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# **Introduction**

The nexus between society and education is a very crucial one. This relationship has elicited contestations amongst educationists, sociologists, social scientists and scholars who argue that there is no society without education and vice versa. This underscores the fact that both are complementary of one another. Most societies, if not all, have educational institutions as one of their major structures for societal development. Education performs multifaceted functions in the society, and connects as well as reinforces other sub-systems in the society. Some of the functions that education performs in the society include shaping it, transmitting societal norms and values through socialization, building capacity and developing manpower that facilitate growth and development.

Against the above backdrop, the interconnectedness between education and society cannot be overemphasized. This can be better illustrated by using the experiences of African countries that are characterized by the challenges like poverty, unemployment, etc. When young minds are not educated, the tendency for them to delve into activities which do not benefit them or the society is high. While scholars argue that there are different aspects to education, there seems to be a consensus on its centrality as the fulcrum for societal development. Therefore, it is agreed that education is a means to break the cycle of poverty, bridge the inequality gap, cope and adapt to the ever changing dynamics of the society.

There is a paucity of intellectual and academic platforms upon which discourses on issues that bother on society and education in developing countries, especially, Africa are organized. Most of the existing academic journals treat peripheral issues on the relationship between society and education. Those in the Humanities and Social Sciences focus on select issues of narrow interests. Therefore, *The Journal of Contemporary Society and Education* seeks to fill this critical gap. The journal is established to treat issues of the society and education in holistic ways that will adequately cover all aspects of the society and education. The journal will provide a veritable platform for educationists, administrators, policy makers, sociologists, social scientists and scholars to identify, interrogate, analyze and offer insights as well as present practicable solutions to pressing societal issues.

## **Aim and Scope of the Journal**

The Journal is an avenue to discuss issues on the relations between society and education concerning Africa in all ramifications. Thus, it covers theoretical, policy, conceptual, empirical issues as well as the trends and dynamics in society and education nexus in Africa. As a result, original and review articles in education, history, arts and culture, economics, sociology, psychology and related fields will be published in the journal.

# Issues

This journal will be published four times in year, which implies that an Issue will be published in each quarter of a year. The journal will be committed to best practices in academic journal publication. Hence, there will be double blind review for every article submitted to this journal. Furthermore, the journal will be abstracted and indexed in the most authoritative databases in the world such as EBSCO, ProQuest, J-Gate and Sabinet and accredited by IBSS and Scopus.

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## **EDITORIAL NOTE**

The quest for meaningful development among nations has led to unending discussion among scholars and policymakers on critical sectors like industrialization, education, security, human rights, political institutions, governance, economy, and migration. The importance of these sectors to society's overall development ensures that scholars and experts are continually engaged in brainstorming, deliberations, research, and critical thinking on possible ways of addressing this dilemma. Despite these spirited efforts and including external support, attaining meaningful development remains elusive in Africa. While these challenges have persisted, there is an urgent need to close this gap in tandem with the Sustainable Development Goals of 2030. African leaders, scholars, policymakers, and even experts must continue to engage this issue in a broader perspective to address this developmental tragedy and equally attain equal status with their western counterparts.

Therefore, the Journal of Contemporary Society & Education (JCSE) evolved to address these most complex challenges through several volume publications. Acknowledging these developmental gaps' negative impact on the African continent, the JSCE ensures that manuscripts accepted are tailored towards addressing this development gap. These articles were considered and selected from various related disciplines and peer-reviewed according to established standards.

Accordingly, this special JCSE issue would primarily focus on security, health, governance, education, Covid-19 pandemic, ICT, tourism, election, leadership, industrialization, community participation, post-election violence, migration dynamics, refugee and the role of the development institutions.

Thanks to the team members whose tireless efforts have sustained the JSCE journal's volume publication series. Also, this volume will be incomplete without recognizing the enormous efforts of our anonymous reviewers, contributors, and publishers, Adonis & Abbey, for all their strenuous efforts in ensuring the smooth publishing of this issue.

Dr. Erameh Nicholas Idris  
Department of Political Studies and International Relations  
North West University (Mafikeng Campus)  
South Africa  
eramehnicholas@gmail.com

## **Health Security in Changing and Challenging World and the Lessons from Covid-19 Pandemic**

**Emmanuel Chinjindu ANABIRI, PhD**

Department of Political Science,  
University of Ibadan, Oyo State  
+2348034086386, [anabirie@gail.com](mailto:anabirie@gail.com)

### **ABSTRACT**

The Covid-19 pandemic did not just cause unimaginable health, political and economic disaster to a troubled world ravaged by conflict and other human security challenges. Still, it reemphasized the importance of health security in the changing world of the 21st century. This paper examined the challenges and prospects of health security in the 21st century. Secondary information made an inroad into the conceptualization of health security and how this conceptualization has changed in the 21st century. It established the relationship between health and security and outlined some of the challenges and prospects of health security in the 21st century. It finds that the challenges of global health security in the 21st century are enormous. It started from the mistrust between the West and the developing world created by the conspiracy theorists, the individualist nature of foreign policy in the 21st century, weak leadership in the world health governing body World Health Organization (WHO), and the lack of cooperation, collaboration and blame game politics existing among the global superpowers. It argued that the need for cooperation, collaboration, and seeing the international

community as a unit is never more critical than in this period if the world will surmount the challenges of global health security.

*Keywords: Covid-19, Security, Pandemic Health Security.*

## **Introduction**

The outbreak of infectious diseases can be dangerous than world wars. For instance, it was argued that the two world wars, particularly the First World War, which was described as the deadliest war in the history of man, killed an estimated 20 million military and civilians but, the 'Spanish Flue' of 1918 killed an estimated 50 million people (Johnson and Mueller, 2002). The overwhelming death toll was greeted by economic, political, and social challenges, which made life unbearable even to the people who survived the flue. This situation is likened to how an Irish Nuclear scientist described the aftermath of nuclear war; according to him, after a nuclear war, the world will become a republic of ants and grasses because even those who survived the atomic armageddon cannot live everyday life. After all, even the water and food will be contaminated by radiation, making it dangerous to consume.

Accordingly, in the 21st Century, there have been significant changes in the way, and manner security is conceptualized and understood. Before the 21st Century, the concept of security was seen from the Barry Buzan missile tube standpoint, where security was understood from the physical aspect of security. The securitization of a country was measured according to the number of armament and military capabilities a nation possesses. During this period, countries like the United States,

Russia, Britain, and other world powers that command a substantial land army and formidable air force with nuclear bombs are seen to have adequate security. Remarkably, in the 21st Century, the concept of security has been revolutionized as human security took the dominant stage in international security discussion.

Issues bordering on unemployment, economic depression, hunger, and health issues such as a pandemic, epidemic, and outbreaks dominate national and international security summits, conferences, and workshops. However, the changes in global health security are occurred because of three important things that have happened in the last decade. First, the scope of what is considered a security threat has expanded beyond what has previously been evaluated by the global health security regime, necessitating a new name or vocabulary to allow the claim to gain currency. For example, prejudice is seen as a threat to national security. Racism is an issue, according to Dr. Rochelle Walensky, director of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).

Racism is a significant public health threat that has a direct impact on millions of people's lives. The CDC has now joined other health associations, such as the American Medical Association, making this announcement. In November 2020, the latter released a new policy recognizing racism as a public health problem. 'Racism is not just prejudiced against one group based on their skin color,' Walensky said. Racism encompasses prejudice against one group based on the color of their skin,

race, or ethnicity, and the social barriers that affect racial and ethnic groups differently, influencing where people live, work, play, worship, and gather in culture. Men are negatively affected by these social determinants of health for the rest of their lives, affecting the mental and physical health of individuals in communities of color. Second, military contribution in health security activities connotes a radical departure from a global health security narrative based on the logic of the Copenhagen School to a more traditional, 'boots on the ground' security response to an external threat (Diskaya, 2013; Attina, 2016).

This has real consequences for global health security operations. It risks jeopardizing international audiences' potential recognition of global health security activities if they view them as military interventions and the willingness to take extraordinary steps that might be needed. Third, due to those undertaking, global health security is now facing an ontological challenge as those undertaking this activity have themselves become security targets.

The international community faces monumental threats from infectious diseases, as demonstrated by the Ebola crisis and the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. Ebola is still largely confined to three small West African countries, but the COVID-19 have had a global coverage causing the death of millions of human life and raving global economic system; in other words, human, social, and financial losses caused by these pandemics are already high, and if the crisis is not contained, the damaging health and economic impacts will become irredeemable as more

life would be lost. A recent World Bank report argued that pandemics is one of the three significant global risks; together with climate change and financial crises, most official discussions, reports, and communications take no notice of pandemic risk.

The economic implication of the global health crisis is compelling. First, it creates fear which can spread faster than the disease; the fear changes consumer, business, and government behavior like it did, like the heat of the COVID-19 pandemic. For instance, though it was quickly contained in 2003, SARS cost \$54 billion, a toll driven by shocks to business and consumer confidence. The Ebola outbreak also severely disrupted trade, production, and health care in the most affected countries. The COVID-19 pandemic presently has caused remarkable damage to the human race globally; according to data from the World Health Organization as of 20:42 of 21/04/2021, 3,037,398 have lost their lives because of the COVID-19 pandemic and the projection from the International Monetary Fund (IMF), COVID-19 pandemic will cost the world \$28tn. Thus, the U.S. Department of Defense has characterized the COVID-19 pandemic, and another global pandemic in the future be equivalent of a "global war."

### **Conceptualizing Health Security**

The concept of health security has generated a lot of interpretation due to its nature and dynamism. People use the terminology of health security based on how it affects them or addresses their point of view. However, Aldis (2008:1) argued

that irrespective of a plethora of studies on human security, health security, and global public health security, there is still no existing universally acceptable definition to the concept of health security. He further argued that the widespread though inconsistent use of the terminology by public health stakeholders had created more confusion and mistrust on the use of the phenomenon of health security. Accordingly, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) conceive health security from the human security standpoint. It argues that health security is the security of individuals and nation-states and as a platform for sustainable development. It identified seven categories of threats to human security: economic, food scarcity, health, environment, personal, community, and political. This report began linking health concerns to human security, a process that many writers have taken forward (Chen et al., 2003). An elaborate and fascinating definition of health security was given in the preamble to the 1946 constitution of the World Health Organization. Thus, it argued that health security is happiness, harmonious relations, and security of all peoples. The constitution states that 'the health of all peoples is fundamental to attaining peace and security (WHO 2005a). As used here, security seems to refer to 'health and security (the contribution that health makes to global security) rather than to health security (securing health itself).

Accordingly, irony has been created in the interpretation of what constitutes health security. One of the ironies is that numerous advocacy groups and policy advocates have used the phrase "public health security" to drive their issues higher up the

political agenda, acknowledging that security is a top priority in national, regional, and global decision-making. However, the result of hijacking this conversation to serve issues that do not suit the fast-moving and unknown pathogen is the potential for the worldwide health protection narrative to lose control in the future. The danger for infectious disease control is that the "crying wolf" in other health policy fields may directly negatively impact the response to a potentially catastrophic outbreak. Public health security fatigue becomes a significant issue, limiting viewers' acceptance of global health security rhetoric and, as a result, preventing the adoption of emergency measures. As a result, if the worldwide audience grows tired of the global health security paradigm, this broadening of the health security discourse may become cannibalistic to the concept itself if the global audience grows tired of the global health security narrative or accepts the expanding securitization formula.

