despite the region's importance to the Nigerian economy, it is unstable due to sporadic crises, and many of the creative solutions tried to improve the people's security and well-being have only partially succeeded. In light of this, Olajide et al. (2018: 173–1966) observed that the Niger Delta region's rating on all human security indices is subpar, which helps to explain why young people are so restless. Numerous towns in the area have experienced oil spills at some point, which may have put residents' health at danger.

The people's riverine economy is also being disrupted in addition to this. A sign of poverty in the area is the decline of biodiversity, which has made the lack of "freedom from fear" and "freedom from want" among the populace worse. Oil bunkering and pipeline "vandalism" in the area, according to the teenagers in the area, are directly caused by a lack of suitable work. Further damaging the ecosystem is this practice putting the people of the region's human security at risk.Human insecurity has increased even more as rival youngsters engaged in oil bunkering battle and clang with security personnel assigned to guard the region's oil infrastructure.

Furthermore, the MNCs' "operation techniques"—dubbed "divide and rule" by the communities—as a means of making up for the areas they have utilized for oil exploration have periodically led to violent disputes within the communities. Due to their ongoing exploration for oil, multinational corporations (MNCs) operating in the region have been accused of irresponsibility and disdain for the local population, resulting in unnecessary environmental degradation.Comparably, in 2011 The United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP), involving both local and foreign specialists, conducted one of the most extensive studies on the extent of pollution in the region. 122 km of pipelines, 4,000 soil and water samples from various locations and sources, 5000 medical records, and 264 meetings attended by more than 23,000 people in the area made up the survey sample (Ajala, 2016).

According to the report on their results, one of the reasons behind violent conflicts and insecurity in the majority of the region's communities is the unequal distribution of scarce resources. When the conditions or factors that allow for adaptation to environmental deprivation are not met, violent conflict becomes a possibility in a place where low-income resource-dependent people live. It's true that environmental change has presented humanity with an extremely difficult and complex challenge. According to Olajide et al. (2018: 173–196), there is no denying the obvious and potentially harmful effects of environmental change in the Niger Delta. The "threat multiplier" that is environmental change makes the already unstable socio-political and economic conditions in the Niger Delta even more dangerous, potentially endangering human security. Environmental change can exacerbate state fragility in terms of conflict and insecurity, as well as increase the threat posed by humans.

However, in August 2009, the government granted an amnesty deal to over 20,192 registered militants with an initial budget of N52 billion (US$145 million) to establish peace and security in the region. According to Agbiboa (2013), thousands of repentant militants turned up thousands of weapons between July and August 2009, including bulletproof jackets, gunboats, automatic rifles, rocket-propelled grenades, ammunition, and more. Conversely, some terrorists withheld their whole armament from surrender due to a lack of faith in the government's Amnesty Program. According to Ajala (2016), many militant organizations were scared that the government would militarize the area again after prior accords broke down, therefore they did not trust the government to keep its word. In addition, even though millions of young people in the region are currently benefiting from the Amnesty Program, many of them have called it a scam.

Oluwaniyi (2013) outlined some of the main problems with the Amnesty Program, including the fact that it ignored the needs of women, children, and the elderly, who are also affected by human insecurity in the area, and that a significant portion of the youth trained under the program are still unemployed. Additionally, the program did not address deeply ingrained issues like marginalization and environmental degradation. He believed that the program's main goal was to stop militants from attacking and damaging oil installations, which frequently hinder oil exploration in the area, rather than to develop the Niger Delta.

