

How the national security policy and strategy can address insecurity from environmental resource allocation and utilisation in Nigeria

Cómo la política y la estrategia de seguridad nacional pueden abordar la inseguridad de la asignación y utilización de recursos ambientales en Nigeria

Abstract: The level of insecurity in Nigeria has steadily increased during the last decade, with many of the conflicts related to environmental resource allocation, utilisation and management. Problems such as the shrinking of the Lake Chad and its resultant degradation of economic livelihood, have coalesced with the recruitment of impoverished persons by religious extremist groups to create the Boko Haram crisis in the North East. These crises have come to involve the use of arms and have snowballed into widespread inter-ethnic violence, kidnappings and organised crime. Noting the rise in these environmental conflicts, this research seeks to investigate how the national security policies/strategy can address resource allocation, utilisation and management, with a view to preventing such conflicts in Nigeria. The paper will adopt a case study approach by comparing the Nigerian situation with Brazil, which is similar to Nigeria in income inequality, demographic disparity, resource endowment and conflicts arising from these factors. The paper will conclude that the current Nigerian National Security Policy and Strategy must emplace specific provisions that improve the allocation, utilisation and management of environmental resources as is done in Brazil

Keywords: Conflicts. Environment. Resources. Policy. Case Study.

Resumen: El nivel de inseguridad en Nigeria ha aumentado constantemente durante la última década, con muchos de los conflictos relacionados con la asignación, utilización y gestión de los recursos ambientales. Problemas como la contracción del Lago Chad y su degradación resultante de la subsistencia económica, se unieron con el reclutamiento de personas empobrecidas por grupos extremistas religiosos para crear la crisis de Boko Haram en el noreste de Nigeria. Estas crisis llegaron a involucrar el uso de armas y se convirtieron en violencia interétnica generalizada, secuestros y crimen organizado. Al observar el aumento de estos conflictos ambientales, esta investigación busca examinar cómo las políticas/estrategias de seguridad nacional pueden abordar la asignación, utilización y gestión de recursos, con el objetivo de prevenir tales conflictos en Nigeria. El artículo adoptará un enfoque de estudio de caso que compara la situación nigeriana con la de Brasil, que es similar a Nigeria en desigualdad de ingresos, disparidad demográfica, dotación de recursos y conflictos derivados de estos factores. El documento concluirá que la Política y Estrategia de Seguridad Nacional actual de Nigeria debe establecer disposiciones específicas que mejoren la asignación, utilización y gestión de los recursos ambientales, como se hace en Brasil.

Palabras clave: Conflictos. Medio Ambiente. Recursos. Política. Estudio de Caso.

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Received: Nov. 08, 2021

Approved: Nov 30, 2021

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ISSN on-line 2316-4891 / ISSN print 2316-4833

<http://ebrevistas.eb.mil.br/index.php/RMM/index>



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1 Introduction

The increasing spate of internal conflicts that have sprung up since the end of the Cold War has led to an emphasis on the reform of national security systems in developing, as well as developed countries. The prevalence of these security challenges across the globe has necessitated the need for security policies and strategic reforms that will prevent conflicts that arise from the utilisation and management of resources. In Africa for instance, the high level of poverty and social inequality for the vast population in the continent, has mostly metamorphosed into intractable conflicts like ethno-religious crisis, agitation for resource control, farmer-herders conflicts, and terrorist activities.

The connection between the environment and man's ability or inability to explore it to his advantage, has led to contradictions and conflicting interests, resulting in unrest, mostly in the underdeveloped world. For over a decade, Nigeria has continued to witness a tremendous setback in its socio-economic development fuelled by ethno-religious crisis, Niger-Delta militancy, kidnapping, herders-farmers clashes, cybercrimes, armed banditry and the Boko Haram insurgency. In the North East, domestic terrorism and organised banditry has ravaged the country for the last decade. The conflict between pastoralists and local farmers in Benue, Nassarawa, Kaduna, Katsina and Plateau States is mostly due to dwindling grazing areas and increased demand in meat for the increasing population. In Borno, Yobe and Adamawa States, the Boko Haram insurgency has been prevalent, occasionally spreading to Niger and Kogi States. The Jos and Kaduna crises which have lingered can be attributed to ethnic and indigene-settler cleavages that manifest themselves in land and boundary disputes. In addition, large portions of the north west, central and south East of the country have witnessed increasing occurrences of rural banditry and kidnapping.