There is equally a disconnection between the academics and policy-makers understandings of what constitutes health security and how the concept was formally used. In the foundational "*World Health Report* of 2007", the problem posed to health security is defined as ranging from emerging pathogens to economic instability, international crises and humanitarian emergencies, chemical, radioactive, and biological terror threats, environmental change, and weak health systems (Aldis, 2008). Thus, an alternative explanation is not that there has been an expansion of issues considered to be

health threats but that the concept has not been used to the extent intended by the norm entrepreneurs that championed its use.

### **Health and Security Nexus**

The relationship between health and security has become a dominant factor within health policy over the past two decades. While inquiry on the issue varies in analytical standpoints, from the global to the national to the individual, as well as in the understanding of what constitutes security threat and in the treatment of the process of achieving adequate security, it is imperative to state that the global health security discuss made significant change in three fundamental ways. First, the concept has gained broader meaning to the point that vast health issues (and others) are conceived as threats to health security. Second, creating health security has gone beyond emotional configurations to include the direct engagement of the security sector. Third, the performance of health security on its own constitutes a health security threat, which has adversely affected the global health security record (Wenham, 2019). There is a need for the global health community to fully know these changes and make amends to adapt to the application of security-focused policies as they ought to be. This poses important considerations for future developments in health security policy, particularly relating to the longevity of the concept and the need for greater sustainability in global health security interventions (Wenham, 2019:110).

To come to terms with the foregoing discussion, this essay rooted the evolution of health security conceptually. The

previous research has traced the evolution through institutional expansion, policy change, or its historical evolution from the International Sanitary Conferences, but this quickly emphasized the different uses of the global health security narrative. Hence, it argues that irrespective of a proposition of a narrow, commonly recognized knowledge of what is known as a global health security concern, the idea of global health security has never been concentrated or limited to one issue. But, a dynamic concept has altered depending on the context, pathogen, and who/what is at risk. Also, it argues that the world has gotten to an essential point in global health security. It is essential to think about what the term can offer and the limitations of the policy response as it concerns the responsible and realistic control of infectious disease and the sustainability of global health. There is also a need to differentiate between global health emergencies, global security threats, global security risks, and global security concerns to provide a shade for global health discussion and engagement.

### **Problems and Prospects of Health Security in the 21st Century**

In the 21st Century, health security has become more important than any other century due to the emergence of new technologies and ways of transmitting infectious diseases worldwide. However, addressing global health security has been visited with some challenges, including the international power competition between superpowers, which have to reduce international cooperation and collaboration. There is also the issue of mistrust of developing and underdeveloped nations on

the health security initiatives propagated by the west. Consequently, the power politics between the developed nations, better described as superpowers, have jeopardized global health security.

Recently, the World Health Organization WHO has been engulfed with controversies regarding the issue of coronavirus response, there has been an accusation and conspiracy theory by the United States of America championed by the Donald Trump administration that the WHO is corrupt have been supporting a covering, China. The United States argued that WHO has failed to address issues such as; where did coronavirus originate? If Wuhan is the origin of coronavirus, as debated in the media, why did China conceal information from the rest of the world? And what has WHO done to bring China to account for the global damages caused by the virus?. The United States claimed that the virus was part of a Chinese covert biological weapons program (Sardarizadeh and Robinson, 2020:2). However, the Chinese believed that the United States created the virus that causes the COVID-19 (Atlantic Council's Digital Forensic Lab).

The United States, through the Trump administration, sought for the reform of the organization, and to achieve that, it withdrew its membership and financial support to the organization. Other leading powers who are allies to the United States also sought accountability and echoed their support for reform of the institution of WHO. The consequences of this controversy were very detrimental, especially as it regards meeting up with

controlling the surge and limiting the devastating effect of the coronavirus globally; first, the United States is a leading financier of the organization, and by withdrawing its support, the organization lost its financial capacity to address the difficult challenges of the coronavirus globally; also, the global body lost its credibility and support when the United States questioned its ability to carry out its obligations objectively.

The accusation and counter-accusation between the United States and China on the origin of coronavirus and all the diplomatic conflicts that followed diverted the global attention to the power politics instead of global cooperation and collaboration needed. It also delayed the effort to support R&D (research and development) to reduce the spread of the virus and the deaths rate. The systemic nature of the international system was suspended, and countries, especially the United States, sought isolationism which is in tandem with President Trump's foreign policy mantra on "America First"; thus, the lack of global cooperation created critical issues to developing and underdeveloped countries especially among nations that their health system or sector is still beggarly. These countries found themselves in a 'gray zone, characterized by fear, confusion, and perplexity. They were projected to experience high infection and death rates if the world refuses to cooperate and collaborate.

Furthermore, the lack of global cooperation and collaboration between the superpowers created mistrust among developing and underdeveloped nations. Most of these nations in Africa

started questioning the health security initiative of the global superpowers. In "*Why Many Africans are Wary of COVID-19 Vaccines*", Ngutjinazo (2021) argued that many Africans remain skeptical about the safety of the coronavirus vaccine. According to him, these doubts are borne out of conspiracy. The majority of her citizens labeled vaccine development as an attempt to eliminate or reduce the population of the black race. Even among Christians in the African continent, there was a conspiracy theory championed by pastors of Pentecostal churches that the vaccine was to fulfill the prophecy of the 'mark of the beast' which was recorded in the book of revelation in the bible; these pastors encouraged her members not to take the vaccine, they even went further to deny the existence of the coronavirus.

According to them, the coronavirus campaign was meant to use the instrument of 'hybrid war' such as the media to instill fear in the people who will make way for the people they call the enemies of the body of Jesus Christ to develop a vaccine which will come in the form of a chip that will put the mark of the beast in the DNA of human being. There is equally a conspiracy among the intelligentsia that there are different vaccines for different people, some argued that the type of vaccine shipped to the underdeveloped countries is different from those used or administered to people in the developed countries, these group of scholars sought for a homegrown vaccine to address the issue of the virus, they pushed for support for local R & D by the government and private sector. The mistrust, confusion created by these narratives limited the effort of the WHO to seek

collaboration from nations of the world to collectively address the global pandemic that needed the collaborative effort of every country. This made coronavirus more devastating and one of the most significant security threats in human history.

### **Prospects**

An outbreak in Wuhan became an epidemic in China and finally metamorphosed into a global pandemic, causing millions of death and tremendous damage to the economic and social system of the world because of lack of cooperation and collaboration among the global actors. They sought an individualistic solution to a problem that demands a collective and collaborative effort. The coronavirus and future infectious diseases will continue to constitute a global health security threat until the international community, and its actors start to see the international system like the David Easton, Ludwig von Bertalanffy system perspective (Bump et al., 2020:3). The global west must see themselves as partners in progress and not competitors, especially on health security issues; they must understand that when there is an impairment in one part of the system, particularly on health-related issues, there is an impairment in the general plan.

This sense of collectivism will engineer cooperation and collaboration, which will help eliminate or reduce all health security threats and make the world a safer place for all. For instance, if the United States and China did not engage in the 'blame game' on the origin of the coronavirus and if China on her part had provided all the information on the virus to the

United States and other nations on the virus and if the international community had immediately sought for global action and declared a state of emergency on the virus through the WHO, the coronavirus would have been just an outbreak limited to the Wuhan community. More than that, WHO leadership had been proactive by demanding China or the United States as the case may be to account and take responsibility for the virus from the outbreak stage of the virus. It would have saved the world from the unprecedented damage caused by the virus. Finally, if the United States and particularly, if the Trump administration had provided the leadership expected from it without recourse to power politics, it would have commanded international cooperation through its wealth of goodwill and reduced the virus's spread even in the United States.

On this note, it is imperative to state that, to address the challenges of the coronavirus, which possesses dangerous health security threat and equally to be prepared for future spread of infectious disease, the international community must cooperate and collaborate, it must avoid politicizing health security issues because of its nature and dynamism. The international community must provide adequate funds to the WHO. A responsible reform should be carried out on the organization's leadership to make it more proactive to tackle the tasking nature of addressing infectious disease in the 21st Century.

The global actors must come to the aid of the developing nations, and the leadership of these nations must develop their health systems to confront the challenges of global health security threats. Also, the WHO must be positioned to make governments accountable and take responsibility if its actions constitute any health security threat to the world. Thus, a World Bank study (2012) found that spending \$3.4 billion annually will put all developed economies' veterinary and human public health systems up to the World Health Organization and the World Organization for Animal Health's performance standards. Early identification, accurate diagnosis, and timely and successful contagion prevention are all covered by the guidelines. These criteria were not met by any of the countries affected by the 2014 Ebola outbreak.) As a result, robust public health systems will contain pathogens that can cause pandemics and other locally dangerous diseases. (Jonas, 2014).

## **Conclusion**

Health is wealth, and ignorance on health security constitutes a threat to life and human development. Health security in the 21st Century comprises one of the most debated issues in the media, academia, and the decision-making community. The devastating effect of the coronavirus, for instance, has created a new consciousness in the world on the dangers posed by a health security threat. Thus, the death, economic and social issues the coronavirus has developed will take decades to be addressed. This essay discussed health security and its threat to the international community, especially in the 21st Century, where the spread of infectious disease has been revolutionized. The

mechanism to reduce and eliminate the spread of the virus has been politicized. This essay argued that conceptualizing health security is problematic because of the diverse interest in using the terminology.

It established the connection between health and safety; it argued that the phenomenon of health security has gone through three changes such as the conceptualization of a very wild array of issues as a health threat such as racism; second, there is a movement away from emotional trappings, and the inclusion of security actors in the health security discuss and finally, the performance of health security itself constitutes a new form of security threat. It also argued that the challenges of health security in the 21st Century are enormous. These challenges stem from a lack of effective international collaboration and cooperation among superpowers and the tendency to limit global health security threats to mere power politics. It maintained that mistrust among the underdeveloped countries on the health initiatives of the west had been a significant impediment to constructing a health security formula that can work for everyone, especially in an era of global pandemics like coronavirus.

The weakness of the WHO and its leadership failure to demand accountability on nations, especially when their actions pose a health security threat to the international community, was discussed as part of health security challenges in the 21st Century. Again, the withdrawal of funding to WHO by its strong financiers like the United States limited the efficacy of the

organization in developing functional R & D that can help to create a body of knowledge and framework that can help the world respond to infectious diseases like the coronavirus was addressed as a challenge. And finally, the tendency to see the world from the individualist prism instead of a system made the required collaboration needed to address the health security threat impossible. It suggests that the international community must collaborate and cooperate as a matter of necessity to address the health security threat posed by a coronavirus and other future infectious diseases. It warned against the politicization of health security issues.