However, the bulk of the Niger Delta's population, especially those from oil-rich communities, perceive and experience perceived injustice, and they also perceive or understand being marginalized despite producing the majority of the nation's wealth, which contributes to the conflict and the emergence of militant groups that are typically formed along ethnic identities in an effort to protect and defend what they believe to be their own rights. It is evident that every citizen has a right to a safe environment, which all levels of government must uphold and support at all times. When people reject the rules, violence becomes the norm, according to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights, which is enshrined in Article 24 of the Charter Rights and states that "all peoples shall have the right to a general satisfactory environment favourable to their development" (Osimen, Olu-Owolabi, Apeloko, & Awogu-Maduagwu, 2023). Environmental security is currently under risk due to ongoing oil development in the area as well as a lack of action to protect the environment and the livelihoods of those living in the Niger Delta. When oil output is raised without cause, there are consequences for waterfront erosion, frequent gas flaring, persistent deforestation, and scoured rivers and watercourses. The host communities in the Niger Delta region are characterized by these particular qualities.

The aforementioned analysis emphasizes that environmental change affects human security in conjunction with a host of other social factors, including poverty, marginalization, the level of support or discrimination received by communities from the state, and the degree of social cohesion existing within and around vulnerable groups. Environmental change, as it exists in most of the world today, Olajide et al. (2018: 173–196) pointed out, will drive people into poverty, human insecurity, and ultimately violent conflict, like the militancy in the Niger Delta, which has been straddling Nigeria's geopolitical zone for more than 20 years. It is important to highlight that the multiplier effects of inadequate resource governance, when combined with environmental concerns, have significant implications for regional peace and security. For this reason, addressing these challenges becomes not just imperative but also vital.

# Natural Resource Governance in Nigeria: Embracing Good Governance as a Panacea

The importance of good governance in relation to natural resource governance is examined in this section.

The term "governance" refers to the relationship that exists between academic scholars and administrators as well as the philosophies that inform their interactions, the structures and procedures that regulate their actions, and the laws that define the boundaries of what is acceptable. The idea of governance is not new or novel; rather, it has its roots in the Western theoretical discourse on the relationships between the State and its citizens, which emerged in the late seventh century (Moore et al. 2010). Essentially, the strength of governance is to provide guidance, offer direction, and resolve conflicting interests as well as social, political, and economic tensions within a specific sector that is administered (Joppe et al., 2014: 4).

Consequently, (Springer, 2016) proposes twelve (12) good resource governance principles as best worldwide practices, which include:

Decision-making that is inclusive; acknowledging and upholding lawful tenure rights; devolution; embracing various cultures and knowledge systems; strategic vision and direction; empowerment; coordination and coherence; resources and livelihoods; social and environmental accountability; safeguards and protection of the vulnerable; rule of law; and access to justice (Springer, 2016).

These principles emphasize the importance of stakeholders and promote social justice, equity, rights, and inclusivity as best practices for global natural resource governance and management. The fundamental concepts of these principles align with the UNDP's (1997) list of qualities that constitute good government. The African Good Governance Index suggests a potential direct relationship between the region's kind of government and economic progress, according to World Bank and Global Witness (2008). Good resource governance must be based on collective participatory and inclusiveness Machin (2022) believe that participation of non-state actors leads to more ecologically rational decisions. Therefore, the reason why there are fundamental threats to Nigerians in both rural and urban areas is because of the Nigerian government's failure to provide good governance in managing her resources. As an example, the 2012 index rates the performance of forty-eight African nations against a number of criteria including security, human rights, economic stability, just laws, free elections, corruption, infrastructure, poverty, and health. The top ranked countries in the region are those that have made the most advancements in economic development.

# Conclusion and Recommendations

Nigeria and Nigerians in general have not been able to handle the "God-given" natural resources in a way that would change or elevate the standard of living for the majority of the population, especially in the Niger Delta region. Therefore, it is crucial to note that, even though greed may have surfaced amid the region's crises, it was not the initial cause of the people's anxiety. Although some of the advocates in the fight for resource control harbored a great deal of avarice, the grievance was initially caused by real incidences of negligence and carelessness. “The greed analysis of conflict would reasonably lay off activities and struggles centered on genuine grievances of people that ascend out of oppression and violation of people's rights, which could be morally and rightfully justified," according to the thesis of "Resource Curse."