According to Salawu (2010), the remote socio-cultural, political and economic reasons that propel the use of illegal force and violence in Nigeria include government's neglect, oppression, domination, exploitation, victimisation, discrimination, marginalisation, nepotism and bigotry. Kwaja (2009) also identifies fragility of the institutions of the state in terms of their ability and capacity to manage diversity, corruption and bad governance, rising inequality between the rich and poor, gross violation of human rights, environmental degradation, contestations over land, struggle for resource control, and unequal distribution of resources, as the underlying causes of violent conflicts in Nigeria.

Unlike Nigeria, there are no known terrorist groups in Brazil. However, organised crime, trafficking in drugs and environmental crimes pose significant threats to state security, particularly the police. According to the Brazil Country Report (2021):

[...] the main threat comes from drug-trafficking organisations, and organised crime, particularly gangs based in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, which have a national reach. They control drugs and weapons smuggling; their readiness to engage police in armed confrontations poses the risk of collateral death or injury for visitors. Brazil is a drug

transit country and a major consumer of drugs. Remote and sparsely populated frontiers facilitate illegal gold mining, drug trafficking, contraband and weapons smuggling especially along the border with Paraguay and the Amazon region. On the other hand, some form of organised crime prevalent in Brazil, is due to the exploitation of environmental resources. Deforestation is a major challenge faced due to the economic activities of cattle pastoralists, miners, loggers and farmers. The implication of the deforestation in the Brazilian Amazonia is that it destroys environmental services that are important for the whole world, and especially for Brazil itself (FEARNSIDE, 2017).

Londoño, Andreoni and Casado (2020) observed that the COVID-19 pandemic has also led to an increase in deforestation in Brazil because the government has been pre-occupied with the global pandemic, while unchecked illegal activities have taken place. According to Mueller et al. (1994), the Brazilian Amazon is better known for problems associated with deforestation and environmental change. Land conflict is not new to Brazil, and has accompanied the process of frontier expansion that started more than 500 years ago with Portuguese settlement.

Nevertheless, both poverty and landlessness have persisted despite development policies that distributed billions of dollars on highway construction, loans, and outright subsidies (HALL, 2000). Conflict in the Amazon is multifaceted and involves numerous actors (e.g., some of the Amerindians, miners, loggers, ranchers and small farmers). Brazil is an economically and socially heterogeneous country, with a complex federal governance framework and a constitution that recognises the people's right to an ecologically balanced environment. This makes implementing environmental policies and programmes on the ground challenging. The stringency of environmental requirements and the level of compliance vary substantially across jurisdictions, reflecting local priorities and capacity constraints.

The paper therefore examines how security policies and strategy can address insecurity arising from environmental resource allocation, utilisation and management in Nigeria, using Brazil as a case study. The paper is divided into seven subtitles which include the introduction; conceptual and theoretical framing; security challenges and national security policy in Nigeria and Brazil; addressing insecurity from environmental resource allocation, utilisation and management; and conclusion.

The paper will seek to address the following research questions:

- i. What are the environmental causes of insecurity in Nigeria and Brazil?
- ii. What is the nexus between environmental resource allocation/utilisation and insecurity in Nigeria and Brazil?
- iii. How has security policy shaped or mitigated security challenges in Nigeria and Brazil?
- iv. What national security policy can be adopted to address environmental insecurity in Nigeria, taking examples from Brazil.

The broad objective of the study is to ascertain how policy can address insecurity caused by environmental resource allocation, utilisation and management; using a comparative analysis of Nigeria and Brazil. The specific objectives are to examine the environmental causes of insecurity in Nigeria and Brazil; to evaluate the impact of security policies in mitigating security challenges in the two countries; and to articulate specific security policies that can address environmental insecurity in Nigeria, using Brazil as a case study.

2 Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

The causal relationship between environmental scarcity - the insufficiency of renewable resources - and the outbreak of violent conflict is complex. Environmental scarcity emerges within a political, social, economic, and ecological context and interacts with many of these contextual factors to contribute to violence (HOMER-DIXON; PERCIVAL, 1998). Homer-Dixon's theory of environmental scarcity attempts an analytical relationship between environmental factors and conflict in human society. Scarcity of renewable resources (also known as *environmental scarcity*) can contribute to civil violence, including insurgencies and ethnic clashes" (HOMER-DIXON, 1999).

Contextual factors include the quantity and vulnerability of environmental resources, the balance of political power, the nature of the state, patterns of social interaction, and the structure of economic relations among social groups. These factors affect how resources will be used, the social impact of environmental scarcity, the grievances, arising from these scarcities, and whether grievances will contribute to violence. There are three types of environmental scarcity: (1) supply-induced scarcity, caused by the degradation and depletion of an environmental resource; for example, the erosion of cropland; (2) demand-induced scarcity resulting from population growth within a region or increase per capita consumption of a resource; either of which heightens the demand for the resource; (3) structural scarcity arising from an unequal social distribution of a resource that concentrates it in the hands of relatively few people, while the remaining population suffers from serious shortages (HOMER-DIXON; PERCIVAL, 1998).