It made a case for the reform of the leadership of the WHO to make it more effective in carrying out its constituted responsibilities, such as making nations accountable for their actions, significantly when those actions damage the health security of the global community. It argued for more funding to the WHO and the need for moral, financial, and technical assistance to the developing world to build their health system and make it adequate to confront the challenges of infectious diseases like the coronavirus. and finally, it argued for the acknowledgment of the global actors on the international community's philosophy as a system that has an interrelated part that must cooperate and collaborate to maintain balance, especially on the issue of infectious diseases that seeks to create a global 'Armageddon.'

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## **The Nigerian Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC) and the Promotion of Human Security in Nigeria**

Dr. Oladiran Afolabi

Political Science and International Relations

Bowen University, Iwo, Nigeria.

(E-mail: [oladiran.afolabi@bowen.edu.ng](mailto:oladiran.afolabi@bowen.edu.ng);

[oladiranafolabi73@gmail.com](mailto:oladiranafolabi73@gmail.com))

### **Abstract**

Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC) is a para-military agency of the Government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria that is established to provide measures against threat and any form of attack or disaster against the nation and its citizenry. Using interpretative analysis this paper examines the extent to which the NSCDC has been contributing to human security since its inception in 2003. It discusses the concepts of national and human security with a view of setting the theoretical basis for the study. Based on the analysis, the paper suggests that the Government should provide strengthen the NSCDC with necessary operational gadgets and equipment so that it could further contribute to human and national security in the country. We argue that citizen-friendly operational strategy which the NSCDC has been using to carry out its statutory duties has enabled the Corps to contribute to meaningfully to human security in Nigeria. The presence of NSCDC officers dispels fear wherever they are deployed to carry out assignment. The tranquilizing effect of the presence of the NSCDC officers has greatly contributed to promotion of human security in

Nigeria. For this reason, people feel at home with the presence of the NSCDC officers than with the presence of Police officer

**Keywords:** National security, human security, citizen-friendly and NSCDC.

## **Introduction**

Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC) is a paramilitary agency of the Government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria that is established to provide measures against threat and any form of attack or disaster against the nation and its citizenry. The nucleus of today's NSCDC started operations as a voluntary organization; before it was appropriated as a statutorily security outfit by virtue of an establishing Act No. 2 of 2003 and amended by Act 6 of 4th June 2007, by which it was constitutionally mandated to bear arms. Its organizational growth, have traversed two other phases in the past - voluntary and statutory eras; it is now in its full-fledge stage of development which is the arm bearing era.

The NSCDC was actually established in Nigeria on May 23<sup>rd</sup>, 1967 during the Civil War in Lagos. It was initially referred to as the Lagos Civil Defence Committee with the fundamental responsibility of enlightening the Lagos Public on safety precaution during the Civil War. The Charter of April 6<sup>th</sup> 1968, however, made it possible for states that may wish to establish the Corps within their jurisdiction to do so. For about 36 years (1967-2003) the Corps operated essentially as a voluntary organization. But in 2003 it was established by an Act of Parliament as a statutory security outfit by the Federal

Government and brought under the supervision of the Federal Ministry of Interior. The day to day activities of the Corps is overseen by the Immigration Prisons Services Board established under the Immigration and Prisons Services Board Act, 1986, as amended. The Corps became the 66<sup>th</sup> member state of the International Civil Defence organization (ICDO) in Geneva Switzerland in 2004. The statutory responsibilities and functions of the Corps are contained in both Establishing Act (2003) and in the Amendment Act 6 of 4th June 2007.

This paper examines the extent to which the NSCDC has been contributing to human security since its inception in 2003. For the sake of analytical clarity, the remainder of this paper is divided into four parts, the first part, discusses the Nigeria security architecture by looking at the constitutional provisions and components of national security in Nigeria; this is followed by conceptual analysis of national Security and human Security, in the third part we give a close-shot analysis of how the Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC) has been promoting human security in Nigeria, the final part concludes the paper.

### **Constitutional Provisions on National Security in Nigeria**

The Nigerian Constitution makes robust provisions for adequate protection of lives and property of citizens, which is the primary objective of the state, to wit: Section (14) of the Constitution states that: ‘the security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government’, this provision encapsulates the main objectives of the state which are the assurance of national

security and the provision of welfare services. While the former will guarantee security of lives and property the latter is intended to dissuade citizens from engaging in criminal, sabotage or nefarious acts that may threaten security of lives and property.

The Nigeria's National Security architecture as enshrined in the provisions of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic makes constitutional basis for all security agencies in the country. As a matter of fact the Police Force derives its mandate from Sections (214) and (217) makes provision for military and other security agencies like the Nigeria Security and Civil Defence Corps (NSCDC), Federal Road Safety Corps (Corps), Nigeria Customs Services among others, to wit:

214. (1) There shall be a police force for Nigeria, which shall be known as the Nigeria Police Force, and subject to the provisions of this section no other police force shall be established for the Federation or any part thereof.

217. (1) There shall be an armed forces for the Federation which shall consist of an army, a navy, an Air Force and such other branches of the armed forces of the Federation as may be established by an Act of the National Assembly.

While the military is basically mandated to repel external aggression, be it on the land, air or in the sea, the other security agencies are set up primarily to maintain law and order within the state. They are also to ensure that no group under whatsoever

name contests the monopoly of the use of legitimate violence within the state. With end of the Cold War era, most of the African states have been confronting gargantuan internal security challenges with corresponding less security threats from outside. The implication of this is that there has been more pressure on the security agencies whose primary assignment is to ensure law and order within the state. As they are now overburdened, the military especially the Army has been drafted to support the police in quelling internal security challenges. In point of fact, the national security framework as stipulated in the Constitution, is holistic and adequate, this is evident in provisions cited above. Recently, the Nigerian state is confronted with multifarious security challenges, emanating from the activities of criminals involving in oil bunkering, pipeline vandalism, kidnapping, armed robbery, oil militants and religious militants.

## **Conceptualizing National and Human Security**

### **National Security**

Conceptualizing national security has remain controversial essentially because of the disagreement between the traditional idea of national security that is state-centric and which focused basically on protecting the state from external aggression through military capability. This idea has been seriously questioned by dynamics of the contemporary challenges to national security. With the end of the Cold War era, activities of international terrorist groups and the insurgent groups within the state have compelled scholars to re-examine idea of national

security. Human security has therefore emerged as an alternative view to the traditional state-centric idea of national security. Scholars believe that human security, will adequately address the threats pose by insurgent groups; however, its ability to checkmate security threats pose by non-state actors is still debatable. As indicated in the introductory part above, for our purpose we shall discuss both traditional ideas of national security and human security with a view of crystallizing differences in the two perspectives.

The concept of national security has both traditional and contemporary perspectives. The traditional perspective is rooted in the realists' school of thought that is essentially militaristic while the other perspective is rooted in the idealist tradition, which emphasizes other non-military security issues such as human security, environmental security, energy security and others. In the contemporary world, threats to national security are not only caused by state actors but more by non-state actors like the militia groups, hostage takers, local terrorist groups, economic saboteurs who engage in pipeline vandals and others.

The traditional perspective of national security was the dominant idea after the Second World War and during the Cold War era, but following the end of the Cold War era in the early 1989 the contemporary definition of national security gained ascendancy. The early definitions of national security have been influenced by the prevailing realists view. For Farlex dictionary, national security is "the requirement to maintain the survival of the nation-state through the use of economic, military and

political power and the exercise of diplomacy." Lippmann (1943) contends that: "A nation has national security when it does not have to resort to war, or the threat of war, to preserve its legitimate interests." This definition depicts the motivation for arms race during the Cold War era. Nations acquire military capabilities in order to deter external aggression. In essence, the acquisition of military might is not to put it into use but to show-off readiness to repel any external threat.

Following similar tradition, Harold Lasswell, (1950) posits that: "The distinctive meaning of national security means freedom from foreign dictation." For Lasswell, therefore national security is the minimum requirement for the protection of a state against external invasion. As it can be seen he did not reckon with other non-state actors within a state that threatens its survival. For instance, Libya is country whose national security is being threatened by non-state actors within its borders before and after the killing Mohamed Ghadaffi. Harold Brown, who was former U.S. Secretary of Defense (1977 – 1981) in his 1983 book *Thinking About National Security: Defense and Foreign Policy in a Dangerous orld*, opines that national security is: 'The ability to preserve the nation's physical integrity and territory; to maintain its economic relations with the rest of the world on reasonable terms; to preserve its nature, institution, and governance from disruption from outside; and to control its borders.' But Charles Maier's (1990) gives a more encompassing view of national security when he asserts that:

National security... is best described as a capacity to control those domestic and foreign conditions that the public opinion of a given community believes necessary to enjoy its own self-determination or autonomy, prosperity and wellbeing.

From the foregoing, it can be seen that the holistic idea of national security is the contemporary one, that factors in security threats from within or outside the state. This contemporary perspective has both military and non-military elements, some of which are military security, political security, human security, energy security among others. Former Nigerian Head of State, General Abudusalami Abubakar (2004) observes that human security is needed for the attainment of physical and national security. According to him:

Recent international debates have also raised the need to see security in the broader sense as the struggle to secure the most basic necessities of life: food, fuel, medicine and shelter. This broader human security is important for the attainment of physical and national security and overall peace and development as social unrests arising from the absence of such basic human security can indeed lead to security problems and conflicts.

Be that as it may, military security has been defined by the *Dictionary of Military and Associated Terms*, as a ‘condition that results from the establishment and maintenance of protective measures that ensure a state of inviolability from hostile acts or influences.’ This definition focuses more on

repelling external aggression but underrated internal security threats. On the other hand, political security, relates with the stability of the social order. The social order in a state is influenced by patterns and modes of interactions between different social groups in a state. For instance perennial violent protest by a particular section of a state will upset the social order and threaten national security. In Nigeria, Boko Haram insurgency, armed militia groups, hostage taking, bombings, and political or religious violent protest are some of the security challenges threatening stability of the social order. (Ajao: 2011)

### **Human Security**

Human security is an emerging paradigm for understanding global vulnerabilities whose proponents challenge the traditional notion of national security of by arguing that the proper referent for security should be the individual rather than the state (state-centric). Human security holds that a people-centered view of security is necessary for national, regional and global development and stability. According to Thomas (2001:67), the concept emerged from a post-Cold War era, multi-disciplinary understanding of security involving a number of research fields, including development studies, human relations, studies, strategic studies and human rights. However, the United Nations Development Programme's 1994 Human Development Report is considered a milestone publication in the field of human security, with its argument that insuring "freedom from want" and "freedom from fear" for all persons is the best path to tackle the problem of global insecurity.

The 1994 *Human Development Report*, which was drafted and championed by Mahbub ul Haq, popularized the term human security. The intent of human security was to bridge the freedom from want and freedom from fear, freedoms that lay at the heart of the United Nations. As far back as June 1945, the U.S. Secretary of State reported this to his government on the results of the San Francisco Conference:

The battle of peace has to be fought on two fronts. The first is the security front where victory spells freedom from fear. The second is the economic and social front where victory means freedom from want. Only victory on both fronts can assure the world of an enduring peace.... No Provisions that can be written into the Charter will enable the Security Council to make the world secure from war if men and women have no security in their homes and their jobs' cited in Schnabel, (2001).