This explains a portion of the reasons why young people are turning to armed resistance against established authority, even as movements for secession and resource control gain traction in some regions of the nation. It is common knowledge that the Nigerian government has not carried out its directives on natural resource governance in its whole and with great merit.

However, the region's good natural resource governance disparity makes it challenging to put good resource governance policies into practice to the point that they would affect the standard of living for most residents. The execution and compliance with environmental regulations are essential to the mitigation of environmental change and its adaptation, which ultimately improves human security. Effective natural resource governance is at the core of these processes. Human stress is a result of environmental problems that impact the host communities, including pollution, encroachment onto farmlands, damage of farmlands, illicit mining of natural resources, and fishponds. These difficulties are major sources of livelihood for many people in the region.

As a result, it is clear that effective management of natural resources is linked to environmental management since both are necessary to improve people's quality of life. In addition to sharing the same philosophies, they also support and emphasize the necessity of raising citizens' standards of living when done so correctly. It is still the case that the government must give many of these concerns about the administration of natural resources and environmental hazards immediate consideration. This involves creating new institutions or bolstering those that already exist in order to properly manage our environment and natural resources. In order to develop and enhance peoples' lives, it is necessary to reevaluate how to address the challenges of environmental change and human security in the region. That being said, the focus of this study will be on the worldwide best practices for good resource governance, as promoted by Springer (2016). These practices include:

* 1. **Protection of the vulnerable people:** It is commonly known that local communities and indigenous people who live in areas with abundant natural resources are not protected from environmental hazards caused by mining and that they lag in terms of social amenities and welfare, such as access to quality healthcare, work opportunities, and education. Therefore, effective management of natural resources should take into account the degree of marginalization that members of these communities face and respond to it appropriately.
  2. **Rule of law:** A government founded on common law, in which all people are equal before the law, is referred to as a rule of law. Therefore, to prevent behaving arbitrarily, all government acts must be guided by well-established laws. This implies that everyone will be entitled to the same level of safety and care.
  3. **Environmental transparency and accountability:** Decision-making that is transparent and accountable would undoubtedly increase people's confidence and trust. The State suffers as well as the local communities from a lack of accountability and transparency, especially when it comes to the distribution of earnings and advantages from natural resources. Thus, the a need for appropriate transparency and accountability.
  4. **Coordination and Coherence:** Every stakeholder involved in the governance of natural resources needs to join together around a round table to develop a coherent set of strategies and management practices. The planning and coordination of these policies also needs to take local communities' interests into account.
  5. **Empowerment**: Because marginalizing local communities in the management of natural resources will incite hostility and lead to apathy among them in the form of poaching, unlawful encroachment, resentment, and noncooperation, among other things, it could eventually affect the legitimacy of the governance framework. In contrast, empowering local communities will strengthen their shared and communal identity and improve their income and standard of living.
  6. **Strategic Vision and Direction**: A key component of excellent governance is strategic vision, which provides a clear path for motivating action and achieving objectives. Since it will lay the groundwork for future development, this is crucial. In general, good natural resource governance should anticipate future issues in natural resource management and be sensitive to changing ecosystems and environmental risks.
  7. **Devolution and Delegation:** Devolution is the division of authority and responsibilities between the state and local communities through management of a state's natural resources. Devolution typically occurs gradually and does not always entail the complete transfer of authority and resources from the State to the local communities. It entails using a bottom-up governance strategy to give local communities more influence over decision-making..
  8. **Inclusive decision-making:** The UNDP's definition of inclusive governance placed a strong emphasis on the concepts of rights, equity, and social justice that are ingrained in good governance. It also highlighted the significance of broad participation from youth, women, indigenous peoples, and local communities.
  9. **Recognition and respect for legitimate tenure rights:** This principle primarily addresses the customary land ownership rights of local communities and indigenous peoples. It argues that in order to ensure efficient and just management of natural resources, local communities must have their tenure rights over customary lands acknowledged. Tenure rights will make it easier for local communities to manage their lands and resources, which will improve the sustainable livelihoods of the local indigenous population.
  10. **Good environmental governance:** This will ensure that the global partnership's efforts to combat environmental challenges are guaranteed. Additionally, it will guarantee that the required actions are implemented with the necessary fervor to combat a shared threat posed by all environmental challenges at the same time.