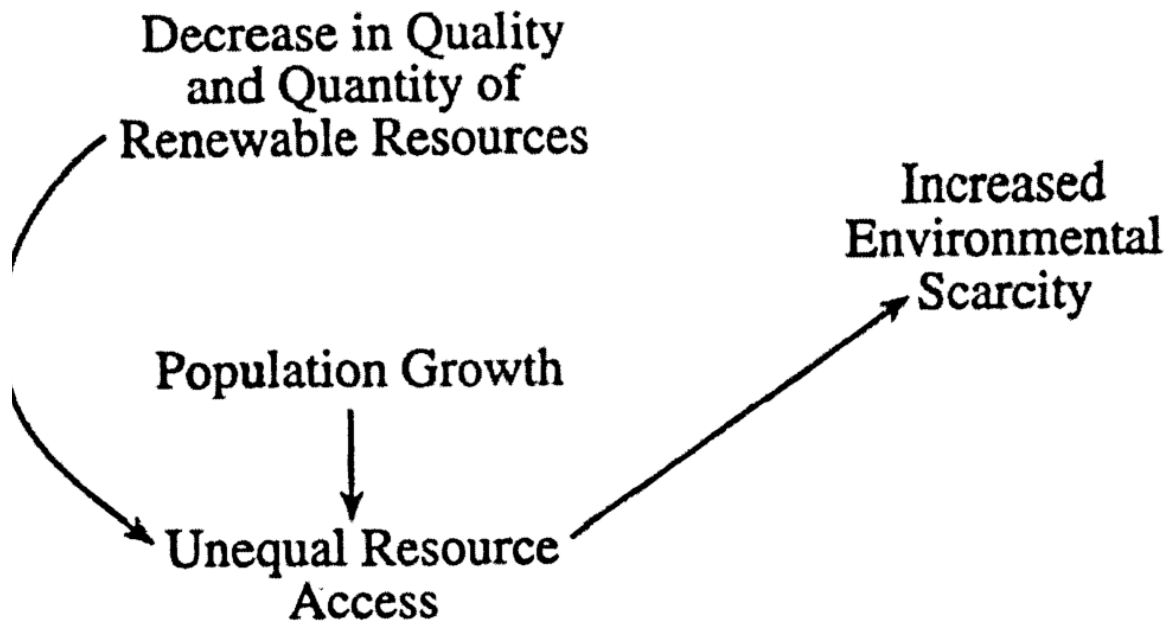
Two patterns of interaction among these three types of scarcity are common: resource capture and ecological marginalisation. **Resource capture** occurs when increased consumption of a resource combines with its degradation: powerful groups within society - anticipating future shortages - shift resource distribution in their favour, subjecting the remaining population to scarcity. **Ecological marginalisation** occurs when increased consumption of a resource combines with structural inequality in distribution. Denied access to the resource, weaker groups migrate to ecologically fragile regions that subsequently become degraded (HOMER-DIXON, 1994). Peluso and Harwel (2001) argue that the inequitable distribution of returns from resource extraction activities has been a factor in violence.

Homer-Dixon predicted that "in coming decades the incidence of violence will probably increase as scarcities of cropland, freshwater, and forests worsen in many parts of the developing world". Homer-Dixon's theory integrated physical variables (stocks of natural

resources, population size and growth, resource-consumption per capita and social factors (market dynamics, and social and economic structures) in a single model that emphasises the importance of thresholds, interdependence, and interactivity within complex environmental systems (HOMER-DIXON, 1999).

Hartmann (2017) also contributed to the discourse on the relationship between environment and conflict when he presented the idea of strategic scarcity and environmental conflict. The figure below was used to express diagrammatically the nexus between resource scarcity and conflict.

Figure 1 – Environment, Strategic Scarcity, and Conflict



Source: Hartmann (2003).

Relating Homer-Dixon's theory of resource scarcity to the environmental resource management in Nigeria, one would see that Nigeria has suffered security challenges for decades as a result of majorly, structural scarcity arising from an unequal distribution of resources. Although Brazil also suffers the same structural challenge, Nigeria has challenges in the struggle for limited resources due to population growth, degradation/depletion and the struggle for limited environmental resources. For instance, the major remote and immediate precipitators of the conflict between pastoralist and farmers in Nigeria, is the struggle for limited environment resources. Economic inequality and poverty, which are caused by structural factors and government failure to evenly allocate scarce resources often results in conflict.