As the quotation suggests, the phrase 'freedom from fear' is intended to indicate freedom from violence, and the phrase 'freedom from want', implies freedom from poverty. It is important to bear this mental equation in mind, because of course people also fear poverty and destitution; they also want peace and police protection. Also, although Buddhism might arguably offer the most effective response to 'freedom from want', the envisioned responses are political, social, economic, and environmental in nature (Wikipedia: 2011). The UNDP's 1994 Human Development Report's definition of human security argues that the scope of global security should be expanded to include threats in seven areas to wit:

**1. Economic security** — Economic security requires an assured basic income for individuals, usually from productive and remunerative work or, as a last resort, from a publicly financed safety net. In this sense, only about a quarter of the world's people are presently economically secure. While the economic security problem may be more serious in developing countries, concern also arises in developed countries as well. Unemployment problems constitute an important factor underlying political tensions and ethnic violence.

**2. Food security** — Food security requires that all people at all times have both physical and economic access to basic food. According to the United Nations, the overall availability of food is not a problem; rather the problem often is the poor distribution of food and a lack of purchasing power. In the past, food security problems have been dealt with at both national and global levels. However, their impacts are limited. According to UN, the key is to tackle the problems relating to access to assets, work and assured income (related to economic security).

**3. Health security** — Health Security aims to guarantee a minimum protection from diseases and unhealthy lifestyles. In developing countries, the major causes of death traditionally were infectious and parasitic diseases, whereas in industrialized countries, the major killers were diseases of the circulatory system. Today, lifestyle-related chronic diseases are leading killers worldwide, with 80 percent of deaths from chronic diseases occurring in low- and middle-income countries. According to the United Nations, in both developing and

industrial countries, threats to health security are usually greater for poor people in rural areas, particularly children. This is due to malnutrition and insufficient access to health services, clean water and other basic necessities. In Nigeria, the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) indicates government's commitment to health security of citizens.

**4. Environmental security** — Environmental security aims to protect people from the short- and long-term ravages of nature, man-made threats in nature, and deterioration of the natural environment. In developing countries, lack of access to clean water resources is one of the greatest environmental threats. In industrial countries, one of the major threats is air pollution. Global warming, caused by the emission of greenhouse gases, is another environmental security issue. The government has set up different agencies on sustainable uses of environmental resources, especially in the oil-rich Niger-Delta region

**5. Personal security** — Personal security aims to protect people from physical violence, whether from the state or external states, from violent individuals and sub-state actors, from domestic abuse, or from predatory adults. For many people, the greatest source of anxiety is crime, particularly violent crime. Sociologists have argued that deviants, that are inevitable part and parcel of any society endanger the lives of fellow citizens; it is therefore the duty of the through its security agencies to curb deviants, prosecute and punish them according to the law of the land.

**6. Community security** — Community security aims to protect people from the loss of traditional relationships and values and from sectarian and ethnic violence. Traditional communities, particularly minority ethnic groups are often threatened. About half of the world's states have experienced some inter-ethnic strife. The United Nations declared 1993 the Year of Indigenous People to highlight the continuing vulnerability of the 300 million aboriginal people in 70 countries as they face a widening spiral of violence. Jos crises typify the idea of community security.

**7. Political security** — Political security is concerned with whether people live in a society that honors their basic human rights including political right to choose their leaders (democracy). With the last general elections in Nigeria, in which the ruling party Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) peacefully handed over to the opposition party (All Progressives Congress APC), having lost in a keenly contested presidential election, push up the ranking of Nigeria in terms of political security. In addition, the signing into law the Freedom of Information Bill by former President Goodluck Jonathan implies that Nigeria is joining the league of emerging nations where political security is guaranteed. Uprisings in the North Africa (Arab Spring) are traceable to long years of autocratic regimes that have denied people political security.

However, it must be stated that addressing the above seven threats to human security constitute just necessary conditions not sufficient conditions for peace and order; this is because in

advanced countries where these human security threats have been well taken care of, there are still security breaches, orchestrated by their deviant citizens or external terrorist groups. The key premises of the 1994 UNDP report are (i) its joint focus on freedom from fear and freedom from want, and (ii) its four emphases on universality, interdependence, prevention, and people-centeredness. These formed, and continue to shape, human security discussions.

### **NSCDC and Human Security in Nigeria**

Arising from the conceptual clarification made above, it is clear that the core of human security is the freedom from fear and freedom from want. One of the after effects of the long years of military rule in Nigeria is that it has made the Police to develop thick skin. They have turned against the citizens they are meant to protect. Instead of being friendly with the citizens that they are employed and paid to protect; they have on many occasions harassed, terrorized, scandalized, criminalized and extorted innocent citizens who could have worked with them to enhance security.

The effect of the un-friendliness of Police is that, instead of Police presence to dispel fear (human security); their presence accentuates fear. The presence of law enforcement agents is supposed to dispel fear among the citizens. On the contrary their presence creates or multiplies fear. Without intention to water down the good work of the Nigeria Police, it must be stated here and now that in most cases the presence of the Police instead of dispelling fear, it generates fear among the people. This is not

supposed to be, in the advanced countries, the presence of Police dispels fear. However, in Nigeria, the moment a Police officer steps into a crime scene, people who could provide eye witness account would help the Police investigation will disappear from the scene because they did not have trust in the Police. They fear that the Police could use the eye witness account against to criminalize or scandalize them. As stated above, the prolonged military rule might have contributed to the dis-embeddedness of the Police from the society, resulting in fear among citizens rather than trust among them.

To be sure, the Police Authorities are aware that the citizens fear them and that their presence instead of freeing people from fear of violence, it is as a matter of fact adding to the fear. It is in recognition of this dilemma that the Police Authorities have been engaged in many trust-building activities such as encouraging and intensifying the spread of community policing. One of the popular slogans used to make people stop fearing the Police says: “Police is Your Friend!”

It is within the context of Police un-friendliness to the citizens and lack of trust in the Police that NSCDC was set up in 2003. At its inception, as a statutory paramilitary security agency, many assumed that the Corps was not strong enough to contribute meaningfully to the national security. However, with good leadership and the passage of the Amendment Act (2007); it has become clear to those who have reservation about the functionality and efficacy of the NSCDC that the Corps is well

suited to dispel fear in critical situations such as in crime situation, or during emergency or in cases of disaster.

Generally, people feel at home with the presence of the NSCDC officers than with the presence of Police officers, for two main reasons, people are very sure that by assisting or giving the NSCDC officers useful information for crime prevention or containment, they will not be scandalized at the end of the day; on the other hand, it is not very certain that by working or giving Police critical information on crime they will not be maliciously criminalized.

The argument is that citizen-friendly operational strategy which the NSCDC has been using to carry out its statutory duties has enabled the Corps to contribute meaningfully to human security in Nigeria. The presence of NSCDC officers dispels fear wherever they are deployed to carry out assignment. The tranquilizing effect of the presence of the NSCDC officers has greatly enhanced human security in Nigeria. In every disaster contexts, NSCDC officers are the most visible statutory security agents on ground working directly with the people. This actually the expectation of the nation and the people from the NSCDC, because ideologically the fundamental principle of civil defence duties is humanitarianism.

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**The Responsibility to Protect; Human (In) Security and the Threat of Statelessness in the Bakassi Peninsula**

Nicholas Idris ERAMEH, PhD

&

Prof. Victor OJAKOROTU

Department of Political Studies & International Relations

North West University, Mafikeng, South Africa

+2348032180304, eramehnicholas@gmail.com

**Introduction**

The long periods of colonial rule in Africa have thrown up both contending and emerging issues of statehood and citizenship in Africa. This problem explains why most post-colonial nations in Africa face the growing problem of ethnic fractionalization. Political power contestation, recognition, and even the problematic issue of complex and uneven distribution of resources (Sharkey 2013, Ali et al. 2015). This problem has been amplified by invisible colonial distinctions and boundaries, which has led to deepening inequality and alienation among citizens within the African continent. Gbenenye (2016) observes that "one of the problems shared by all new nations is the absence of national unity across many nation states in Africa. Thus, many of these nations have preoccupied themselves with addressing political, ethnic, and religious tensions and even boundary demarcations to the detriment of meaningful economic development. Undoubtedly, international boundary conflict has remained a significant source of contestation and violence in Africa (Mouiche 2009,

Ngalim 2016). This has accounted for the death of thousands of civilians and the destruction of lives and properties.

Nigeria and Cameroun are not isolated cases in this problem. Both countries had been locked in series of legal, political battles about the soul of the Bakassi and its inhabitants. Issues such as statelessness, cultural preservation, geographical identification, resource control, and allocation have all contributed to the unprecedented level of confrontation and violence in the battle for the soul of the Bakassi (Terlebba & Baroni 2010). However, there were a series of peace plans aimed at resolving the long ownership of the Bakassi region, the fear that Nigeria had the upper hand, and its readiness to employ force, as demonstrated in its authorization of military. Its persistent infringement and invasion informed Cameroun to file a case at the world court of justice refereed to as the International Court of Justice (ICJ 1996). Consequently, ICJ eventually pronounced Cameroun as the rightful owner of Bakassi –Pennisula and subsequently instructed Nigeria to pull out of the occupied areas through a supervised United Nations Green Tree Agreement (GTA).

Though the Nigerian government, learned lawyers, and even Nigerians expressed total discomfort on the ICJ verdict, the disputed Bakassi area was handed over to Cameroun through an official pulling down of the Nigerian flag and the subsequent hosting of the Cameroon flag on August 14, 2006. This move led to the total withdrawal of Nigerian troops in the presence of world leaders from Bakassi on August 14, 2006 (Baye 2010).

Since then, the plights of inhabitants chosen to remain in Cameroun or Nigeria have remained a source of concern amidst widening insecurity in the region.

This dilemma underscores the need to interrogate factors that have hindered the capacity of Nigeria and Cameroon to meet their obligations as specified in the GTA, the security implications of these lapses for the African region. Others include; recurring issues of exclusion and statelessness, the extent to which the international community fared in monitoring implementation of the agreement. Security implications on the global community and the extent to which the Responsibility to Protect (RtoP) doctrine could be applied. It argues that Cameroun and Nigeria have not been committed to the dictates of the GTA. This non-commitment has worsened insecurity and uncertainty about the political future of the inhabitants. Undoubtedly, this heightened insecurity amidst both countries' inaction justifies the need for the mobilization of the RtoP doctrine to protect the civilian population.

### **Statelessness, Human Insecurity, and the Bakassi Peninsula: Theoretical Consideration**

According to the Handbook on Statelessness in the OSCE Areas (n.d), a stateless person is an individual who cannot lay claim to the nationality of any country. Statelessness is caused by war, nationality laws, birth registration, succession, displacement, and discrimination along ethnic and religious lines. For, Atuguba et al. (2020), a person could be referred to as stateless if such persons cannot lay claim to the nationality of any state

within the principles of its laws. In summary, stateless persons are regarded as the segment of a population who, either through direct government action or natural causes, lose the country's nationality. Manly et al. (2014) observe that statelessness is a global problem but more visible in Southeast Asia among 40% of its total population. The issue of statelessness is occasioned by a lack of adequate information on childbirth registration, inconsistency in nationality law, succession, forced migration, migration, and apparent discrimination based on religious, racial, and ethnic affiliations.