# Acknowledgements

The authors would like to express their gratitude to the administration of Covenant University Center for Research, Innovation and Discovery (CUCRID) for providing the framework for this

study as well as publication assistance in the form of paper processing fees. The authors acknowledge the reviewers as well for their insightful remarks.

# References

Abasilim, U. D., Gberevbie, D. E., & Osibanjo, O. A. (2019). Leadership styles and employees’ commitment: Empirical evidence from Nigeria. Sage Open, 9(3), 2158244019866287.

ACSS (2021) Climate Change Amplifies Instability in Africa. Website: https://africacenter.org/spotlight/climate-change-amplifies-instability-in-africa/

Agbiboa, D. (2013) Have we heard the last? Oil, environmental insecurity, and the impact of the amnesty programme on the Niger Delta resistance movement’ Review of African Political Economy 40(137) 454

Ajala, O. (2016) Human Security in the Niger Delta: Exploring the Interplay of Resource Governance, Community Structure and Conflicts. Afe Babalola University Journal of Sustainable Development, Law & Policy Vol. 7 (2), 81-103

Aigbe G. O; Cotton, M & Stringer, L. C. (2023) Global gas flaring and energy justice: An empirical ethics analysis of stakeholder perspective. Website: https:/[/www.scienc](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S221462962300124X)e[direct.com/science/article/pii/S221462962300124X](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S221462962300124X)

Alao, A. (2007). *Natural Resources and Conflict in Africa: Tragedy of Endowment.* Rochester, University of Rochester Press.

Aluko, A; Apeloko, O. D; & Chukwudi, C. E (2023) Deradicalization of Boko Haram Insurgents and Bandits: A Soft-power Approach in Sub-Saharan Africa. African Renaissance. Special Issue (si) No. 1. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.31920/2516-5305/2023/sin1a9>. Website: https://hdl.handle.net/10520/ejcaa\_afren\_v2023\_nsi1\_a10

Akamkpa Quarry Limited (2020) ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT ASSESSMENT (EIA) OF THE

AKAMKPA QUARRY PROJECT. Website: https://ead.gov.ng/wp- content/uploads/2020/07/Akamkpa-Quarry-Draft- Report.pdf

Amobi, D.; Onyishi, T. (2015). Governance and climate change in Nigeria: A public policy perspective. J. Policy Dev. Stud. 289, 1–12.

Ayankoya, A. R, and Osimen G. U (2023) Employee Welfare and Organisational Performance: A Study of Maternity leave Policy in Covenant University, Nigeria; Migration Letter, Vol.20 (S9), 815-824.

Ansell, C., and J. Torfing, editors. (2016). Handbook on theories of governance. Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, UK.

Baechler, G. (1999). *Violence through Environmental Discrimination: Causes, Rwanda Arena, and Conflict Model.* Dordrecht, Kluwer.

Benjaminsen, T.A.; Alinon, K.; Buhaug, H.; Buseth, J.T. (2012). Does climate change drive land- use conflicts in the Sahel? J. Peace Ress, 49, 97–111.

Berkes, F. (2012). *Sacred Ecology*. New York, US: Taylor & Francis.

Binder, C. R., J. Hinkel, P. W. G. Bots, and C. Pahl-Wostl. (2013). Comparison of frameworks for analyzing social-ecological systems. Ecology and Society 18(4):26.