Issues of draught, water/rain, pastures, population expansion, migration, deforestation and land tenure system borders around the environment. The scarcity of environmental resources vis-à-vis the increasing demand for them by both farmers and pastoralists constitute the fault line for hostilities in both countries where illegal miners and loggers are key in the

conflicts of illegal land usage and extraction. The insecurity in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria orchestrated by the militants is also precipitated by the impact of the activities of oil multinationals in that region which has negative impact on the environment. Oil spillage, environmental degradation, gas flaring, water pollution has adverse effects on human, aquatic and other agricultural activities within the Niger Delta region, which has led to conflicts in the region. For instance, Kadafa (2012) pointed out that, oil exploration in Nigeria has had several environmental and human consequences for the indigenous people who inhabit the area surrounding oil extractions. The social and environmental cost of oil production has been extensive. They include destruction of wildlife and biodiversity, loss of fertile soil. Pollution of air and drinking water, degradation of farmland and damage to maritime ecosystem, all of which have caused serious health problems for the inhabitants of the area surrounding oil production.

This research will adopt a qualitative method that will be obtained from peer reviewed journals, government legislations and related publications/gazette and research from external organisations. Moreover, the research is aimed at evaluating specific policies that can affect the use or allocation of resources and its effects on regional conflicts in Nigeria, with an intention of proffering workable national security policy inputs that will address insecurity.

3 Evaluating National Security Policy Strategies in Nigeria and Brazil: A Comparative Analysis

One of the fundamental responsibilities of any state is the provision of a safe and secure environment for its citizens. It is also the responsibility of state to regulate the activities of individuals and entities as they seek to make a living in the secure environment created. Consequently, specific policies need to be put in place to address the various factors that could cause insecurity. Nigeria and Brazil are very similar in their demographic and societal structures. They have both experienced various but similar cases of insecurity resulting from social inequality, the clamour for resources such as land, minerals, water, tree logging and oil wealth. Unlike Nigeria, Brazil has no religious or ethnic conflicts to contend with. Both countries are classified as developing countries, although they are both regional leaders on their respective continents. Importantly, both countries have a population that exceeds 200 million, which makes curbing insecurity a challenge.

Nigeria, for instance, has had to face so many violent conflicts, as a result of both environmental and non-environmental factors. Nigeria's National Security Strategy (NSS) outlines the threats from:

management such as population explosion and unplanned human settlements, periodic environmentally induced human conflicts among which are pastoralists-farmers conflicts and water resource conflicts as well as environmental disasters caused by natural and human factors. The most prominent threat factor is climate change with the

associated global warming which causes high sea levels, ocean surges and coastal floods. Climate change is associated with environmental degradation. Desertification in the North and both erosion and floods in the South threaten food security. Desert encroachment is partly responsible for the loss of grazing reserves and obliteration of grazing routes, which is directly linked to pastoralists-farmers conflicts. Climate change has also contributed to excessive flooding across the country causing huge human and economic losses. Natural and man-made hazards including natural disasters, pollution and related threats from within and neighbouring countries constitute national security threats. Although Nigeria is not located within the major seismic zones of the world, over the years, several earth tremors have occurred across the country with the latest happening in Mpape-Abuja in September, 2018. These environmental threats undermine national security and underscore the need for adequate containment strategies and contingency plans (NIGERIA, 2019).

The above encapsulation shows that environmental changes and the struggle for resources provide the objective as well as the subjective context for the high level of insecurity in Nigeria. This may have informed Egwuatus' observation, as cited by Jega (2007) that "the distribution of national wealth is very uneven and poverty is the first threat to peace and stability". Similarly, Jega pointed out that "90% of national wealth is in the hands of only 10% of the population (JEGA, 2007). 44% of the population is young, and an average of three million people are thrown into the saturated job market without skills every year". Accordingly, a combination of widening gap in income inequality, worsening unemployment situation and perceptions of group discrimination and marginalisation based on ethnic, religious, and communal differences create rigid identity divides based on us versus them syndrome; fan the embers of group hatred and ignite tensions and even violent conflicts (JEGA, 2007, 1999). It is therefore considered a root of conflicts and uprisings in Nigeria. It particularly creates situations in which individuals, left to fend for themselves, engage in criminality or terrorist activities considering that they have nothing to lose. These dispositions culminate in a state of national insecurity in Nigeria.