Brownwen Manby (2018) admits that the different intricacies surrounding these countries' governance structures have made it difficult to arrive at an accurate demographic figure of stateless persons. What is certain is that many persons within these regions teeter towards statelessness, if not already stateless. The population who falls within these stateless persons due to colonial history of artificial demarcation of boundaries include; Migrants and their descendants who are either historical or modern, Refugees and former Refugees: returnees who share history hitherto, and the border population which comprises of the nomadic and pastoralist population.

The impact of statelessness on these persons is that they are denied fundamental human, political, economic, and social rights. Unlike Manby's description, Mbiyozo (2019) points out that four (Zimbabwe, South Africa, Madagascar, and the Democratic Republic of Congo) out of nine countries in Southern Africa face the acute problem of statelessness. This

problem has resulted in a lack of meaningful development, public health, internal displacement, migration, and national and regional insecurity. Similarly, Laura Vaan Wass (2014) argues that the inaccuracy of stateless persons worldwide is not unconnected to the difficulty in arriving at persons with recognized nationality and vice versa and the lack of adequate state documentation across several countries. Though this difficulty has persisted, shreds of evidence suggest that many citizens remain stateless across countries like the Democratic Republic of Congo, Zimbabwe, Lebanon, Nepal, India, Madagascar, and Bhutan.

Atuguba et al. (2020) explore the problematic issue of statelessness by reflecting on Ghana's experience. A large population is drawn from the fulanis, undocumented migrants, refugees along the border communities have overtime become stateless persons in Ghana. These persons have become stateless due to arbitrary denial of nationality, lack of recognition and documentation, migration, gender discrimination, secession, and inheritance of statelessness. They conclude that the more significant implications of the statelessness of these persons are that they are denied access to; works, justice, education, quality health care, participation in the democratic process, and governance structure.

Consequent ICJ judgment 2002, inhabitants of the Peninsula who had agreed to remain in Cameroun in Nigeria have been confronted with the problem of recognition, assimilation, registration of childbirth, belongingness, and discrimination.

Challenges manifested in the refugee and migration crisis across the Peninsula, but the inhabitant was on the verge of being termed stateless (Institute of Stateless and Inclusion 2018). The protracted issue of the right of ownership of the Bakassi Peninsula has attracted concerns both within and outside. And this has led to series of peace parley between the leaders of Nigeria and Cameroun (Eze 2007).

Scholars have traced the roots of the Africa conflict to its ethnic composition and how it affects relations among people, particularly those who reside close to border towns. Though the presence and interaction of persons around border communities boost trade, commerce, and socio-cultural activities, their activities have equally posed a severe security threat (Fombo 2006: 71). This is particularly the case within the Bakassi Peninsula, particularly with the periods of 1970 – 1980. The discovery of oil and the claims and counterclaims to the Peninsula heightened tension, leading to the region's militarization (Okereke 2018). Thus, many border conflicts have their roots in the artificial land demarcations dividing ethnic groups.

Tekena Tamuno (2012) traced the 1961 United Nations-sponsored conference on Northern and Southern Cameroons to the territorial re-arrangements of the sub-regional boundaries and observed that the Bakassi Peninsular phase of the boundary adjustment was carried out in bits. The first was through the ICJ verdict of 2002, followed by June 12 2006, Green Tree Pact, and the third being the actual transfer of political control on August

14, 2008. Thus, this arrangement resulted in a significant review of the Eastern limits of Nigeria's Map after the 1914 amalgamation. The GTA agreement confers the global community apparent commitment in addressing disputes across the regions of the world. However, the greatest challenge of the GTA was the inability to consider the aspirations and feelings of the Bakassi inhabitants. This inability has not only resulted in cultural clashes and general dissatisfaction but also led to unprecedented violence. Undoubtedly, the prospects of the Green Tree agreement remain blink since the arrangements were only state-specific and leaving out the indigenous people who are supposed to play critical roles in the decision-making process (Johnson-Ross & Sama 2006).

Ebeghulem (2008) argues that the inhabitants of the present-day Bakassi are predominantly Nigerians. And this is because they have long ago considered themselves and participated actively in the political process in Nigeria. Hence, taking critical decisions such as the Green Tree Agreement that led to the loss of their ancestral homes should not have been contemplated by the Nigerian government. The non-consideration of this issue led to the implantation of the ICJ judgment and partitioned these inhabitants into Cameroun.

Consequently, while the dispute seems to have been subsidized, there are emerging challenges which grave security implications. One of such is the over-the-militarization of the region by their security agencies of both countries fighting criminal gangs and other forms of violence. And, this has

justified the need for peacebuilding, alternative dispute mechanism, and the promotion of good governance (Ngalim 2016). For Eke (2009), the long-drawn conflict between Nigeria and Cameroun is triggered by the Nigeria versus France rivalry about the control of the economies of most francophone countries and the France continuous imperialist expansionist agenda. Asobie (2005) extends the position by arguing that the problem between both countries has its roots in the battle for natural resources and the continuous scramble for mineral resources in Africa. The Bakassi Peninsula conflict represents a typical conflict that induced natural resources and insecurity. Hence, the battle transcends beyond Nigeria and Cameroun relationship to external transnationalism (Mbaga & Njo 2007).

### **The ICJ, Green Tree Agreement and the Bakassi Peninsula Crisis: Emerging Challenges**

The Nigeria – Cameroun which dates back to history has its roots in the artificial partitioning of the African continent, and this explain the constant clashes among both nations.

These persistent clashes have worsened with the discovery of oil in the disputed territory (Akpan, 2009). Since then, the region has remained a source of contestation and confrontation among Nigeria and Cameroun, with each country hanging on to competing claims. Alobo et al. (2016) contend that Nigeria's claim to sovereignty over the region is deeply rooted under peaceful possession and manifestations of supremacy by Nigeria with agreement by Cameroun. These manifest contestation about the ownership of the Bakassi and the future

of its inhabitants forced Cameroun into seeking legal redress, which led to the famous ICJ judgment.

In a verdict of thirteen (13) to three (3) votes, the world Court held that Bakassi Peninsula belongs to Cameroun, and the country has the powers to station military and police forces within its territory along the Lake Chad region. In its concluding remarks, the ICJ took note of the undertaking by Cameroun of its continuous effort to protecting Nigerian's residents between Lake Chad and the Peninsula, who might have been affected by the judgment (ICJ Report, 2002:152-153). Furthermore, according to Article 36 (2) of the ICJ status, parties to the conflict are expected to accept its jurisdiction before its application can be entertained. (ICJ, 2002). By this pronouncement, Nigeria was expected and mandated to withdraw its troops and other administrative presence from the disputed territory (ICJ, 2002). Since the official handover and the hosting of the Cameroon flag in the Bakassi Peninsula, relative calm and peace are yet to be restored as expected. Instead, criminal activities, betrayal, hopelessness, and utter neglect have remained the order of the day.

The ICJ decision to hand over the Peninsula to Cameroun was carried out in the spirit of regional and global peace. It has also come with some emerging and contending challenges for both countries and entire continents. Since the GTA, large populations of residents who have preferred to remain in Nigeria or Nigerians have continually lived in appalling conditions. And despite a series of protests and the promise by successive

Nigerian governments in addressing this ugly trend, such contracts have ended as mere paper talk with no concrete evidence to allay the people's fears. The very fact that these indigenes have been deprived of fishing which was their primary occupation, and the idea that they have been displaced from their ancestral homes has worsened the level of insecurity in the region (Agba et al. 2010). At the economic level, oil workers and multinational corporations that have long operated in the area have been forced to relocate with consequences both for their business and the inhabitants of Bakassi (Tarlebba & Baroni 2010). Hence, apart from the rising level of unemployment, the loss of oil wells means the loss in oil revenue.

Thus, as against expectations, the displaced inhabitants of the Bakassi Peninsula have continued to live under dreadful experiences. Experiences abound of the torturing and killing of indigenes located around Cameroun gendarmes' Efut, Obot, and Ikot communities. Though the gendarmes and the Cameroonian authorities have repeatedly stated that the affected persons are criminal gangs, such claims have remained largely inconsistent and uncorroborated (Mudiga 2013). Such levels of unprecedented state-sponsored violence against the people serve to justify their earlier stated fears. And, while the onslaught continued, there seems to be little or no attention both from the Nigerian and Cameroonian governments. Hence, the display of anger, frustration, and emptiness among the inhabitants of the region is a manifestation of this high level of exclusion, despite the various degrees of assurance given by

both governments. Indisputably, this accounts for the series of protests and cessation movements noticed in the region.

Within this context, John – Ross & Sama (2006) observes that the ICJ judgment remains fundamentally flawed. This flaw is because, while the indigenous people of Bakassi on the Nigeria side continue to fight injustice meted out by both their host communities and the Nigerian government, those on the Cameroonian side equally face the same faith. However, unlike the Nigerian side, the calls for cessation and self-government by the displaced, marginalized populations in Cameroun have been met with stiff resistance and state-sponsored violence.

More so, a lot of criminal activity has continued to flourish in the Bakassi peninsula. Smugglers and other criminals' armed gangs have leverage on the worsening insecurity to perpetuate crime around the south – western part of Cameroun which is closer to the Nigeria territory (Niger -Thomas 2001). Since the world court verdict which handed over the Bakassi to Cameroun, some pocket of violence, confrontation and armed violence have persisted. This problem is triggered by the continuous insistence of controlling the oil rich region ( Mbaga & Njo 2009).

More visible is that the human insecurity and the threat of statelessness occasioned due to the insecurity within the Bakassi Peninsula have led to a considerable defense budget committed to providing security across the country's borders. In particular, the emergence of criminal groups within the region and the fear

of possible escalation or joining forces with other criminal gangs operating within Nigeria have increased military presence within the region. The implication is that the military is currently overstretched to provide internal security against its constitutional role of wading external aggression.

Lastly, the question of non-inclusion or acceptance of the Bakassi returnee into the society has a more extraordinary atmosphere of fear and insecurity among some host communities. While there have been several promises of addressing this problem, leaders' insincerity has resulted in a big letdown on the population. Many have, in turn, resulted in raping, stealing, kidnapping, creating war zones, and unsafe movement of goods and services within their refugee camps. Therefore, the inability of the intervening parties to involve the inhabitants of the region, lack of capacity of the governments of Cameroun and Nigeria to faithfully adhere to the Green Tree Agreement has led to neglect of the inhabitants and resulted in the Bakassi inhabitants' risk being termed, stateless persons.

### **The Bakassi Peninsula, Human Insecurity, and the Responsibility to Protect**

The history of the RtoP is incomplete without mentioning the humanitarian intervention, which has a long history in international discourse. Hence, civilian protection has long been on the international community's agenda, especially within the activities of non-state actors who championed protecting civilians and wounded soldiers in war situations. World War II marks the entrance of the international human rights regime in

the international community (Ferris 2011). The RtoP resonated or is a brainchild of the shameful inaction of the international community to the horrors of Rwanda and Kosovo, where thousands of civilians lost their lives (Erameh 2021). Hence, there was a need to avoid the circumstances which led to such a horrific situation. From the onset, the doctrine faced a critical challenge of reconciling the problem of upholding human rights at the expense of sovereignty. It sought, among other things, to refrain from the concept of sovereignty not only as a right but as a responsibility, and in which case a state loses such claim when it is unable to protect its citizens. Essentially, the RtoP indicates that state sovereignty is no longer absolute but relies on responsible behavior.