Bisina, J. (2004) “Oil and Corporate Recklessness in Nigeria’s Niger Delta Region,” Pambazuka News, Global Policy Forum, 29 July, 2004. 3

Boge, V. (1999). Mining, Environmental Degradation and War: The bougainville Case. In M. Suliman (ed.), *Ecology, Politics and Violent Conflict.* London, Zed Book

Chukwudi, C. E., Gberevbie, D. E., Abasilim, D. E., & Imhonopi, D. (2019). IPOB Agitations for Self-Determination and the Response of the Federal Government of Nigeria: Implications for Political Stability. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies, 8*(3), 179-194

Cilliers, J. and Christian, D. (2000). *Angola’s War Economy: The Role of Oil and Diamonds.*

Pretoria, Institute for Security Studies.

Collier, P. and Hoeffler, A (2004). ‘Greed and Grievance in Civil Wars’, Oxford Economic Papers 56 (4): 573-595.

Collier, P. and Hoeffler, A.(2008) ‘Greed and Grievance in Civil War’ (Oxford University, Centre for the study of African Economic, 2000 49(4) Journal of Conflict Resolution 635.

Collier, P. and Hoeffler. A (2005). “Resource Rents, Governance and Conflict.” Journal of Conflict Resolution 49: 625–33.

Collier, P. (2000). *Economic Causes of Civil Conflict and their Implications for Policy.*

Washington, DC.

Cox, M., S. Villamayor-Tomas, G. Epstein, L. Evans, N. C. Ban, F. Fleischman, M. Nenadovic, and G. Garcia-Lopez. (2016). Synthesizing theories of natural resource management and governance. Global Environmental Change 39:45-56.

CRISE (2007). The Department of International Development, Working Paper No.35: University of Oxford, p 6.

Davies, C.J. (1962). Towards a Theory of Revolution. American Sociological Review. Xxvii, February.

Daudu, B.O, Osimen, G.U & Shuaibu (2023). Cyberbullying and Social Media: Implications for African Digital Space; in Mohamed Lahby, et al (Eds) Book “Combatting Cyberbullying in Digital Media with Artificial Intelligence” Rutledge.

Dollard, J. (1939). The frustration-aggression hypothesis, institute of human relations, pp 209.

Ehiane, S & Moyo, P (2021) Climate Change, Human Insecurity and Conflict Dynamics in the Lake Chad Region. 57(8), https://doi.org/10.1177/00219096211063817

FAOUN (2024) Land and Water. Website: <https://www.fao.org/land-water/land/sustainable-land-> management/en/

Gberevbie, D., Segun J., Excellence-Oluye. N, Oyeyemi, A (2017) Accountability for sustainable development and the challenges of leadership in Nigeria, 1999-2015; Sage Open Access Publisher, San Francisco, USA 7(4) 1-10.

Gleick, P. (1991). Environment and Security: The Clear Connections. *Bullentin of the Atomic Scientists,* 47(3).

Hewlett, D. & Edwards, J. (2013). Beyond prescription: Community engagement in the planning and management of national parks as tourist destinations. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 10(1), 45-63.

Hirsh, J. (2007). *Sierra Leone: Diamonds and the Struggle for Democracy.* Boulder, Lynne Renner Hodges, T. (2003). *Angola: Anatomy of an Oil State.* London, James Curry.

Homer-Dixon, T. (1991). On the Threshold: Environmental Changes as Causes of Acute Conflict.

International Security, 16 (2): 76 – 116

Humphreys, M., et al, (2007). Introduction in “Escaping the Resource Curse” Columbia University Press

Joppe, M., Brooker, E. & Thomas, K. (2014). Drivers of innovation in rural tourism: Therole of good governance and engaged entrepreneurs. Journal of Rural and Community Development, 9(4), 49-63

Keen, D, (1998). *The Economics of Civil Conflicts.* Adelphi Papers

Kerr, P. (2013). Human Security. In Collins, A. (ed.). *Contemporary Security Studies* 3rd ed.