Nwanegbo (2005) noted that:

internal conflicts in Nigeria are actually and mainly caused by contest over the control of scarce resources and it is those who are, or feel deprived, are those who try to either protect or defend their interests and vent frustration in what ends up leading to inter-ethnic conflicts, inter group wars or civil revolutions. He also argues that internal conflicts have caused a lot of damages to both the political, economic, social and environmental order in Nigeria.

For instance, the Niger-Delta crisis stemming from environmental degradation and marginalisation, has had a huge impact on national insecurity and economic crisis. In addition sea piracy, arms smuggling, oil bunkering, drugs smuggling and banditry all lead to economic crises and hardship.

The Boko Haram insurgency, banditry and herders-farmers clashes are remotely caused by environmental factors such as **climate change, struggle of land possession, marginalisation and inequality**. According to Eme (2011), this is also known as “political economy of violence.” Another major contributor and enabler of conflicts in Nigeria is religious intolerance or extremism. Although this shows itself in most conflicts in the country, it is important to understand it is not a root cause of conflicts by itself. On the contrary, it is a strong factor that exacerbates already existing fault-lines or conflicts. As this research is focused on conflicts related to environmental factors, religious crises will not be discussed further.

In Brazil, it is impossible not to be shocked by the dimension of urban criminality and violence. Between 1979 and 1997, the homicide rate in Brazil increased from 11.5 to 25.4 murders per 100,000 inhabitants. In the same period, while the population increased 65 percent, the homicide rate increased 120 percent. In 1999, Recife (capital of the state of Pernambuco) and Vitória (capital of the state of Espírito Santo) had higher murder rates than war-torn Colombia (HUGGINS, 2000). In 2001, Brazil was the country with the largest percentage of murders committed by firearms, firearms caused 78 percent of all homicides committed that year (UNESCO Report, 2002). Practically every day, the Brazilian press reports on a fresh and dramatic case related to kidnappings, police violence and corruption, drug-crimes, or prison riots. It reached the point that entire commercial neighbourhoods in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo were forced to close doors during business hours by the edicts of drug gangs. The reason for these menace, is not farfetched as inadequate wages, unemployment, larger population of young men, poverty, rapid and unplanned urbanisation, and lack of integrated public security strategies. Most peculiar to Brazil, is the availability of drugs and massive gun ownership. Ecological challenges caused by deforestation, mining, rivalry between loggers and farmers, farmer-herders clashes over land usage, are also a source of conflicts and insecurity (EMÍLIO, 2003).

Poverty and the scramble for environmental resources in Nigeria has led to conflicts, social dislocation and population displacement; it heightens citizenship questions; encourages hostility between ‘indigenes’ and ‘settlers’, and it dislocates and disrupts family and communal life. It also creates a general atmosphere of mistrust, fear, anxiety and frenzy; dehumanisation of women, children, and men especially in areas where rape, child abuse and neglect are used as instruments of war. This in turn deepens hunger and poverty in the polity; creates an atmosphere of political insecurity and instability, including declining confidence in the political leadership and apprehension about the system. It also creates a governance deficit as a result of the inefficiency of security agencies (IBRAHIM, 2002).

Chapter II Section 14(2)(b) of the Nigerian Constitution, declares that the “security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government” (FRN, 1999). The country’s third place ranking on the Global Terrorism Index, and its being listed as one of the most fragile countries on the Fragile States Index, are an illustration of the challenging security environment in the country. Realising the complexities of 21st century security and the need for strategic responsiveness, Nigeria crafted its maiden National Security Strategy of 2014 (NIGERIA, 2014) in an attempt to address the security challenges in an over-arching manner. The strategy basically presents an overview of Nigeria’s national security process and security architecture and examines Nigeria sectorial security strategies, monitoring and oversight mechanisms. Many of the policy initiatives were aimed at improving the economic and welfare situation of citizens in order to cushion the effects of poverty. Examples of these policy initiatives were the YOUWIN programme, that financed Small and Medium Scale Enterprises and the involvement of government in the agricultural value chain, among others. The policy also strengthened the existing Afrocentric policy of government through supporting other African countries during crises situations in order to avoid a spill-over effect into Nigeria. The improvement in the security situation after the introduction of the strategy paved way for relatively hitch free general elections across all parts of Nigeria in 2015.

Despite these initiatives, the NSS 2014 did not address the root causes of the internal security ruptures such as ethno-religious conflicts, pastoralists and farmers conflicts, proliferation of small and light weapons, kidnapping, terrorism, and illegal migration and financial crimes. The evolving nature of the external and internal security threats necessitated a review of NSS 2014. This led to the articulation of the National Security Strategy 2019 (NIGERIA, 2019). The NSS 2019 outlines the major security concerns of the nation for which policies and strategies have been articulated and how the government plans to deal with them. It states that:

The Strategy envisages the unique characteristics of the risks and threats we face in a world that is constantly undergoing changes. In other words, a strategy that orients state action towards current and perceived future challenges by using available resources flexibly and efficiently. The Strategy will also enhance our prevention, protection and response capabilities to security threats in an increasingly complex environment (NIGERIA, 2019).