In responding to the humanitarian catastrophes, the international community-initiated steps towards responding to crimes against humanity which has become a regular occurrence in Africa. The move saw Canada playing the lead role in the International Commission for Intervention and State Sovereignty. The commission sought to replace the negatively conceived "right to intervene" with a more acceptable "responsibility or duty to intervene." The responsibility to protect was promulgated in a final report of the ICISS and subsequently endorsed via the World Summit Outcome Document (WSOD) of 2005. According to the ICISS report (2001), the RtoP entails three fundamental tenets: The responsibility to prevent, react, and rebuild. It went further to list the principles of the RtoP to include that;

- States must protect their citizens from war crimes, crimes against humanity, ethnic cleansing, and genocide.
- The international community should support states in actualizing their goal.
- When the state is unable or unwilling to protect its citizens, the international community can wade into the crisis through force.

The ICISS report went on to list six criteria upon which an armed intervention could be contemplated. These criteria are; right authority, right intention, just cause, proper authority, last resort, proportional means and reasonable prospects (ICISS 2001). Since its adoption and subsequent application in a series of deadly armed conflicts in and around Africa, the RtoP doctrine has been shrouded with emerging challenges. Yet, the need to protect civilians remained consistently compelling in and around Africa, mainly when governments are unwilling and unable to protect civilian populations from humanitarian catastrophe.

Nonetheless, recent experiences suggest that if the human rights protection doctrine is to be taken seriously, there are more significant needs to extend its mandate to include other forms of atrocity carried out against civilians that are not known to it. Essentially, civilian protection should only respond to armed conflict situations to guarantee the human security regime. Undoubtedly, the case in Bakassi fits into this narrative. The nature of displacement, state-sponsored violence,

unprecedented insecurity and violence, human rights abuse and the tendency of tethering towards statelessness among the inhabitants of Bakassi calls for a more proactive international commitment to addressing their horrifying plight. Hence, there is a need for the advocates of the RtoP to think beyond armed intervention to soft intervention.

### **Conclusion**

The Bakassi – Peninsula crisis involving Nigeria and Cameroun once again poses a challenge for the drafters and advocates of the RtoP doctrine. Specifically, it calls for a critical reflection on other crimes non listed as grounds upon which the doctrine could be applied or mobilized. The need for such consideration remains consistent with the ongoing emerging cause of violence against the civilian population, flourishing violent activities of non-state actors, and the apparent regional and global inaction. Beyond this task, there are more significant needs to remind the state of their commitment and obligations as stipulated in Pillar I of the RtoP. This becomes necessary going by Nigeria and Cameroun's lackluster response to the atrocities and human insecurity witnessed among the inhabitants of the regions. Therefore, the expected role of regional organizations like the Africa Union (AU) needs to be reexamined, considering their role in institutionalizing the RtoP doctrine.

This task will include assessing the situation in Bakassi and determining the nature of the intervention to be carried out through the RtoP. And, while the international community and the AU demonstrate a willingness to invoke the RtoP, there is a

need to commit both Cameroun and Nigeria to their respective pledges on protecting the Bakassi inhabitants. Notably, there are more significant needs for more inclusive policy and proactive efforts on the part of both countries towards ameliorating the Bakassi inhabitants, which is achievable through more substantial regional commitment. Also, since the ICJ did not consider the role of the supposed inhabitants of the disputed region, further negotiations on how best to address the plight of the Bakassi indigenes must always consider the roles of the inhabitants.

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**BRITISH MINING POLICY IN JOS PLATEAU,  
NIGERIA: AN ASSESSMENT, 1900-1960**

Abejide, TS Ph.D

Dept. of history & International Studies

Al-hikmah University Ilorin,

Phone No 08139 51 4787

EMAIL- [tavesayo4@gmail.com](mailto:tavesayo4@gmail.com) [tsabejide@alhikmah.edu.ng](mailto:tsabejide@alhikmah.edu.ng)

**ABSTRACT**

*The discovery of tin ore and production in Nigeria during the colonial rule provides another source of revenue for the post-colonial government to tap for socio-economic growth and development of Nigeria. This paper examines the onerous environmental effect of tin mining and production on the people of Jos Plateau State during the British colonial administration. It discusses the colonial administrative policy on the exploration and production of Tin in Jos, particularly specific laws and ordinances established to create an enabling environment for Tin Mining Companies. It argued that the operations of British Mining Companies in Jos Plateau brought degradation and pollution of land in the producing local area. For proper data analysis, this paper employed both primary and secondary sources. It further explained that despite the activities of Tin Mining Companies in Jos city, most local people has experienced loss of farm land, degradation and poverty. It concludes that there is urgent need for a re-direction of policy on Tin exploration and production by the Federal government to forestall socio-economic growth of the Tin city and Nigeria at large. It recommends that until the above is put in place, only then would the potentialities of tin mining would be achieved.*

**Key words:** Tin-Mining, Production, Jos-Plateau, Degradation.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Jos Town is the Capital of Plateau State and of the Jos Division of the Local Administration. Jos is located almost in the geographical centre of Nigeria, about 1,000km North-East of Lagos, 400km South of Kano, 900km North of Port Harcourt, 600km South-West of Maiduguri, and 1,000km South-East of Sokoto. It is located at the Northern part of the Plateau which bears its name at an elevation of about 1,200m above sea level. As a town, it is the most asymmetrically placed State Capital in the whole of Nigeria, located at the extreme Northern end of the State. Except on its Northern part, the town is almost surrounded by hills.<sup>1</sup>

To the East were the Dogon-Dutse and share Hills which rise to over 1,300m and 1,400m respectively. On the Western side are the Jenta Hills which also rise to over 1,280m above sea level. To the South are many small and large inselbergs, rocks and crops. In the North, the topography is worsened by many unclaimed old mining paddocks although a few of these have been reclaimed. Jos lies within the basin of the Delimi River, a tributary of the Shari River system which flows to the North-East and drains into Lake-Chad.

The Delimi and its tributaries of which the most important are the Niger, Curly and Canteen Greeks have been straddled by the built up area of Jos. Because of the seasonality of flow caused by the rainfall regime, these streams contain water during the rainy season (April to October) but dry up in the middle of the dry season (November to March). Apparently, today most of

their channels have been widened by mining and other activities such as quarrying of sand for building purposes leaving extensive pools of water in the dry season. It is noted that, on account of its altitude, Jos town experiences cooler temperatures and in some cases, higher rainfall than the surrounding towns.

Tin Mining is said to be one of the oldest industry known to mankind. It has been in existence long before the coming into contact with the European. Evidence from the Nok culture suggests that tin had been worked in the Jos area several centuries before the 19th Century. The tin ore was prospected mainly in local streams as in tins pans. Tin was put to different uses by blacksmiths who worked on the metal as on brass and bronze. It was used for the production of luxury items of ornamentation for men and women. More so, with the coming of the British rule in 1900s, land were taken over either by direct force or by, craftily influencing their leaders.<sup>2</sup> Thus, Jos mining industry became one good example in which Nigerian resources were exploited during the colonial period. To a large extent, the colonial mining policy has laid down a firm root for post-colonial government to tap and ensure accelerated growth and development of Jos city and Nigeria at large.

Several scholarly works have been written on mining activities in Nigeria, but for the purpose of this research, some relevant ones have been consulted. To start with, the work by Bingel, provides relative information on the origins and the development of the people. This work suggests that before the coming of colonial rule, there were few foreigners who had

established contacts with the people of Jos-Plateau. They were mainly from the neighbouring ethnic groups such as the Hausa Fulani, Jukun among others. However, the imposition of colonial rule led to massive influx of immigrants both within and outside Nigeria to the area. Bingel's work therefore provides useful information on the fact that the tin-mining was the major factor that attracted immigrants to the Jos-Plateau was tin mining.<sup>3</sup> According to Charles, B.K and others the tin mining industry in Jos Plateau started in 1904 during the colonial era. After the survey of the area in 1902, the expatriate mining of tin ore began in 1904 despite the resistance offered by the people. From then onwards, the British extracted large quantities of tin ore from the Jos Plateau such that by 1938 Nigeria's export of tin ore to Britain stood at 10,486 tons which was valued at £1,435,157. It rose to 11,164 tons in 1951/52 and 11,942 tons in 1952-53. Many people got attracted to Jos Plateau as a result of tin mining, while a few to Naraguta and Delimi where mining activities also took place. During this period, only very few people worked in government establishments as labourers and messengers. Those who worked in the mining camps were immigrant Hausa people or Kanuri from Kano, Zaria, Bauchi and as far as the Emirate of Bornu and Chad Region.<sup>4</sup> In the same vein, studies by Rene, at different times over the years indicates that tin ore is one of the several minerals found around Barkin Ladi Local Government Area. It contains toxic crystalline silica, which has been associated with lung cancer and other respiratory diseases. For decades, mine workers have been working with little or no protection against this toxic substance. The abandoned mines are also death traps, as

children and adults occasionally drown and the ever increasing population of people living around the ponds means more and more people are exposed to dangerous radioactive particles.<sup>5</sup>The literature is also useful and throw a great deal of light on the current study.

On the role of women in the tin mining production, studies carried by out by Alahira entitled ‘Berom Women and Colonial Tin Mining Enterprise: Jos Plateau, Northern Nigeria’, reveals that women were mostly engaged in the unskilled labour and were paid lowest wages. The Berom women actively involved in the washing, picking tin and pottering, and at the same time engaged with other auxiliary jobs. It explains further that though women were equally involved in local trade in food, firewood, beer brewing and other entertainment, the tin mining added extra burden to their domestic and agricultural role. From this study, it is clear that the role of women in tin mining was however marginal, because they were subjected to double exploitation of their labour by men and colonial agents.<sup>6</sup> Oresegun and Babalola found that the environmental damaged caused as a result of the mining operation in Jos has continued to affect the inhabitants over the years. But the discovery of oil in Nigeria in the mid-1950s resulted in a shift in emphasis from tin mining. With the shift, Jos was caught cold and left blighted with challenge of degradation and devastation to the soil and the environment. Tin exploration and mining left a grotesque legacy of over 4,000 abandoned mining ponds, which have continued to pose a serious threat to the environment and the inhabitants. Quite a lot of damage was done to the land, particularly around

Jos. Dozens of people have drowned in the deep unmanned ponds and there are speculations that the ponds have radioactive elements, which represent further danger to the people in the area.<sup>7</sup>

Aigbedion, and Iyayi, mentioned the three stages of mineral development, exploration, mining and processing, have caused different types of environmental damages, which include ecological disturbance, destruction of natural flora and fauna, pollution of air, land and water, instability of soil and rock masses, landscape degradation and radiation hazards. The environmental damage has in turn resulted in waste of arable land, as well as economic crops and trees. Since much of the damage is inevitable, if the minerals must be developed, both the government and the mineral industry must be involved in taking precautionary and remedial measures that can minimize the ill-effects of mineral development.<sup>8</sup>

To Janet, the Jos area of Nigeria has been identified as a high background radiation.<sup>9</sup> The waste products (tailing) from the mining of tin ore to obtain tin and columbite are discarded and dumped around the mining sites. Radioactivity contaminated land can arise as a result of industrial processes, including past waste disposal or accident. Radionuclide could be present on land as a result of a number of past land uses. Contamination of land could occur during the extraction and handling of materials containing high levels of Naturally Occurring Radionuclide Materials (NORM). The intake or ingestion of radionuclide contaminated feed, e.g. grass by animals can concentrate

radioactivity in tissues. The uptake of radionuclides by animals is dependent on the animal species, mass, age, and growth rate of animal and the digestibility of the feed. Ingestion of soil during grazing can be an important contributor to intake of activity, particularly for radionuclides that are not taken up readily by grass. Hence, contamination of meat is mainly the result of animal grazing, but contaminated drinking water might also be an important pathway. Clearly, communities in the mining area of Jos have been exposed internally to radionuclides through eating the products of animals which have eaten contaminated substances.