Oxford, Oxford University Press

Lin Zhang, L.; Xu, M.; Li, Y; & Chen, X (2022) Globalization, Green Economy and Environmental Challenges: State of the Art Review for Practical Implications. Sec. Environmental Economics and Management. Volume 10 - 2022 https://doi.org/10.3389/fenvs.2022.870271

Machin, A (2022) Climates of democracy: Skeptical, rational, and radical imaginaries. Wires Climate Change. Website: https://wires.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/wcc.774

Mavrotas, George, S. Mansoob Murshed and Sebastian Torres. (2006). ‘Natural Resources Endowments and Recent Economic Performance, mimeo Review.

Manisalidis, I (2020) Environmental and Health Impacts of Air Pollution: A Review. Website: https:/[/www.fronti](http://www.frontiersin.org/)e[rsin.org](http://www.frontiersin.org/) › fpubh.2020.00014

Moore, P., Greiber, T. & Baig, S. (2010). Strengthening voices for better choices. Forest governance and law enforcement: Findings from the field.

Murshed, S. Mansoob. (2002). ‘Civil War, Conflict and Underdevelopment’, Journal of Peace Research 39(4): 387-93.

Myers, N. (1986). The Environmental Dimension to Security Issues. *Environmentalist,* 6/4

Natural Resource Charter (2nd edition, 2014), available at: <http://www.resourcegovernance.org/> sites/default/files/NRCJ1193\_natural\_resource\_charter\_19.6.14.pdf.

Nettheim, G. & McRae, H. (2009). *Indigenous legal issues: Commentary and materials, 4th ed*.

Australia: Thomson Reuters.

Newman, E (2010) Critical Human Security Studies. Review of International Studies. 36, 77-94 Website: https:/[/www.jstor.org/page](http://www.jstor.org/page-scan-delivery/get-page-scan/40588105/0)-[scan-delivery/get-page-scan/40588105/0](http://www.jstor.org/page-scan-delivery/get-page-scan/40588105/0)

Nunan, F. (2019). Governing renewable natural resources: theoriesand frameworks. First edition.

Routledge, London, UK.

Huntjens, P. and Nachbar, K. (2015). Climate Change as a Threat Multiplier for Current and Future Conflict: Policy and Governance Recommendations for Advancing Climate Security. The Hague Institute of Global Justice Working Paper 9, May 2015.

Odock, C. N. (2010). The Political Economy of Climate Change in Nigeria’s South-South Zone. In Eze, O. C. and Oche, O. (Eds.). Climate Change and Human Security in Nigeria. Lagos: Nigeria Institute of International Affairs.

Okoli, A.C.; Atelhe, G.A. (2014). Nomads against Natives: A Political Ecology of Herder/Farmer Conflicts in Nasarawa State, Nigeria, Okoli, Al Chukwuma and Atelhe George Atelhe. Am. Int. J. Contemp .

Okoro JP (2018) Herdsmen/farmers conflict and its effects on socio-economic development in Nigeria. *Journal of Peace, Security and Development* 4(1): 143–158.

Olajide, B. Quadri, M. & Ojakorotu, V. (2018). Climate Change, Human Security and Good Governance in Nigeria. African Renaissance, Vol. 15, (3), pp 173-196

Oluwaniyi, O (2013) Post Amnesty Programme in the Niger Delta: Challenges and Prospects’ African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes (ACCORD) 2011; Moses Ikoh and Ebebe Ukpong, ‘The Niger Delta Crises: Taming Violence Beyond the Amnesty; International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences, (3)7, 152.

O'Riordan, T. & S. Stoll-Kleeman (2002). Biodiversity, sustainability and human communities.

London, UK: Earthscan.

Osimen G. U, Ayankoya, A. R, & Udoh, O. D (2023) Between Security and Environmental Change: A Theoretical Exploration of the Linkage; Migration Letter, Vol.20 (S8), 1168-1179.

Osimen, G.U, Olu-Owolabi, F. E, Apeloko, O. D, & Awogu-Maduagwu, E. A. (2023) Human Trafficking and Modern-Day Slavery: An Appraisal of Causes and Effects in Nigeria; Migration Letter Vol.20 (S7), 1264-1275.