The NSS 2019 recognises that the security environment has continued to evolve, giving rise to emergent challenges, including the intensification of pastoralists-farmers conflicts, escalation of banditry, and significant upsurge in kidnapping, among other violent crimes (ONUOHA; OGBONANYA, 2020). The concept of security adopted, however, reflects a contemporary paradigm shift from a state-centric focus on security to one which is comprehensive and redirects security agencies towards emphasising human security. While this shift in focus is fundamental and commendable, the NSS 2019 does little to enable the security institutions internalise the cultural and structural changes required to achieve its

objectives. As a result, regime security is still prioritised, often resulting in allegations of unprofessionalism, human rights violations, and abuses of office, which in turn exacerbate the security and governance deficit. The absence of specific policies injects that realign security organisations to address identified threats in a wholistic manner has resulted in inter agency rivalries, which are inimical to their efficacy and statutory function (ONUOHA; OGBONANYA, 2020). Consequently, in spite of all the human and capital efforts, insecurity in Nigeria has continued unabated.

The unity of *Política Nacional de Defesa* (PND, National Defence Policy) and *Estratégia Nacional de Defesa* (END, National Defence Strategy) expresses civil-military realignment of re-democratization. Brazil's first public defence policy (PDN, PND's predecessor) was published in 1996. It paved the way for the creation of the *Ministério da Defesa* (Ministry of Defence - MoD), turning the military ministries into subordinate commands. This was followed by END in 2008. PND and END were brought in line in 2012 and approved by Congress in 2013. Since then, the MoD presents PND-END as a unity – P&E (BRAZIL, 2012). PND defines eleven objectives which include: guarantee of sovereignty over national assets and territorial integrity; contribution towards the preservation of national unity and cohesion; contribution to regional stability and contribution to the maintenance of peace and international security; and to enhance Brazil's projection in the concert of nations and its greater participation in international decision-making processes. It also includes keeping the armed forces modern, integrated, trained and balanced, increasing their professionalisation, operating in joint fashion while being adequately distributed over the national territory; raise awareness within Brazilian society of the importance of defence subjects; develop the national defence industry to obtain autonomy in indispensable technologies; structure the armed forces around capabilities, providing them with personnel and materiel compatible with strategic and operational planning and developing the potential of defence logistics and national mobilization (BRAZIL, 2012, p. 29-30).

In many ways, the National Strategy of Defense marked a clear turning point in frontier security. Of critical importance is that the strategy introduced what it calls the triple imperative of *monitoring and control*, leading to requirements for *mobility* and ultimately *presence*. These three concepts govern the mid-term and long-range development of capabilities and structure for each branch of the armed forces, and provide near-term guidance for the growing scope of roles that increasingly includes tasks in support of law enforcement. A specific policy inject that illustrates this is the END Legislative Decree 373 which grants the Armed Forces the power to operate within a 150m area from the land borders of the country. Within this area, the Armed Forces are constitutionally granted powers to carry out law enforcement duties to prevent the smuggling of drugs and persons and prevent environmental crimes such as deforestation and illegal logging. Under this framework, the Integrated Border Control System (SISFRON) is an ongoing project that will facilitate the Brazilian Army to expand its capability. SISFRON is a border monitoring, sensing, decision making and integrated action support system, aimed at strengthening the presence and capacity of action of the State in the border strip.

The measure, which is the second phase of the ‘Army Strategic Program SISFRON’ (Prg EE SISFRON), will see equipment and infrastructure delivered to units in the area of responsibility of the 13th Motorised Infantry Brigade, headquartered in Cuiabá in Mato Grosso state, and of the 18th Border Infantry Brigade, headquartered in Corumbá in Mato Grosso do Sul. These states border Bolivia and Paraguay respectively (BARREIRA, 2020). Implementing SISFRON over the years has resulted in gradually improved interdiction in the frontier zone against narcotics, weapons, and other illegal commodities. The way ahead intensifies integrated military and police operations, emphasises the technical and procedural refinement of surveillance and communication capabilities, and strengthens security collaboration with neighbouring countries.