The environmental impact of Tin mining operations has been largely felt in some old mining centres in some Jos communities like, Bitsichi, Bukuru, and Ropp, particularly on their agricultural activities. For example, farming on soils situated in high background radiation areas can result to enhanced radiation exposure scenarios and pathways to humans. To assess the likely levels of exposures, farm soil samples were collected from different farmlands in three old tin mining localities (Bitsichi, Bukuru and Ropp) in Jos Plateau Nigeria, known for high radiations. The soil samples were analyzed to ascertain the level of its impact on the people. It was found that the radiation shows the possibility of health risk among the farming population and workplace environment which often is not covered by regulations concerning health protection.<sup>10</sup>Hence, lack of enabling environmental policy have brought health challenges on most communities in the tin mining areas of Jos.

## **JOS ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES BEFORE THE DISCOVERY OF TIN ORE**

The pre-colonial political and economic activities of various ethnic groups that formed what is called Jos-Plateau had communal lifestyles with heads of clans as leaders. The local people were governed through a well-established ruling house. It should be added that the extent of political activities was based on different dimensions as a result of diversities in political awareness, culture, ethnic background and religious differences.<sup>11</sup> In their traditional political system, the people of Jos practiced self-governance with a social structure that constituted a traditional heads and council of elders who were responsible for the checks and balances of the society<sup>12</sup>.

It is important to note that the British colonial administration reshaped the political system of Jos. In fact, most of the political decisions were taken by the British between the 1900 and 1960.<sup>13</sup> In modern times, the city has been administratively, divided into three local government areas, namely; Jos north, Jos south and Jos east. The city lies between Jos-north and Jos-south. Jos-east houses the prestigious National Center. Jos-north is the State capital and the area where most commercial activities of the state takes place although as a result of the recent communal clashes a lot of commercial activities have shifted to Jos-south.

As was common in most part of Africa and Nigeria in the pre-colonial period, agrarian economic activity was predominant among the people of Jos. Evidence has revealed that most of

them were actively engaged with farming, others in hunting and trading in form of barter system. There were evidences of long-distance trade particularly by the caravan traders within the north central and the middle belt.<sup>14</sup>As a result of the central location of Plateau State in Nigeria, its climatic conditions have made the city conducive for the cultivation of a large variety of agriculture products. The availability of abundant land and low population density has made intensive agricultural production an important part of the rural economy. It is noted that Kanam Local Government Area's traditional economy were mainly based on agriculture. The main crops grown include: maize, cotton, groundnuts, beans and millet. Kanam is credited to be the highest producer of quality cotton in the State. Similarly the economy of Kanke Local Government Area was agrarian with such food crops as guinea corn, groundnuts, acha, maize, millet, beans, cassava, rice, cocoyam, cotton and sweet potatoes.<sup>15</sup> The Langtang North Local Government Area was rich in the production of crops such as groundnuts, yams, guinea-corn, maize, and cotton.<sup>16</sup>

The large scale agricultural production of the State has made some Local Governments to develop very significant grain markets. For instance Mangu Local Government Area's economy is mainly agricultural with cash crops such as Irish potatoes, maize, beans, millet, wheat, rice, sorghum, and guinea corn being grown in commercial quantities and marketed both within and outside the State as well as to neighbouring countries.<sup>5</sup> The popular Mangu Friday grains market attracted traders from near and far. The Qu'an Pan Local Government

also produces mainly yams, rice, maize, guinea corn, melon and groundnuts.<sup>17</sup>

Riyom Local Government Area of Jos equally specializes in the production of a wide variety of vegetable products namely, Cabbage, Lettuce, Carrots, Green Beans, Cucumbers, Peas, Green Peppers, and a host of horticultural products. These are produced throughout the year by both irrigation farming. Other crops that are produced in the Local Government Area include acha, rice, sweet and Irish potatoes, maize and millet. Similarly, the availability of pasture as a result of the favourable rainfall, abundance of sources of water supply and the temperate climate of Plateau State makes it conducive for livestock rearing. The practice of transhumance also makes Plateau State a favourable destination for flocks of livestock from the North West and North East zones of the country. For example, major livestock reared in the Plateau: Cattle, Sheep, Goats, Pigs, Poultry and Rabbits. The livestock sub-sector generates revenue for Plateau State through its many diverse upstream and downstream enterprises e.g. Livestock trade tax, slaughter fees paid in government owned abattoirs, Hides and Skins Buyers License fees and clinical treatment fees for livestock at government veterinary clinics.<sup>18</sup> A large scale national trade network in livestock exists and Plateau State serves as one of the supply centres of this intricate trade.

Other local enterprises included; food processing, beer brewing, and the manufacture of cosmetics, soap, rope, jute bags, and furniture. Heavy industry produces cement and asbestos cement,

crushed stone, rolled steel, and tire retreads. It should be added that Jos is a centre for the construction industry and has several printing and publishing firms. The Jos-Bukuru dam and reservoir on the Shen River provide water for the city's industries.<sup>19</sup>

### **BRITISH MINING LEGISLATIONS AND THE DISCOVERY OF TIN ORE IN JOS**

The foundations and the development of commercial tin mining in northern Nigeria began in the early 20<sup>th</sup> Century. It should be noted that such fundamentally unknown space i.e. an underground zone lying at the edge of Empire, which was constructed as a mineral rich region, and subsequently integrated with capital and commodity markets in Europe as an extractive economy. From 1902 onwards, the landscape of the Jos Plateau was re-worked to supply tin ores and concentrates to smelters, refineries and fabricators in Europe.<sup>20</sup> At their height, the mines of northern Nigeria provided almost one-tenth of the world's tin. Since exploration and exploitation of mineral wealth in British colonies were rapid and prior to the oil discovery in the southern Nigeria, there was an abundance of tin ore to be exploited on and around Jos Plateau in North Central Nigeria.

In addition, the exploration of tin began with a small-scale activity until 1904, when prospectors from the Royal Niger Company discovered the source of the tin in the alluvium of rivers draining the granite complexes of the Jos-Bukuru-Ropp area of the Jos Plateau. However, with the discovery of the

source area, commercial exploitation of the deposits began immediately. One of the major factors that attracted immigrants to Jos-Plateau was tin mining. As a result of colonial conquest of the North Central part of Nigeria, colonial tin mining started in 1903 following the forceful suppression of the local miners in places like Ririwan Delma, Tilda Fulani, Narabi and Garbi, all in Bauchi. More importantly, one of the instruments which facilitated the process of colonial tin mining was the Land Proclamation Acts of 1904 and 1910 and Mineral Acts of 1903 passed by Lord Lugard.<sup>21</sup> This led to the alienation of huge land from the people for tin mining, which later resulted into land devastation and land crisis in the area. As a result of these Land Proclamation Acts many British prospectors and mining companies rushed for land in the area. The number of these companies increased from 50 in 1911 to 83 in 1982.<sup>22</sup> At the same time, the rise in the number of mining firms was followed by rapid increase in the production of tin ore.

### **OPERATIONS OF MINING COMPANIES IN JOS**

One of the ways by which man impacts his environment has been through mining activities. Tin mining industry is one of the oldest industries in the world and its importance cannot be over emphasized. Mining on the whole is the extraction of valuable mineral resources or other geological minerals from the earth, usually from an ore body, vein or seam. It has equally been described as an act or process of extracting minerals of economic importance from their natural environment and transporting them to points of processing and use. Mining in Nigeria started as far back as in the eighteenth century.

Over 500 occurrences and deposits of different minerals are known to have existed in Nigeria with the exploration of some on a smaller scale.<sup>23</sup> One of the major cases of mineral exploration and exploitation that boomed within the nation has been that of Tin ore in Jos-Plateau. Tin was one of the oldest mineral resources known to man as its valuable importance was recognized as far as some 300 years ago when its hardening effects on copper was discovered. Since then, tin ore have been mined in several parts of Nigeria including Zaria, Kano, Bauchi, Ilesha and Plateau Province, with over 80% of the production coming from the Jos Plateau.

The tin mining industry in Jos Plateau started in 1904 during the colonial era. After the survey of the area in 1902, the expatriate mining of tin ore began in 1904 despite the resistance offered by the people. From then onwards, the British extracted large quantities of tin ore from the Jos Plateau such that by 1938 Nigeria's export of tin ore to Britain stood at 10,486 tons which was valued at £1,435,157. It rose to 11,164 tons in 1951-52 and 11,942 tons in 1952-53.<sup>24</sup> Interestingly, the Land Proclamation Acts of 1904 and 1910 and the Mineral Acts of 1903 passed by Lord Lugard enabled the British colonial government to take over most lands which were leased for mining. This led to alienation of huge land from the people for tin mining and later created land crisis in the area.

In 1902 and 1909, two mining companies, (i.e. Niger Company and Champion Nigeria Tin Field Company), obtained licences

to start their mining operation in the southern and Jos Plateau of northern Nigeria.<sup>25</sup> The Niger Company's licence covered approximately 900 square miles along the Plateau and Bauchi area. The licences also required the mining companies to consider the protection of agriculture lands, forest and rivers and the mining lease agreement required the restoration of land to a state suitable for agricultural operation after mining had stopped, particularly if such land had previously been of pastoral value. The miners had to comply with the payment of rents and royalties to the colonial government in Nigeria, as well as the native community.<sup>26</sup> The mining for tin actively began with the improvement on transportation, with communication facilities and the construction of roads to reach the centres of production. It should be noted that improved communication had a great impact on the opening up of areas, particularly railway construction in the north from Baro-Kano-Lagos across the Jebba bridge. Discovery of tin was made in the Jos area of the Plateau and Bauchi in the north by the two mining companies partly as a result of large capital investment by the industry.