Osimen, G.U, Daudu, B.O, Oladoyin, A.M, AHMED, T. M. O (2024) Feminist Media Activism and Women’s Ordeal in Africa; Migration Letter Vol.21 (2), 1092-1104

Osimen,G.U , Obiyan, A.S Ayankoya,A.R, Essien, N.P (2024) Nigeria’s Quest for a Permanent Seat at the United Nation Security Council: A Giant Dwarfed of Domestic Challenges; Volume: 21 (3), pp. 808-820

Oyelami, L. O., Edewor, S. E., Folorunso, J. O., & Abasilim, U. D. (2023). Climate Change, Institutional Quality and Food Security: Sub-Saharan African Experiences. *Scientific African*, e01727.

Peluso, N. and Harwell, E. (2001). Territory, Custom and the Cultural Politics of Ethnic War in West Kalimantan Indonesia. In N. Peluso and M.Watts (eds.), *Violent Environments.* Ithaca, NY. Cornell Univ. Press.

Ramay, S. A. and Saleem, M. (2012). Climate Change and National Security. Policy Paper 39:2012. Islamabad: Sustainable Development Institute.

Rodrik, D. (2002). ‘After Neoliberalism, What?’ Paper presented at a conference on Alternatives to Neoliberalism, Washington, DC, May, 23.

Sachs, J. D., and Warner.A.M ( 2001. Natural Resources and Economic Development: The Curse of Natural Resources.” European Economic Review 45: 827–38.

Sen, A. (1999). *Development as Freedom*. New York, Anchor Books

Siegle, J. (2008). Governance Strategies to Remedy the Natural Resource Curse.” International Social Science Journal 57: 45–55.

Springer, J., (2016). Natural Resource Governance Framework - Initial Design Document for an NRG Framework. IUCN & CEESP.

Stanley, E. and Philani, M. (2021). Climate Change, Human Insecurity and Conflict Dynamics in the Lake Chad Region. Journal of Asian and African Studies. Vol. 3 (2) 1– 13

Tobias Ide, McKenzie F. Johnson, Jon Barnett, Florian Krampe, Philippe Le Billon, Lucile Maertens, Nina von Uexkull & Irene Vélez-Torres (2023) The Future of Environmental Peace and Conflict Research, Environmental Politics, 32:6, 1077-1103, DOI: 10.1080/09644016.2022.2156174

Torfing, J., B. G. Peters, J. Pierre, and E. Sørensen. (2016). Interactive governance: advancing the paradigm. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK.

Tyokumbur, E. T. (2010). Practising Ecology: Chances and Choices. Ibadan: John Archers (Publishers) Ltd.

UNHCR (2018) Global report. (Online), pp.1–131. Available at: https:/[/www.unhcr.org/en](http://www.unhcr.org/en-)- us/5e4ff98f7.pdf.

United Nations, (2003).‘Human Security Now’ (Final Report of the Commission on Human Security, <[www.un.org/humansecurity/content/humansecurity-](http://www.un.org/humansecurity/content/humansecurity-) now> accessed 25 January 2016.

United Nations (2007). UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP).

Available at: <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unpfii/documents/DRIPS_en.pdf>[Accessed 3 December 2016].

United Nations Development Programme (1994). Human Development Report Oxford: Oxford University Press.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2017). Governance for sustainable Human development: A UNDP policy document. New York, US: UNDP.

United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) (1998). The Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-Making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters (Aarhus Convention).

United Nations Environmental Programme (2016). Environmental Governance. Retrieved from <http://staging.unep.org/pdf/brochures/EnvironmentalGovernance.pdf>

Watts, M. (2001). Petro-Violence: Community Extraction and Political Ecology of a Mythic Commodity. In Peluso, N. and M. Watts (eds.), *Violent Environments.* Ithaca, NY. Cornell University *Press.*

World Bank and Global Witness. (2008). Assessment of International Monetary Fund and

World Bank Group Extractive Industries Transparency Implementation. Report, Washington, DC: World Bank Information Center.