Moreover, military infrastructure and presence, which includes the increased number of soldiers in preexistent military organisations, the increase in military units in the Amazon, the creation and expanded number of Special Border Platoons at the borderlines, the implementation of the Amazon Surveillance System (SIVAM) linked to the Amazon Protection System (SIPAM), and the acquisition, renovation and expansion of military equipment, has helped to reduce crime rate in Brazil. The Federal Police also expanded its operations in the Brazil-Colombia border with Operation COBRA, which started in 2000 (MONTEIRO, 2016).

Regarding the high level of national awareness around the ‘Green Amazon’, its richness and potentialities, as well as the fact that the importance of guaranteeing national sovereignty over this territory is already well established in the imagination of the Brazilian population, Brazil coined the concept of ‘Blue Amazon’ to refer to country’s maritime sphere of interest and responsibility. The obvious association between the Blue Amazon and the ‘Green Amazon’ is the ability to control and exploit the natural resources beyond Brazil’s Economic Exclusive Zone (EEZ). Brazil therefore filed an application with the United Nation’s Commission on the Limits of the Continental Shelf (UNCLOS) to delineate 1000km beyond its continental shelf as the blue Amazon. Accordingly there are specific policy articulations that enable the Brazilian Navy to carry out maritime operations in this area (CARVALHO, 2019). This transfer of the national awareness of the Green Amazon to the maritime environment facilitates a quick and efficient introduction to the need for a maritime awareness amongst diverse actors, both nationally and internationally (CARVALHO, 2019).

With respect to the issue of drug abuse in Brazil, the National Secretariat on Drug Policies (SENAD) as an agency of the Ministry of Justice and Public Security coordinates the activities of drug abuse prevention, care, and social reinsertion of users (GARCIA, 2008). Brazil’s national policy on drugs stipulates the implementation of prevention programs in public and private teaching institutions, where educators at the three levels (primary, secondary and universities) should receive training for continuing education. Even though, studies have revealed Brazilian teachers’ unpreparedness to perform this function, due to either fear and/or lack of information and skills, the program is still required in the reorientation policy of the government (FERREIRA et al., 2010).

Applying the examples of Brazil to the Nigerian setting will call for a security strategy that not only captures the key internal and external threats, but that articulates constitutional reforms that allow security forces to operate in a wholistic manner to counter the threats. The National Security Agencies Act which enables the coordination of the various security organisations, needs to reflect the realities of 21st century threats and the peculiar Nigerian situation. Security organisations must be enabled by law to act in the same sphere with overlapping responsibilities such as the example of SISFRON and SIPAM.

Nigeria needs to prevent the free movement of illegal persons, drugs and weapons along its borders, especially along the northern and eastern borders. Accordingly, it will need to adopt a hybrid model that creates border security zones, in which various security agencies exist and operate to prevent illegal incursions, under a unified structure. Such a structure should be tasked and equipped to be able to cover the extent of the border with ground and air surveillance, and have the statutory authorisation to design and carry out operations. Like the Brazilian example, an area of around 50 km should be delineated from the hard border with the neighbouring countries for the armed forces to operate.

Nigeria's security policy recognises that:

The environment is a strategic resource that should be optimally harnessed to achieve stability, prosperity, social harmony and the well-being of society. Our mission is to protect and conserve the environment by preventing and mitigating natural and anthropogenic threats to environmental security and sustainability. This we will seek to achieve by exploiting environmental resources through international best practices in a sustainable manner and protecting Nigeria's unique biodiversity. Erosion and flooding have destroyed communities, agricultural lands and other critical infrastructure across the country thereby threatening lives and livelihoods. To mitigate these problems, we will continue to adopt, as well as to deepen a Whole-of-Government approach, while collaborating with the private sector and civil society (NIGERIA, 2019).

Nevertheless, conservation is threatened by deforestation, unregulated logging, population growth, forest fires, overgrazing, bio-piracy, farming, wildlife poaching, unregulated industrial exploitation of timber, weak institutional regulatory capacity at all levels of government and the presence in forests and forest reserves of criminal gangs and armed groups. Government must therefore emplace broad-based partnerships that will drive much-needed involvement in reforestation and conservation efforts (NIGERIA, 2019). The perennial problem of shortage of grazing lands for herders which brings them into deadly clashes can also be prevented by a deliberate policy that diminishes open grazing while promoting the practice of ranching as The National Livestock Transformation Plan attempts to do. This must however be supported with a security structure specifically articulated to mitigate the security threats to the grazing areas, as early challenges already suggest (ONUOHA; OGBONANYA, 2020).