## **TIN ORE IN JOS: ANY POTENTIAL FOR NIGERIA ECONOMIC RESUSCITATION?**

### **Tin Mining and Jos Economy**

As stated above, tin mining started in the 'Tin City' of Jos way back in 1902 and by the mid-1940s the British government formally entered into exploration and mining in the region, making it the number one foreign export from Nigeria to Europe. Colonial government required the establishment of tin mining in Nigeria on a capitalist basis to serve the industrial

needs of the West. Pre-colonial social organization prevented the release of sufficient labour for this purpose. After the British conquest, a migrant labour force was built up in conjuncture with a growing reserve army of labour by means of cash taxation, penetration of the market, weakening of slavery and state use of forced labour.<sup>27</sup> This shows how commercial exploitation of the Plateau's tin resources radically re-configured both physical landscapes and forms of social organisation in the Plateau, thereby generating novel socio-natural juxtapositions that came to be experienced as poor working conditions, environmental hazards, and conflicts between farmers and miners over access to land.<sup>28</sup>

Furthermore, the mining of tin have been largely responsible for profound changes in the landscape and in the social economic structure of Jos. Limited arable land was experienced in Jos Plateau area as a result of the high rate of surface mining. It should be noted that mined soils are poorer in agricultural value compared to adjoining natural land. Crops grown on such mined land are of low agricultural value, quick maturing and low nutrient demanding such as acha, dauro, maize, millet and irish potato. Calvert revealed that the indiscriminate mining on the Jos Plateau led to many parts of the area being exposed to erosion and reduces the available arable land for crop production.<sup>29</sup> Jos South local government area was an extensively mined area, dominated by use of heavy earth moving equipment and draglines. The zone experienced deep excavations and dumping of high overburden, mine ponds, mine tailings and slurry wash deposit during the colonial rule.<sup>30</sup>

**Table 1.1: Output of tin, 1910-1914**

Year	Tin Exported(Tons)	Ore Worth
1910	739	77, 310
1911	1,529	181, 759
1912	2,803	336, 330
1913	4, 142	568,428
1914	6,174	706, 987

Source: Nigeria Handbook.

The above table reveals the output of tin within the period 1910 to 1914. The capital investment by the London Company increased output from 739 tons in 1910 to 6,174 tons in 1914. Also, the output of tins also rose to 9,996 tons in 1917, but has fallen to about 7,000 tons by the 1920s.

**Table 1.2: Export of tin, 1915-45**

Year	Volume (Tons	Value(E)
1915	6,535	723,840
1918	8,294	1,770, 003
1920	7,913	1,785, 724
1925	9,293	1,737, 578
1930	12,069	1,373, 466
1935	8, 949	1,456,753
1940	14, 843	2, 726, 911
1945	15,166	3,129, 265

Source: Nigerian Handbook; Annual Report of the Mines Department, Lagos Government Printers

This table above reveals the rapid increase in the output of tin in tons to 1915, with about 6,535 tons valued at 723,840 pound sterling. There was a sharp decrease in the output of tin ore before 1918 and the 1920s as a result of the wars, but the revival of the industry in the 1930s resuscitated the volume from 12,069, valued at 1,737, 578 to 15, to 166 tons in 1945, valued at 3,129,265 pound sterling. Apparently, the process of mining in Jos Plateau attracted migrants labour within the north central and from other parts of the country. It drastically reduced over dependence on arable farming among the local people who were fully engaged with wage labour in the colonial mining companies.

### **ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TIN PRODUCTION ON THE LOCAL PEOPLE (BEROM)**

Tin mining in Jos Plateau has positively impact on the revenue generation both to the Federal Government, State, the local people as well as the mining companies. For example, Berom women used this opportunity and derived more revenue through the sale of local food to the miners. The local women equally made more money from the sale of chickens, goats and ducks during this period. Some others engaged in the sale of firewood to the mining companies which then was an essential commodity in the camps. Berom women and those of their neighbouring ethnic groups took this opportunity and made brisk business from selling firewood. On the other hand, the local men also got more money from the sale of grains.<sup>31</sup>The discovery of

Tin Ore in Jos Plateau has brought changes both to the environment and its host communities over the years. Jos is renowned for Tin mining production, particularly during the colonial era. The area played an important role in the generation of internal revenue for the District Colonial Office as well as met the local needs of the Berom and other ethnic people.

It is noted that the Jos environment has been affected negatively as a result of the operations of mining companies over the years. According to Jibiri and Agomuo, the traditional farming system of the indigenes has become distorted today as a result of shortage of land so that the people especially in these mining communities, because of socio-economic pressure had to farm on the same piece of land yearly and with the poor quality of the land, produce yields have been reported very poor.<sup>32</sup> It should be noted that mining has reduced the size of their farmland and 34.2% had been lost, as well as about 1.5 to 2 and half of their land to mining. Bearing in mind that majority of them were subsistent farmers, it means many of them had lost the whole of their land to mining. More so, the tin mining industry on the Jos Plateau had led to extensive man-made environmental damage, with vast tracks of pastoral land systematically destroyed in the quest for cassiterite and columbite. Also, with increased radioactive waste as a result of dumping of mine tailings and several heaps of mine dumps (overburden) and also mine ponds scattered all over the area. These mine ponds have resulted in several deaths, with about 106 recorded from the years 1980 to 1993.<sup>33</sup>

Furthermore, the bio-diversity of the mining areas has been badly damaged as a result of the mining activities. According to Howard and Ramson, the minerals were extracted and used by industries, the earth crust had been disturbed. They argued that this crust was inhabited by some living things whose life patterns were disturbed when mining was undertaken. This resulted in a loss of biodiversity.<sup>34</sup> Similarly, mines, both active and inactive, constituted potential water contamination sources. According to Davies, the Mining excavations created direct connection between ground water and the land surface.<sup>35</sup> Hence, oxidation of exposed minerals which led to acid mine drainage in the mining communities of Jos.<sup>36</sup> Leaching of heavy metals has threatened the local people. In fact, drainage of materials from abandoned mines has contaminated the ground water source for years after mining operations had stopped.<sup>37</sup> The extent of the landscape originally disturbed by the large scale commercial tin mining operations on the Jos Plateau is put at 325 km<sup>2</sup> and represented more than 17% of the agricultural land with 8,600 km<sup>2</sup> of the entire Jos Plateau region, the bulk of which is virtually covered by rock outcrops.<sup>38</sup> Tin Mining activities had adversely affected the plateau people. These resulted in the alienation and destruction of farmlands, diversion of labour from food production, environmental degradation and exploitation of surplus from the peasants and shortage of food. The Plateau people did not benefit from tin mining as they occupied low position in the social hierarchy after the Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo and other foreigners.<sup>39</sup>

It should be noted that for easy access and marketability of tin ore, a substantial reduction in transport costs was necessary to the valuable deposits which were now located around Ray field and Bukuru. A rough motor road was built in 1910 from Rahama at the foot of the Plateau to link the mineral fields with the Baro – Kano railway a Rigachikun, a few kilometers North of Kaduna. Another positive effect of the tin mining activities on the Jos Plateau was the infrastructural development which was linked to the advent of tin mining. This led to the construction of railway lines, Nesco Hydroelectric Power Company and roads. Between 1901 and 1910, the output of tin ore had risen from 50 to nearly 600 tons.<sup>40</sup>

## **GOVERNMENT RESPONSES TO ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS IN JOS**

The legacy of landscape dereliction and waste led in 1982 to the State Government declaring much of the central area of the Plateau to be a 'disaster area'. Two major factors influenced this decision: first, it was a response to mounting public concern over the danger to children playing around in the abandoned area and secondly, it was an attempt to attract further funds for reclamation from the Federal Government. This whole question of reclamation of the tin fields is a controversial topic and until the fall of the Shagari Government in 1983 it had been the focus of much political friction between the State and Federal Governments. Although legislation covering mineral rights, registration of leases and compensation for loss of land was introduced soon after 1904, it was not until the introduction of the 1946 Minerals Act that regulations covering reclamation

were included in any legislation.<sup>41</sup>The introduction of this Act caused a flurry of restoration by two of the larger mining companies.

In the early 1960s, the Federal Government took some steps in response to the environmental hazards in the mining community, but it was not efficiently controlled. Reclamation began again with the creation of a separate Plateau State in 1976, with funding from the Federal Government, a small reclamation unit established within the Ministry of Animal and Forest Resources. Political differences, between the State and Federal Government, greatly reduced the effectiveness of this unit. Amid accusation of misappropriation of funds, the Federal Government in 1979 set up the Joint Consultative Committee on Mines and Reclamation (JCC), to oversee reclamation throughout Nigeria. The JCC was given Federal funds to use for reclamation and rather than disbursing these to State organizations, they allowed contracts to be competitive tender. Two of such schemes were successfully completed on the Plateau before serious economic problems hit Nigeria in 1983 and all funding for reclamation ceased. It is apparent that some of the decline in soil conditions that has occurred in the Mining Resource Areas (MRA) occurred as a result of poor management practices. There is, however, an increasing volume of evidence from mining cite which indicates that in certain circumstances eucalypts can directly cause long-term deterioration in soil conditions.<sup>42</sup>

## **Conclusion**

This paper has examined Tin mining and environment, with a focused on Jos Plateau. Evidence found that environmental hazards posed by mining activities can be reduced by adapting best mining practices such as mine reclamation after mining, while mine waste should be properly disposed. This study has revealed that Solid minerals contributed immensely to the economic development of Nigeria in the pre-independence years. This study also revealed that the mining communities experienced varying degrees of farm land reduction by tin mining activities ranging from soil erosion problems, swampy nature of neglected mined excavation, mine dump, pits and industrial use of the arable land. These in turn result in low productivity in crop farming, land fragmentation, land disputes and conflicts, and unemployment in the area. However, irrigation water was derived from the mine ponds. Some of the ponds are so deep that they are recharged by ground water, thus making them permanent water bodies, with high potentials for irrigation, fisheries, water supply and recreation. Consequently, the ponds and dams created by mining operations now provide water for irrigation farming in the study area. The ponds are also very valuable livestock watering points and sources of domestic water to many nearby settlements. In addition, some dry mining pits provide ready-made and cheap sites for refuse disposal.

This paper has further revealed that Mining activities have not only impacted on the environment of the Jos Plateau by way of depriving the farmers their means of livelihood but has

contributed to the growth in population. This increase in population has brought with it the resultant social vices, such as crime rate, prostitution, traffic congestion, stress on facilities and even loss of cultural heritage. Mining laws enacted by the Government should be strictly enforced to ensure compliance and prevent future unwholesome practices. Over all, the shift in emphasis from tin mining to crude oil led to a decline in the contribution of tin to the formal economy, just as weak regulatory frameworks have contributed to the informality associated with tin mining in Jos, Plateau.

Improving environmental governance in the mining sub-sector is a critical step towards addressing the challenges posed by tin mining activities at both formal and informal levels. Efforts towards addressing this challenge through the Ecological Funds given to the States by the Federal Government, as well as the move towards the call by civil society for the establishment of the Land Reclamation and Ecological Development Board in Plateau State has done little or nothing in tackling mining induced devastations in Plateau State and beyond. Also, current mines should be properly planned to minimize the amount of hazardous waste they produce, while on historical mines where waste already exist, remedial action maybe required, such as suitable land use planning, so as to restrict the use of contaminated sites. It should be noted that an established and well managed solid minerals sub-sector would accelerate economic, social and political growth of Jos Plateau and Nigeria at large by provision of gainful employment and a rise in national income earnings far exceeding the petroleum sector.

Solid minerals would provide local raw materials for industries and bring vital infrastructure and wealth to rural areas

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