Despite this articulation, and the presence of certain organisations, focused on environmental management and conservation, such as the National Emergency Management Agency, the National Park Service or the National Inland Waterways Authority (NIWA), the efficacy of these outfits is undermined by a lack of integration alluded to in the NSS. Nigeria should therefore articulate specific policies that bring together capabilities required for search and rescue, environmental protection and management which are already inherent among the security organisations under one structure, for effectiveness. For instance, a strategic project to recharge and maintain the Lake Chad should be articulated with the inclusion of the Nigerian Navy, NIWA and the Army. This ensures that the structure and employment of security organisations is based on threat prevention and mitigation rather than institutional approaches.

Strategic implementation of policies such as mass education of individuals at all levels such as the one adopted in Brazil, should be replicated in Nigeria's learning and religious institutions, in order to curb intractable conflicts in the country. Such strategic security and educational policies should introduce programs targeted at preventing community violence, drug abuse, crime, murder, terrorism and banditry (ONYEMAECHI; STEPHEN, 2014).

Achieving national security to a great extent still depends on military, police and associated security operatives. To this extent, these institutions deserve strengthening and reorganisation through adequate legislation and provisions in the Nigerian National Security Policy. The legislations and policy initiatives must also address the problem of coordination that persists otherwise this will continuously constrain and block the attainment of national security (NWEKE, 2011).

4 Conclusion

All nations of the world face one security challenge or the other. Nigeria and Brazil are no exceptions and have grappled with these problems with varying degrees of success. On the Brazilian side, recent changes in legislation have ushered new structures in the security apparatus. These changes have allowed for holistic long term approaches to addressing the root causes of crime and violence stemming from resource exploitation, gang violence and drugs. Specific policies have also been aimed at improving education and preventing the rise in income inequality. While the security problems in Nigeria far outnumber those of Brazil, the strategy of institutionalising reforms in Brazil could certainly be beneficial to Nigeria. Successive Nigerian governments have faced great challenges in efforts to guarantee security in the country. The most prevalent threats have included abject and persistent poverty, terror attacks, kidnapping, herder-farmers clashes and ethno-religious conflicts. Additionally, wide income disparity and inequality, social exclusion and the scramble for natural resources such as grazing lands, mineral resources and oil wealth have led to large scale insecurity, threatening to turn Africa's most populous country into a failed state. Ironically, the presence of multiple security agencies operating in the same space and the increasing spate of insecurity

suggests that a more comprehensive security policy should be articulated. Specific policy formulations should be made to address the root causes of unrest, such as trafficking in small arms, illegal grazing and minerals extraction. Additionally, the security policy must restructure and realign the security agencies in order to prepare them to meet the peculiar asymmetric threats of the 21st century.

This paper examined the peculiarities of the Brazilian system and how specific injects in the END, enhanced the ability of the Armed Forces to participate in law enforcement operations in the Amazon region, the extent of the land borders and in coastal activities in the Blue Amazon. These policy initiatives provided the framework for strategic programs such as SISFRON which prevents the activities of smugglers, traffickers and illegal migration within 150km of Brazilian border space. Given the peculiarities of the Nigerian security environment and the lack of coordinated efforts within the various security agencies, a proposition to create structures than occupy and monitor the ungoverned spaces in the Lake Chad region, enhance navigability and thereby increase economic activity is suggested. Such a policy direction would prevent the use of this ungoverned space by terrorist groups, as it would also prevent the continued degradation of the environmental resource.

Despite the presence of the military and stand alone immigration and customs forces, securing the expansive northern and eastern borders of Nigeria has remained a challenge that the country has yet to surmount. This paper argues that a comprehensive national security policy has the potential to significantly reduce economic insecurities and enhance economic efficiency, equity, growth, and stability given the socio-economic inequality in the country. It would also reposition the security agencies to effectively prevent emerging threats at their root, rather than respond to them at a mature stage of development. Such a policy direction also ensures the strategic and continued evolution of the security agencies and ensures that the country's high spending on security has a spin off effect on the economy of the country. Noting that insecurity in Nigeria has displaced millions of people resulting in extreme economic and security pressures, a realignment of the national security policy to deliver specific programs that address the root causes of conflict is paramount.

Finally, if the governments' quest to mitigate insecurity is to succeed, it must address the identified problems with the security institutions and enable them to act, by way of legislation. The government must institutionalise and build on appropriate accountability and transparency mechanisms within the institutions while demonstrating good governance and the political will to address the security challenges. The war against insecurity should be won by raising governance standards. Accordingly, legislation, policy and strategies must be reworked with a focus on addressing the identified threats to insecurity. As the National Security Adviser (NSA) stated during the official launch of the NSS 2019, "a national security strategy document is meaningless if its contents are not holistically implemented" (NIGERIA, 2019).

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